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Mike Nelson (toim.)

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SISÄLTÖ

Foreward

The year 2019 marks the fortieth anniversary of the creation of the University of Turku Language Centre. During this time, the Centre has grown from having two full-time teachers to having fifty-seven in three cities. Looking at the founding documents of the Language Centre in 1979, we see that the main tasks were to teach both domestic and foreign languages, to produce materials for the teaching in cooperation with other language centres, to arrange translation services, to provide teaching for university staff, to provide testing services and to take care of the university's language studios.

At the core of the Language Centre's function is the teaching, and from the beginning the teaching has been underpinned by an understanding of the importance of research. This realization led to the publication of the first Kielikeskus tutkii in 2013 and as we reach this landmark year, our teachers have once again produced articles for our fourth edition in the series. From the outset, we made a decision to adopt an inclusive approach to the themes of the articles: this was to be open to any idea or theme related to language centre teaching and development. We are thus happy to be able to present eight new articles, in three languages, that address the diversity of language centre teaching.

In the first article, Averil Bolster and Peter Levrai consider the notion of collaboration in an EAP context with particular reference to how this concept is understood by practitioners. The results of their survey of over sixty teachers and staff show that there is a continuum of views as to what collaboration is seen to be and the views often differ from those found in the literature. They propose a working definition of collaborative assignments in EAP that can help future design and assessment approaches.

Carola Karlsson-Fält investigates how feelings can affect language learning. Inspiration for the article came from her experiences with students visiting the Luckan language-immersion café in Turku, Finland. Students were asked to write a short report based on their visit. It became clear from these reports the role that feelings of excitement, anxiety, fear and joy amongst others had in the language learning process. Thus, the need is stressed for a safe and supportive learning environment for all students.

Marise Lehto notes that universities have been charged with a mission that is twofold: to teach and to conduct research but that latterly a third component of their mission has been added, i.e. to become an entrepreneurial university. Lehto explores what this means from the perspective of the Centre for Languages and Communication, and attempts to find action strategies that can assist the centre in contributing to the entrepreneurial mission via a study of full-time university teachers.

Mike Nelson has two articles in this edition of Kielikeskus tutkii: the first is a report on the 2digi project, which provides teachers with assistance in the digitalization of their teaching, and the second, a longer article looking into the form and nature of business English lexis.

The 2digi project was commissioned by Finelc, the umbrella organization for all language centres, to help teachers to operate more effectively in a technology-rich environment. In this project, special emphasis was placed on pedagogical aspects rather than the technological. The report looks at the process followed to create a final website of resources by the teachers involved and then gives a brief overview of these resources.

The second article asks ‘What is business English?’ and focuses on the lexis and semantic environment found when business language is used. A corpus-based approach is used to identify the key words of business and these words are then analysed to discover whether they can be seen to form an identifiable entity of their own. It is found that there is a clearly definable set of lexis that is statistically linked to business English. However, business language feeds from and is nourished by general English in a reciprocal semantical flow.

Bridget Palmer examines the cultural identities of Finnish and non-Finnish students. She uses Korhonen’s Finnish Nightmares comic series as a focal point for unstructured discussion between Finnish and non-Finnish students. The results of these discussions reaffirmed the notion that cultural identity is dynamic and hard to define.

Kelly Raita reports on a blended model for teaching academic presentations to doctoral researchers. In a small-scale study, she evaluates researchers’ perceptions of the blended learning course in order to identify areas for improvement. It was found that the blended approach provided the students with greater autonomy and the freedom to more easily personalise course content.

In the final article, written in Swedish, Anne-Maj Åberg focuses on how the starting level of CeLCS students' ability in Swedish has changed over the last ten years. The entry level is examined by comparing the number and grades of students who have taken preparatory courses for the Swedish Baccalaureate in the academic year 2008–2009 and in the academic year 2018–2019. In addition, the article looks at how the need for Swedish teaching has increased over the same period by comparing the provision of remedial courses.

As we celebrate forty years of providing university students with the language, communication, cultural and working life knowledge they need, I would like to thank all the contributors to our journal and on behalf of us all, I hope you enjoy the articles in this latest publication.

Student Collaboration in English for Academic Purposes - Theory, Practitioner Perceptions and Reality

Averil Bolster & Peter Levrai

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Student collaboration is a feature of degree level studies and collaboration itself can be a stated learning outcome of degree programmes as an important employability competence. Much work has been done to define and understand collaboration, with a clear distinction being drawn between collaboration and cooperation. The concern of this paper is how the theoretical conception of collaboration is understood by practitioners of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and whether the theoretical distinctions between collaboration and cooperation fit the needs and realities of the EAP classroom. A survey of 66 EAP practitioners in diverse contexts shows that there is a continuum of views about what is considered 'collaboration', which often differs from definitions in the literature. The survey also highlighted that a range of collaborative assignments are used across institutions, both in terms of mode and the role they play in assessment. However, something which is greatly needed is a shared understanding of what collaboration is (and isn't) in EAP. This paper proposes a working definition of collaborative assignments in EAP, drawing from both the research literature and practitioner perspectives, which can help inform future assignment design and assessment approaches.

1.2 The Role of English for Academic Purposes

English for Academic Purposes courses play an important role in students' enculturation into higher level studies at universities and there is great variation across EAP programmes. EAP typically features early in a student's university career, be that in a pre-sessional course, meaning courses delivered before students formally enrol on their university degree programmes, or as part of a Foundation course, which students take in their first year of study. EAP may also feature later in their studies, delivered in-sessionally, i.e. running alongside or embedded into students' degree programmes. EAP programmes also differ depending on the type of institution they are in. These different settings encompass universities in native English-speaking (NES) environments or those operating in non-native English-speaking (NNES) environments, either in the case of branch campuses of an NES university based offshore (e.g. the University of Nottingham has branch campuses in Malaysia and China) or universities based in NNES contexts but which offer some courses in English, such as the University of Turku in Finland.

The focus of EAP is English language and skills development. A distinction can be drawn between English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), with the former targeting the development of the common language and skills students need to succeed in tertiary level studies, regardless of their field of study (de Chazal 2014). ESAP is more targeted towards working within a specific discipline, with a focus on the relevant genres and lexis particular to that subject e.g. teaching medical students how to complete lab reports or law students write legal cases, with the relevant vocabulary development and genre appropriate language structures.

In various contexts, however, the fundamental role of EAP programmes remains, to a certain extent, the same. As defined by Gillett (2017: para.1), EAP refers to 'the language and associated practices that people need in order to undertake study or work in English-medium higher education'. This echoes Hyland's (2014: 1) definition of EAP as teaching English "with the aim of assisting learners' study or research". As much as preparing students for *what* they are going to study, EAP helps support students in developing skills and literacies to deal with *how* they are going to study. An illustration of this is the use of a process-writing approach in EAP. In the process-writing approach, the means by which a text is produced is considered alongside the final text itself. A multi-draft approach is adopted, through which students become aware of the strategies that writers use to refine texts. As noted by Barnard & Campbell (2005), the process-writing approach is supported by Sociocultural Theory (SCT), and writing is not viewed as the act of an individual but as one that exists in a social sphere. Consequently, the writing benefits from the interplay between writer and readers in the recursive process of developing a text, moving through the stages of brainstorming, outlining, drafting, reviewing, editing and final proofreading. This approach raises students' awareness of the skills and competencies they need to develop an essay.

The aim of EAP is distinct from general English language courses in that it has a broader scope, going beyond language improvement and into developing study skills. These skills may range from research strategies to argumentation to, despite the potential contradiction, supporting students in their development of autonomous and self-directed learning. The need for study skills in EAP courses is emphasised by Alexander, Argent and Spencer (2008), who discuss the role of EAP courses in helping students enter an academic community, and de Chazal (2014), who describes the need for EAP to equip students with standard academic skills and awareness of broad academic conventions.

Consequently, EAP has to be aware of and respond to evolving skills and competencies required of university students. Apart from academic skills, EAP professionals need to consider the drive in the wider field of education towards encouraging a broad spectrum of '21st century skills' (Battelle for Kids 2019) which encompass four elements:

I. Life and career skills
II. Key subjects – 3R's & 21st Century Themes
III. Information, media and technology skills and
IV. Learning and innovation skills.

The final element of learning and innovation skills is better known by the term 'the 4Cs', which are the competencies students need to tackle complex challenges (Soffel 2016). These 'Cs' are creativity, critical thinking, communication and, most importantly for the purposes of this paper, collaboration. As a result of the growing emphasis on the 4Cs, collaboration has become a stated learning outcome of many higher education institutes and collaborative assignments are now a feature at undergraduate (Plastow, Spiliotopoulou & Prior 2010) and post-graduate (Gammie & Matson 2007) level across diverse degree programmes from social psychology (Johnston & Miles 2004) to law (Berry 2010). Use of collaboration in educational settings prepares learners for employment, as recognised by Storch (2019: 40) who highlights 'workplace writing' as one of the main factors for the increased interest in collaborative writing research in the last 25 years.

An EAP course is typically one of the first exposures a student has to academic discourse and culture, which means EAP has a role in socialising students into the academic discourse community. As argued by Duff (2010), academic discourse socialisation is a socially situated process to help students become members of a discourse community, learning its norms and tropes. This could also be a driver for the use of collaboration as, through working with others on an academic assignment, a student is not only gaining content knowledge and associated academic and soft skills but is also building their capacity to work in their academic community in the future.

1.3. The growing prominence of collaboration and its theoretical framework

The increased use of collaboration in education is evident by the growing number of articles written about the topic across an array of disciplinary journals. Talib and Cheung's (2017) review paper presented an overview of collaborative writing for a ten-year period (2006 to 2016) and provided data from 68 articles from a variety of educational contexts, although predominantly based on English language speaking undergraduates. In the same year, the *Journal of Second Language* Writing produced a special issue dedicated to computer-mediated communication (CMC) technologies and linked them to collaborative writing. Li and Storch (2017) discussed the affordances of CMC for supporting collaborative writing and enabling synchronous and asynchronous co-construction of texts and the evolving multimodality of writing, encompassing students moving through different technologies during the development of their writing. In light of these affordances, Elola and Oskoz (2017) discussed the emerging literacies students need to master in the realm of CMC, particularly in relation to incorporating collaborative tools, such as wikis or Google Docs into learning. In Godwin-Jones' (2018: 1) 10th anniversary update of his state-of-the-art article about online writing and technologies, collaboration (which was absent in the original) now features heavily due to 'a significant rise in interest in collaborative writing'.

As with process-writing, collaboration can be framed within Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky 1978). SCT is a psychological theory but has become more widely accepted in education circles, including second language acquisition. Key to SCT is the concept that knowledge is built through social interaction. Perhaps Vygotsky's major contribution to education is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). He defines the ZPD (as cited in Talib and Cheung 2017: 50) as, 'the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers.' The people with whom the learner has a social interaction are seen as 'more knowledgeable others' (MKO) and they could be an adult, an expert, a peer or, in more recent times, even a computer program. This recognition of differing expertise leads into the concept of the "collaborative scaffold" (Ohta 1995) where members of a group lend their respective strengths to a collective effort. By working together, they are able to support and assist each other, developing an expertise greater than that which they would have achieved individually, with different group members taking on the role of MKO depending on their areas of strength and expertise. The idea of groups being able to achieve more than individuals is supported through findings that in written assignments groups have better task fulfilment, with writing that is both more complex and accurate (Fernandez Dobao 2012; Mulligan and Garofalo 2011; Storch 2005; Talib and Cheung 2017) and overall, better quality texts (Shehadeh 2011; Wigglesworth and Storch 2009).

Assigning learners to work in groups does not necessarily mean that collaboration will automatically take place (Hathorn and Ingram 2002). In the research literature, considerable work has been done to define collaboration and draw a distinction between it and cooperation. Cooperation and collaboration share a key trait, in that both involve groups of people working together towards a common goal. Although these terms are sometimes used interchangeably, the means of reaching the common goal differs. Kozar (2010) neatly summarises the literature to identify the key differences between cooperation and collaboration, differences also recognised by Hathorn and Ingram (2002) and Paulus (2005), and summarised in Table 1.

Table 1. Features of cooperation and collaboration

Features of Cooperation	Features of Collaboration
• distinct division of labour • individuals working independently towards the common goal • individuals may have responsibility for a specialised task	• shared creation and shared responsibility for the whole task • difficulty in identifying or separating individual contributions • interdependence between group members

This distinction between cooperation and collaboration is also recognised by Storch (2019: 40) when discussing second language writing, as she defines collaborative writing as "an activity that requires the co-authors to be involved in all stages of the writing process, sharing the responsibility for and the ownership of the entire text produced". This is different from a cooperative writing activity, where individuals may have a particular responsibility for a section of text or particular sub-tasks, such as proof-reading or referencing, or students engaging in peer feedback.

While there is a theoretical framework supporting the use of collaboration, in practice it is not without its tensions and can be received differently by students. Where Levrai and Bolster (2018) and Scotland (2014) found students view collaborative work assignments favourably, one of the students in Strauss' (2001: 55) study suggested they would 'rather vomit up a live hedgehog' than work collaboratively, emblematic of negative attitudes towards collaboration echoed in other studies (Berry 2007; Li & Cambell 2006; Strauss & U 2007). Issues in collaborative assignments can be due to 'social loafing', referring to when an individual does not work as hard in a group as they would individually, or the potentially more problematic 'freeloading', which refers to when an individual who contributes little to the group effort receives the same rewards (Strijbos 2016). These phenomena contribute to one of the areas of tension around collaboration, namely that of assessment, due to perceived unequal contribution by group members. The assessment of collaborative assignments is recognised as a complex issue (Berry 2010; Strauss & U 2007; Strijbos 2016) to which solutions are still lacking. It has even been questioned whether collaboration should be assessed, with Nouri, Akerfeldt, Fors, and Selander (2017) considering collaboration a way of learning rather than a skill to be directly assessed itself. However, as Swan, Shen and Hiltz (2006) argue, collaboration must be assessed in a collaborative assignment if it is an intended learning outcome, a point echoed by Williams (2017), who stresses the role of assessing the process of collaboration alongside the product, even while acknowledging the assessment of collaboration is messy.

2. METHODS

2.1 Data Collection

To better understand the role of collaboration in EAP programmes, and practitioner understanding of collaboration, a questionnaire was distributed as a Google Form through the BALEAP and EATAW mailing lists in May 2018, available for three weeks. BALEAP was formerly known as the British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes and EATAW is the European Association for the Teaching of Academic Writing, with the membership often working in the field of EAP. The questionnaire comprised multiple choice, scale and short answer questions. The questions aimed to build a profile of EAP provision, gathering practitioners' perceptions of collaboration, identifying what kind of collaborative assignments students are required to do and also investigating the assessment of collaboration. Open question comments were categorised and codified to enable quantitative interpretation.

2.2 Participants & Contexts

There was a total of 66 responses, with participants coming from 63 different institutions in 27 countries. Given the nature of the mailing lists, the majority of responses (62%) came from Europe. Although a slight majority of the institutions (53%) were in NNES language environments, the language of instruction in 77% of the institutions was English. The EAP programmes in question differed considerably in size, with a 12.2% having a cohort of under 100 students and 27.3% having an annual cohort of over 1,000 students. There was also considerable variation in class size, ranging from less than 12 to over 30, with the largest proportion of institutions (36.4%) having a class size of 16-20. The institutions offered a range of EAP programmes with 71% offering in-sessional support, 56% offering a foundation year and 52% running pre-sessional programmes. Provision also included short courses, workshops and information sessions, as well as EAP courses integrated into content studies.

3. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

3.1 – Practitioner understanding of collaboration

The first questions were designed to see how practitioners perceive collaboration in the EAP context. At this stage, no definition of collaboration (or cooperation) was provided so as to elicit the respondents' own perceptions. Participants were asked to discuss what the term 'student collaboration' meant in their context. While two out of the 66 respondents conflated collaboration with academic dishonesty or plagiarism, most respondents had a more positive perspective. The majority of comments (57%) saw student collaboration as a classroom or virtual classroom-based phenomenon, with students discussing things together or engaging in any kind of team or group activity in class. Over a third of comments (37%) extended this into more formal project work and group assignments, with students working together to produce a piece of work, be that written or oral (e.g. a group presentation). There was also notable reference (17% of comments) identifying student collaboration as activities involving peer feedback or peer tutoring.

Participants were then asked if they would classify various activities as collaborative, with the results shown below (Figure 1).

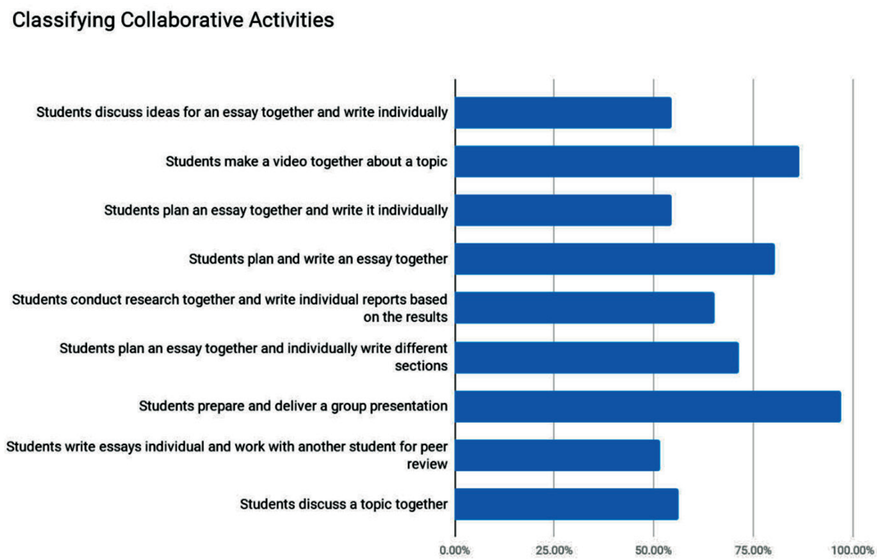

Figure 1. Classifying collaborative activities.

An open question provided scope for participants to add other suggestions for activities they consider collaborative and these included students researching a topic together and presenting the findings, organising a field trip or conference or simply discussing ideas in class.

From the results, it is clear that practitioner perspectives of collaboration are at odds with the theoretical one. From the theoretical perspective, students planning and writing an essay together or preparing and delivering a presentation together would constitute collaboration, having the characteristics of shared responsibility, interdependence and shared ownership. Students planning an essay together and writing individual sections is characteristic of cooperation, in terms of having clearly defined individual responsibilities within a group task. The same could be true of the students making a video together, if they allocated particular roles to individuals. The other tasks are more loosely defined group tasks, where the students may be working together but they are not producing a joint artefact and have an individual responsibility for their own work.

The responses of this survey suggest some practitioners have a more fluid conception of collaboration than the literature, potentially covering any situation where students are in contact with each other, be that in informal class discussions or working closely on producing an artefact together, e.g.

an essay, presentation, or video. The broad nature of the understanding of the term is problematic. As Wilson, Goodman and Cronin (2007: 1031) recognise when discussing the definition of group learning, "agreement on the definition of a construct is a prerequisite to effectively testing ideas about it". Similarly, practitioners and researchers need a shared understanding of what is meant by collaboration. If different teachers conceptualise and interpret collaboration in different ways, it is difficult to identify and act upon best practice. So too might it result in students having very different experiences and expectations of what "collaboration" involves, which could contribute to some of the tensions surrounding it.

One feature of EAP that may problematise the theoretical concept of collaborative assignments, particularly written assignments, is the previously mentioned process approach to writing which can be taken in EAP. Writing as an extended (possibly semester-long) process contrasts with the shorter writing tasks which tend to feature in the research of collaborative writing. In the literature, one of the areas of interest in collaborative writing is the occurrence of language related episodes (LREs), which provide opportunity for language learning (Storch 2019). An LRE is an instance where students need to jointly decide on a language choice (e.g. lexical item, grammatical structure), which is why students are expected to work closely together, coming to agreement on every aspect of the text. It may be unrealistic, however, on an extended EAP academic assignment, for students to fulfil the process-writing task in a purely collaborative way, discussing and negotiating every aspect of an essay, potentially down to every individual word choice. At times on an EAP writing assignment students may be working more cooperatively or, indeed, individually e.g. when researching and reading about a topic. Nonetheless, certain key features of collaboration from the researcher perspective should be common in the practitioner understanding of the term, namely, equal contribution, shared responsibility, shared ownership, interdependence and no clear means of identifying individual contributions in the final product. Levrai and Bolster (2018; 2017) suggest that a larger collaborative assignment, such as a process essay, could be supported by individual assignments (e.g. annotated bibliographies of sources or project reflections), allowing for differentiation between group members. Consequently, while there is shared ownership of the main artefact (the essay) there is also scope for assessment of the individual, which may help mitigate the issues of social loafing and freeloading.

3.2 - The role of collaborative assignments in EAP

In the next stage of the survey, a definition of collaborative assignments was provided. This definition limited collaborative assignments to ones where students work in groups to produce a joint piece of work for which they share joint responsibility. Respondents were then asked how many collaborative assignments or projects students needed to complete on a course in their institution. Given the complexity of EAP provision in terms of EAP centres running different programmes, there is no simple picture of how prevalent collaborative assignments are overall. Some institutions employ collaborative assignments in some programmes but not others, or the usage differs from year-to-year or course-to-course. However, only 16.7% of respondents said there were no collaborative assignments on their EAP programmes. Most commonly there were one (21.2%) or two (15.2%) collaborative assignments, with some programmes (7.6%) having more than five. This wide use of collaborative assignments highlights the important role they have in EAP programmes and why a clear understanding of their features is needed. Having an agreed upon practitioner perception of collaborative work is vital, not only for teachers who facilitate collaborative assignments, but also for students who carry them out with their peers. As a result of having a consensus about what collaboration entails, the main stakeholders would have clearer expectations of the collaborative process.

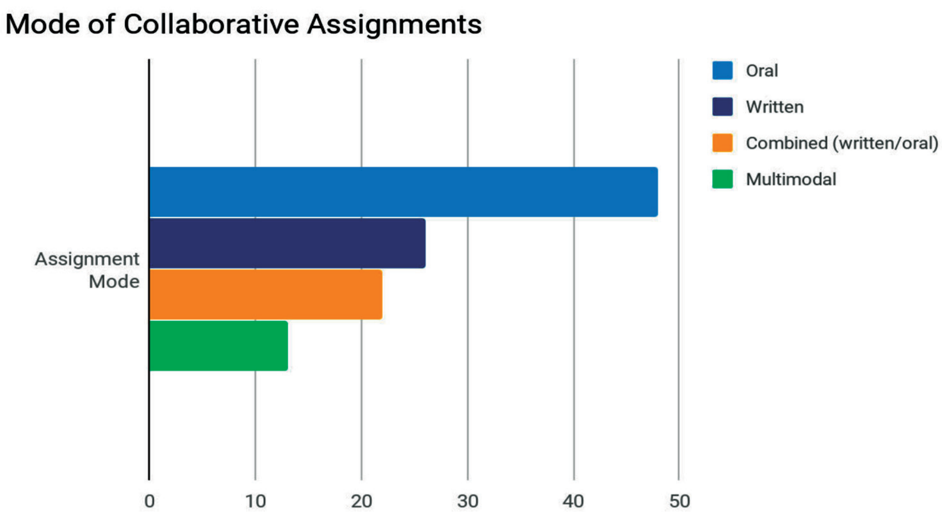

Figure 2. The mode of collaborative assignments

According to the survey, the types of collaborative assignments/ projects differed in mode, with collaborative oral assignments (e.g. group presentations) being most common (see Figure 2). The prevalence of collaborative oral assignments could be in part due to the superficial ease of assessing oral tasks in the group format, as there is a clear opportunity to assess the contribution and speaking competence of each participant. Grading rubrics for group presentations we have used in the past in different institutions have awarded a group grade broadly based on the presentation content, task achievement and visual aids; and an individual grade, determined by the presentation skills and delivery of each speaker. While this may address some of the tensions alluded to earlier regarding grading collaborative assessments, there is a concern that such an approach to grading collaborative oral presentations is taking a more cooperative view of the task, in terms of each speaker having a clear responsibility for their part of the presentation. This focus on the product neglects the process of developing the presentation, which could potentially be the work of one student, with the others simply voicing the parts they have been given. Such an issue highlights the need for a clear conception of collaborative assignments, whatever the mode. This clarity would aid in developing principled assessment which, in a collaborative assignment, requires consideration of the process.

The majority of collaborative assignments in the survey had both a summative and formative component (61.8%) while in 20% of situations, assessment was purely formative and in 18.2% of cases it was purely summative. The focus of assessment also varied considerably, with greater or lesser focus on the process or the final product. As can be seen in Figure 3 (where 1 indicates 100% assessment is based on the process and 10 indicates 100% assessment is based on the product), there is a tendency for assessment to focus more on product than process, but in the majority of collaborative assignments some weight is given the assessment of the process. Within institutions, however, the weighting of process/product can differ depending on the programme (pre-sessional or in-sessional), the institutional context (home or branch campus), the year of study, and in some cases, the individual teacher.

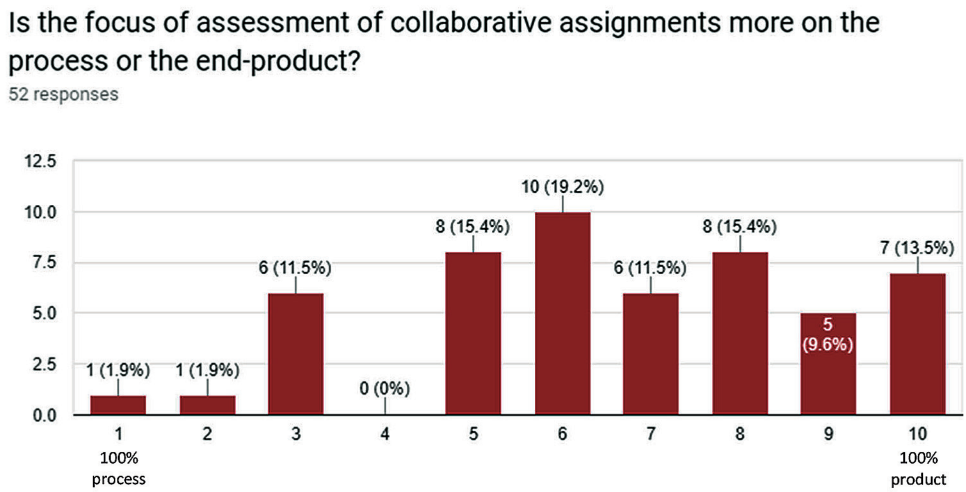

Figure 3. – Assessing process or product

The variation in weighting could be explained by the wide interpretation of collaboration amongst practitioners but, in light of the literature, a more principled approach should be encouraged. While there is no definitive guide to the assessment of collaborative work, the concept that students share responsibility and ownership of the final product suggests that the grade awarded to that product should be shared equally. With that being so, the process by which the product was developed should also be assessed. As argued in Levrai and Bolster (2018), technology now gives us greater insight than previously into the collaborative process and mechanisms can be put in place to monitor the contribution of individuals to the collaborative task, such as monitoring the changes made by different students in a shared document.

The final survey question considered the weighting of collaborative assignments to students' final grades. Responses varied considerably between teachers, programmes, courses and contexts. Figure 4 shows the percentage of final grades awarded via collaborative assignments (with 1 meaning 0% is awarded via collaborative work and 10 meaning 100% is awarded via collaborative work).

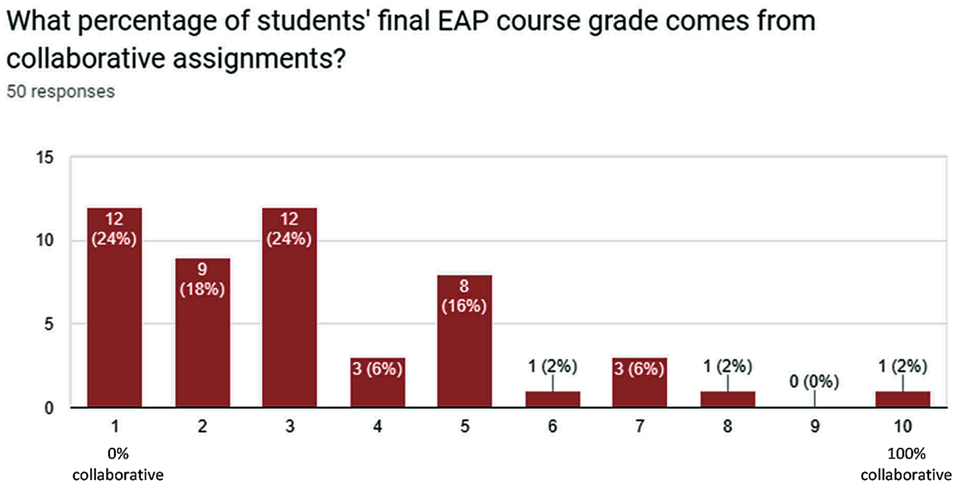

Figure 4. The contribution of collaborative assignments to final grades

Although collaborative assignments clearly carry less weight than individual assignments, they are a contributing factor to final course grades in three-quarters of cases surveyed and could help determine if a student passes or fails a course or is awarded a pass with merit or distinction. Given the impact collaboration could have on students' academic success it essential it is implemented, scaffolded and assessed appropriately.

4. CONCLUSION

There has been an increase in research into collaboration (especially in language classrooms) since the turn of the 21st century (Storch 2019; Godwin-Jones 2018 and Talib & Cheung 2017). This research has been conducted across a range of language learning environments, including in higher education. Within higher education, EAP plays an important role in preparing learners for their studies at university and must ensure the skills taught are ones they need. Collaboration is a feature of university degree programmes and can also be one of the stated learning outcomes of a course or, indeed, degree programme itself. As such, collaboration is something EAP programmes need to prepare students for. The aim of this paper was to determine the role of collaborative assignments in EAP and shed some light on whether researchers and EAP practitioners have a shared understanding of the nature of collaboration and its defining features. The responses from practitioners in over 60 institutions around the world suggest that collaborative assignments are a widespread feature of EAP programmes and could have an impact on students' final grades, as well as wider learning outcomes. However, there is little consistency as to the relative weight of collaborative assignments towards students' final grades, or the extent to which that grade is determined by the process or product of collaboration.

There is also a considerable gap between the researcher and practitioner perceptions of the concept of collaboration. Researchers tend to have a tightly focussed interpretation of collaboration while practitioners take a much wider view. This gap needs to be narrowed to allow for constructive research into, and discussion of, collaborative assignments. The theoretical understanding of collaboration, when it comes to assignments in EAP, needs to be broadened from the research perspective, acknowledging that there will likely be some instances of cooperation in the completion of tasks. It may also be necessary to revise the idea of 'equal contribution' to 'equitable contribution'. Students would not necessarily have to be doing the same work but could make equitable contributions so that no one student is doing more, or less, than is fair. This would remain in line with collaboration being a learning outcome for such an assignment, as identifying and exploiting the strengths of team members is an important aspect of collaboration and is reflective of life within and beyond university.

While the theoretical perception could be widened, the practitioner perception of collaboration could be much more focussed. Shared ownership and responsibility of collaborative assignments and the indivisibility of the final artefact are features of collaboration that EAP practitioners should recognise and adopt. The indivisibility is key, distinguishing collaboration from cooperation. Rather than students operating independently on their own 'part', which could result in a what might be described as a Frankenstein's Monster assignment of disjointed elements, a collaborative assignment requires them to be engaged throughout the process. In line with SCT, learning is a social process and we learn from working with others, sometimes operating as the MKO and at other times learning from another's expertise. As such, the following definition for a collaborative assignment in EAP is proposed.

> A collaborative assignment is one where learners work together, making equitable contributions towards the development of an indivisible artefact for which they share responsibility and ownership. During the development of the artefact, learners may work synchronously or asynchronously, face-to-face or online, but there is interdependence between group members, drawing on all their strengths.

It is hoped that this definition can narrow the gap between theory and practice when it comes to perspectives of collaboration in the field of EAP. Given that collaborative assignments are, and should be, a feature of EAP programmes, this definition could facilitate the further research that needs to be done to determine how collaborative assignments can best be designed, implemented, supported, and assessed in a principled manner.

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Tunteet pinnassa Luckan-kahvilan keskusteluryhmässä

Carola Karlsson-Fält

1 JOHDANTO

Tunteet ovat kielenoppimisessa olleet pitkään suhteellisen vähäisen kiinnostuksen ja tutkimuksen kohteena, vaikka meillä on hyvä syy olettaa, että ne vaikuttavat melkein kaikkeen, mitä teemme (Izard 2010, 363; MacIntyre & Vincze 2017, 61–63). Tutkimus on pääasiassa keskittynyt kielen kognitiivisiin prosesseihin kuten ajatteluun, osaamiseen, informaation prosessointiin, ongelmanratkaisuun, päättelyyn, päätöksentekoon jne. Jokainen kieltä opiskellut tai kieltä opettanut on kuitenkin tiedostanut sen tosiseikan, että kielenoppiminen on yhtä lailla sekä emotionaalinen että kognitiivinen prosessi. (Aragão 2011, 303; Dewaele 2015, 13; Swain 2013, 196.)

Syitä kognition ja emootion erottamiseen toisistaan ja niiden asettamista vastakkain on lähtökohtaisesti etsitty rationalismin synnystä. Selittävinä tekijöinä voidaan pitää pyrkimystä tunteiden mittaamiseen ja määrittelemiseen sekä 1960 ja 1970 -lukujen suuntauksia psykologiassa ja lingvistiikassa: behaviorismia ja strukturalismia. Näiden suuntauksien ollessa vallitsevia tutkijat tunnistivat tunteet opiskelijoissa ja havaitsivat niiden vaikutuksen kielenoppimiseen, kun taas kielenoppimisen vaikutusta tunteisiin he eivät ottaneet huomioon. (Swain 2013, 198.)

Toisin kuin edellä mainitut suuntaukset, humanistinen lähestymistapa korosti oppijan sisäisen maailman tärkeyttä ja asetti yksilön ajatukset ja tunteet etusijalle kaikessa inhimillisessä kehityksessä. Humanistisessa lähestymistavassa on tärkeää hyvän ilmapiirin ja suotuisan oppimisympäristön luominen. Humanistinen psykologia oli yhtenäisimmillään 1960-luvulla. (Gage & Berliner 1988,485–486; ks. myös Karlsson-Fält 2010, 195 ja Williams & Burden 2007, 30; Pishghadam, Zabetipour & Aminzadeh 2016, 508.)

Krashenin (1985) affektiivisen suotimen (*affective filter*) myötä kielenoppimisessa ja -tutkimuksessa alettiin ottaa tunteet huomioon. Hänen teoriassaan kielelle altistumisesta (*the input hypothesis*) positiiviset tunteet läpäisivät helposti affektiivisen suotimen ja johtivat parempaan oppimiseen kuin negatiiviset tunteet, jotka läpäisivät suotimen huonommin. Nykyään tiedetään kuitenkin, että negatiivisillakin tunteilla voi olla positiivisia vaikutuksia: ne voivat jopa edistää oppimista, ei ehkäistä. (Swain 2013, 198.)

Tunteiden ja kognition erottamaton suhde tulee esiin Vygotskin (1982) edustamassa suuntauksessa, sosiaalisessa interaktionismissa, jossa mahdollistuu yksilöjenvälinen vastavuoroisuus, yksilön oppimisen ja kehityksen perusta. Vygotski näkee kielen alkuperäisen funktion kommunikatiivisena, ennen kaikkea sosiaalisen kanssakäymisen, ilmaisemisen ja ymmärtämisen välineenä. Kielen avulla toteutetaan oppimista, kehitetään ajattelua ja välitetään kulttuuria. Hänen mukaansa oppiminen tapahtuu kahdessa vaiheessa – ensin sosiaalisella, sitten psykologisella tasolla. (Vygotski 1982,18-21; Gage & Berliner 1988, 124–126; ks. myös Imai 2010, 282; Karlsson-Fält 2010, 102 ja Swain 2013, 203 –204.)

Tunteiden voimakkaaseen läsnäoloon kielenopiskelussa havahduin itse uudella tavalla luettuani ruotsinkurssillani olleilta opiskelijoilta raportteja heidän vierailustaan Luckanin kielikylpykahvilaan. Opiskelijoiden tehtävänä oli suorittaa yhden opintopisteen laajuinen keskusteluharjoittelujakso informaalissa oppimisympäristössä ja kirjoittaa kokemuksistaan raportti. Harjoittelujakso sisältyy viiden pisteen ruotsinkurssiin, joka on tutkintoon kuuluva ja näin ollen pakollinen. Tarkastellessani näitä opiskelijoiden kirjoittamia raportteja kokemuksistaan luokkahuoneen ulkopuolella tapahtuvasta oppimisesta silmiinpistävimmäksi piirteeksi nousi tunneilmaisujen suuri joukko. (Karlsson-Fält 2019.) Katsoinkin aiheelliseksi jatkaa tunneilmaisujen tutkimusta.

Tässä artikkelissa selvitän luvussa 2 miten tunteita on kirjallisuudessa määritelty ja luokiteltu ja luvussa 3 luon katsauksen aikaisempiin tutkimuksiin, joissa on tarkasteltu kielenoppimiseen liittyviä tunteita. Luvussa 4 esittelen lyhyesti Turun yliopiston Kieli- ja viestintäopintojen keskuksessa toteutettavan ruotsin kielen kurssin ja Luckan-kielikylpykahvilan. Luvussa 5 käyn läpi aineistoa ja sen analyysiä ja luvussa 6 esittelen tutkimuksen tulokset. Luvussa 7 teen yhteenvedon tutkimuksesta.

2 TUNTEIDEN MÄÄRITTELYÄ JA LUOKITTELUA

Vaikka tunteiden tärkeästä roolista oppimisessa – ja erityisesti kielenoppimisessa – ollaan tiedemaailmassa nykyään yksimielisiä, yksimielistä tieteellistä määritelmää tunteiden olemuksesta on ollut vaikeaa saada aikaan (Piniel & Albert 2018, 128; Pishghadam et al. 2016, 508; Ross & Rivers 2018,104). Eri määritelmien taustalta löytyy sekä maalaisjärjen mukaista ymmärrystä että teoreettisempaa ajattelua (Imai 2010, 281). Kun maineikas tunnetutkija Izard (2010) haastatteli 34 tutkijaa pyytäen heitä määrittelemään termin ´tunne´, hän ei pystynyt vastausten perusteella muodostamaan kattavaa määritelmää. Kaikissa haastateltavien määritelmissä todettiin tunteiden kuitenkin koostuvan monista osatekijöistä, ja monissa määritelmissä tulivat esiin neurobiologiset prosessit, tunnekokemus ja kokemuksellis-kognitiiviset prosessit. (Izard 2010.)

Reeve (2005) on määritellyt tunteet lyhytaikaisiksi ilmiöiksi, joilla on neljä ulottuvuutta: yksilön omakohtainen tunnekokemus (*Feelings*), fysiologisen reaktion aktivoituminen (*Bodily Arousal*), tarkoituksellisuus (*Sense of Purpose*) sekä ilmaisu (Social-*Expressive*), joka viittaa siihen, miten tunteesta kontekstissa kommunikoidaan. Kaikki neljä ulottuvuutta korostavat tunnekokemuksen eri piirteitä. Tunteen syntymiseksi näiden kaikkien elementtien on toimittava yhdessä. (Reeve 2005, 293–294.)

Kun tunteet aiemmin on nähty yksilön yksityisinä, sisäisinä kokemuksina, nykytutkimuksessa keskitytään valottamaan ihmistenvälisiä tunteita ja tunteiden sosiaalisia aspekteja. Tunteet eivät ainoastaan todenna, suodata tai estä yksilön sisäistä kognitiivista toimintaa, vaan pikemminkin ne välittävät kehitystä – varsinkin kun ne ovat nivoutuneet ihmistenväliseen vuorovaikutukseen. (Imai 2010.) Käsillä olevaan tutkimukseen soveltuu Imain (2010, 279) määritelmä, että tunteet eivät ole ainoastaan ulkoisen ärsykkeen aiheuttamia yksilön sisäisiä kokemuksia, vaan sosiaalisesti rakentuneita kommunikaatiotoimintoja, jotka voivat välittää (*mediate*) yksilön ajattelua, käyttäytymistä ja tavoitteita. (Vrt. Piniel & Albert 2018, 129.)

Ainoastaan tunteiden määrittely ei aiheuta ongelmia, vaan myös niiden luokittelu. Tunteiden nimeäminen vaihtelee eri kulttuureissa ja eri kielissä merkittävästi, ja niiden tulkinta voi vaihdella henkilön mukaan. Yksi ratkaisu on keskittyä toisistaan erottuviin tunteisiin ja muodostaa lista perustunteista biologiset näkökulmat lähtökohtana, kuten esimerkiksi Izard (2010) tekee. Hänen tunnelistaansa kuuluvat 1) mielenkiinto 2) nautinto/ ilo/ tyytyväisyys 3) surullisuus 4) kiukku/ viha 5) inho/ vastenmielisyys ja 6) pelko. Ongelmana tällaisessa listassa on se, että varhaislapsuuden jälkeen ihmiset eivät enää oikeastaan koe näitä ensisijaisia tunteita puhtaimmillaan, vaan kognitio alkaa näytellä niissä ratkaisevaa osaa. Tunne ja kognitio liittyvät kiinteästi yhteen, kuten edellä on todettu, ja meidän tulisikin puhua tunneskeemasta, jossa on kyse tunteen ja kognition dynaamisesta interaktiosta. (Piniel & Albert 2018, 129.)

3 TUNTEET OPPIMISESSA JA OPETTAMISESSA

Tunteet ovat – kuten Dewaele (2015) asian ilmaisee – kielenoppimisprosessin sydän. Ilman tunteita vallitsisi ikävystyneisyys, ja oppimista tapahtuisi vain hyvin vähän. (Dewaele 2015, 13) Oppimisen on todettu olevan suuri tunteiden lähde (Pekrun, Goetz, Titz & Perry 2002, 92).

Suurin osa tähänastisista kielenoppimiseen liittyvistä tutkimuksista, jotka käsittelevät tunnekokemuksia, keskittyvät niiden tunteiden tutkimiseen, jotka on koettu luokkahuoneympäristössä (Ross & Rivers 2018, 104). Tutkittaessa luokkahuonekontekstissa englantia toisena kielenä opiskelevia oppilaita on havaittu, että he kokevat erilaisia tunteita sen mukaan, mikä kielellinen osa-alue on kyseessä: kiukkua koetaan enimmäkseen kuuntelun yhteydessä, iloa ja ylpeyttä puhumisen yhteydessä, häpeää sekä kuuntelun että puhumisen yhteydessä, ja toivoa, ikävystymistä ja toivottomuutta sekä kirjoittamisen että kuuntelun yhteydessä. Ahdistusta koetaan kielen kaikilla osa-alueilla. (Pishghadam et al. 2016, 508; vrt. Piniel & Albert 2018.)

Yleisimmin koetut tunteet kielenoppimisessa ovat useiden tutkimusten mukaan ahdistus ja ilo (Piniel & Albert 2018,127; Ross & Rivers 2018,103). Dewaele ja MacIntyre (2014) ovat todenneet, että alkaessaan opiskella vierasta kieltä opiskelija kokee jotakuinkin yhtä lailla sekä iloa että ahdistusta, mutta edetessään opinnoissa ilon määrä kasvaa ja ahdistus vähenee. Naiset kokevat sekä iloa että ahdistusta enemmän kuin miehet. (Dewaele & MacIntyre 2014, 237; Dewaele 2015, 14.)

Tutkittaessa vieraan kielen oppimista on huomattu, että sekä negatiivisilla että positiivisilla tunteilla on vaikutusta kielellisiin saavutuksiin ja motivaatioon. Negatiiviset tunteet eivät aina ole pahasta, jos ne auttavat opiskelijaa voittamaan esteen, mutta voivat olla lamaannuttavia. Positiiviset tunteet lisäävät tarkkaavaisuutta ja resursseja tulevaisuuden varalle, rakentavat ihmissuhteita sekä antavat henkilökohtaista vahvuutta ja sietokykyä kohdata vaikeuksia vastaisuudessa. (Ks. Dewaele 2015,14; vrt. Pishghadam et al. 2016, 511.)

Tunteet kuten pelko ja surullisuus voivat lisätä oppimista ja nekin voi nähdä positiivisina ja motivaatiota lisäävinä tekijöinä vieraan kielen oppimisprosessissa (Pishghadam et al. 2016, 511). Epämiellyttävät tunteet kuten ikävystyneisyys ja toivottomuus liitetään ulkoiseen ohjaukseen ja sääntelyyn, minkä vuoksi opettajien tulisikin sopeuttaa lähestymistapansa ja opetusmenetelmänsä niin, että ikävystyminen estyy ja positiiviset tunteet lisääntyvät. (Pekrun et al. 2002, 101; ks. myös Pishghadam et al. 2016, 512 ja Dewaele 2015,14.)

Tunteet kuten ujous, vaivautuneisuus, ylpeys, itsetunto tai estyneisyys voidaan yhdistää siihen käsitykseen, joka ihmisellä on itsestään ja ympäristöstä. Kun opiskelija pelkää tulevansa vaivautuneeksi joutuessaan puhumaan luokkahuoneessa, taustalla voi olla uskomus, että luokkatoveri arvostelee tai nauraa hänen esitykselleen. Tällöin puhujalla on käsitys, että kuulija on häntä osaavampi. Opiskelijan omien tunteiden tunnistaminen syntyy kokemuksesta ja hänen luokkahuoneeseen liittämistä tietyistä uskomuksista. (Aragão 2011, 304.)

Ross ja Rivers (2018) totesivat kielenoppimiseen liittyviä tunteita tutkiessaan formaalin luokkahuonekontekstin ongelmalliseksi: opittavaa kieltä tarvitaan ja käytetään yleensä luokkahuoneen ulkopuolella, ja oppijat käyttävät kieltä mitä erilaisimmissa sosiaalisissa konteksteissa. Tutkijat kartoittivat englantia toisena kielenä opiskelleiden tunteita luokkahuoneen ulkopuolisessa englannin kielen käytössä keskittyen sellaisiin tunteisiin kuin toivo, ilo ja turhautuminen ja totesivat tunteiden olevan erityisen intensiivisiä verrattuna luokkahuoneessa koettuihin tunteisiin. (Ross & Rivers 2018, 119.)

Se seikka, että suurin osa tähänastisista kielenoppimiseen liittyvistä tutkimuksista keskittyy luokkahuoneympäristössä koettujen tunteiden tutkimiseen, tekee luokan ulkopuolella, Luckanissa, koettujen tunteiden tutkimisen mielenkiintoiseksi. Tutkimuksen opiskelijat ovat aikuisoppijoita, joilla on takanaan ohjattua ja säänneltyä luokkahuoneopetusta, ja tähän saakka he ovat joutuneet ruotsin kielen kanssa tekemisiin tuskin lainkaan luokkahuoneen ulkopuolella.

4 YLIOPISTON RUOTSIN KIELEN KURSSI JA LUCKAN-KIELIKAHVILA

Yliopistotutkintoon kuuluva ruotsin kielen kurssi on integroitu viiden opintopisteen laajuinen kurssi, jolla harjoitellaan sekä puhuttua että kirjoitettua kieltä. Se asettuu eurooppalaisen viitekehyksen taitotasolle B1–B2. Taitotasolla B1 puheen tulisi yleisesti ottaen olla *melko sujuvaa*, taitotasolla B2 *sujuvaa*. Taitotasolla B1 opiskelijan tulee esimerkiksi valmistautumatta pystyä osallistumaan keskusteluun aiheista, jotka liittyvät arkielämään ja ajankohtaisiin asioihin, ja taitotasolla B2 hänen tulee osata viestiä kohdekieltä puhuvan kanssa niin sujuvasti ja vaivattomasti ettei kumpikaan osapuoli koe vuorovaikutusta hankalaksi. (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Companion Volume with New Descriptors 2018, 223.) Ruotsinkursseilla keskitytään opiskelijoiden alakohtaiseen kieleen, joskin yleiskielen ja rakenteiden opetusta on täytynyt lisätä heikentyneiden lähtötasotaitojen takia. (Ks. Karlsson-Fält 2019.)

Ruotsin kielen kurssien kontaktiopetuksen jäädessä hyvin vähäiseksi – 50 tuntia – on tullut tarpeen etsiä luokkahuoneen ulkopuolisia mahdollisuuksia harjoitella erityisesti puheen tuottamista. Turussa toimiva informaatiokeskus Luckan (http://abo.luckan.fi/) on tarjonnut siihen erinomaisen mahdollisuuden. Luckan jakaa tietoa ja aineistoa Turun ruotsinkielisestä toiminnasta ja palveluista sekä antaa tilaisuuden puhua ruotsia muiden kielestä kiinnostuneiden kanssa. ”Pakkopulla” språkbadskaffe -keskusteluryhmä kokoontuu kerran viikossa ja osallistujille tarjotaan kahvia. Ryhmä mainostaa itseään vapaamuotoisella yhdessäololla ilman läksyjä, luentoja, kurssimaksua tai läsnäolopakkoa.

Turun yliopiston Kieli- ja viestintäopintojen keskuksessa kieliopintojaan koulun jälkeen jatkaville humanistisen ja yhteiskuntatieteellisen tiedekunnan opiskelijoille, joita tällä hetkellä opetan, Luckanin keskusteluryhmä on tarjonnut tilaisuuden harjoitella kieltä luokkahuoneen ulkopuolella ilman opettajaa ja arviointia. Luckanissa opiskelijat ovat saaneet keskustella satunnaisten vierailijoiden kanssa, eikä opiskelijoiden Luckan-harjoittelu ole vaatinut opettajalta erityisjärjestelyjä tai osallistumista. Ruotsinkurssilla olleiden opiskelijoiden tehtäväksi olen antanut tutkimusta varten kirjoittaa raportin kokemuksistaan kielikylpykahvilassa.

5 TUTKIMUKSEN AINEISTO JA SEN ANALYYSI

Kuten artikkelin johdannossa olen maininnut, huomasin aiemmin samasta aineistosta tekemässäni tutkimuksessa erityisesti tunnetta kuvaavien ilmaisujen tulevan runsaina esiin. Tutkimukseni koski formaalia ja informaalia oppimista (Karlsson-Fält 2019: ”Kielikylpykahvila ruotsinopiskelijoiden informaalina oppimisympäristönä”). Tässä tutkimuksessa halusin paneutua tunneilmaisuihin tarkemmin. Aineiston pohjalta tutkimuskysymykseksi muotoutui: *Miten tunteet ovat yhteydessä opiskelijoiden oppimiseen ja opiskeluun informaalissa oppimisympäristössä?* Tämän tutkimuksen aineisto ja analyysi ovat yhtenevät edellisessä tutkimuksessa esitetyn kanssa sillä erotuksella, etten ole tähän tutkimukseen ottanut mukaan lainauksia suomenkielisistä raporteista enkä vaihtoehtoisista oppimistilaisuuksista tehdyistä raporteista. Ensimmäiset tähän tutkimukseen keräämäni raportit ovat kevät- ja syyslukukaudelta 2016, jolloin opiskelijat saivat myös kirjoittaa suomeksi, mikäli ruotsi tuotti suuria vaikeuksia. Keväällä 2018 taas suostuin opiskelijoiden pyyntöön vaihtoehtoisista mahdollisuuksista oppia luokkahuoneen ulkopuolella, jolloin Luckan-raportteja kertyi niukasti ja museokäynti- ja elokuvaraportteja tuli runsaammin. Käsillä olevaan tutkimukseen olen ottanut mukaan myös syksyn 2018 ja kevään 2019 raportit.

Aineiston keruu tapahtui seuraavasti: Annoin opiskelijoille tehtäväksi käydä ainakin kerran Luckanin keskustelupiirissä kurssin aikana. Kokemuksistaan opiskelijoiden tuli kirjoittaa 150–200 sanan lyhyt raportti ruotsiksi. Raportti sai olla vapaasti kirjoitettu, mutta siinä tuli keskittyä kertomaan ruotsinkielisestä keskustelusta oppimiskokemuksena. Kerroin opiskelijoille, että käyttäisin raportteja tutkimustarkoitukseen, eikä nimiä tai muita tunnisteita käytettäisi. Raporttien käytön tutkimustarkoitukseen voisi halutessaan myös kieltää. Kerroin myös, että raportteja ei palautettaisi korjattuina opiskelijoille eikä arvosteltaisi kielellisesti. Yksikään opiskelijoista ei halunnut kieltää raporttinsa antamista tutkimustarkoituksiin ja tutkimusaspekti herätti opiskelijoissa kiinnostusta. Kuten edellä jo mainitsin, ensimmäiset tähän tutkimukseen keräämäni raportit ovat kevät- ja syyslukukaudelta 2016. Raportit ovat ainoastaan humanistiopiskelijoilta, jotka tuolloin olivat opetuksessani. Raportteja on yhteensä 68 kappaletta. Jatkoin raporttien keräämistä keväällä 2017, jolloin sain opetuksessani olevilta humanisteilta 16 raporttia ja yhteiskuntatieteilijöiltä 29 raporttia. Syksyltä 2017 humanistiraportteja kertyi 70 kappaletta. Keväällä 2018 Luckan-raportteja kertyi humanisteilta vain 3 ja yhteiskuntatieteilijöiltä 4 kappaletta. Yhteensä Luckan-raportteja kertyi kevään 2016 ja kevään 2018 välisenä aikana siis 190 kappaletta. (Ks. Karlsson-Fält 2019.) Syksyn 2018 ja kevään 2019 raportteja, joita sain humanisteilta ja yhteiskuntatieteilijöiltä, on yhteensä 53. Kaikkiaan raportteja oli käytettävissäni tätä tutkimusta varten siis 243 kappaletta.

Analyysissä raporttien ilmaisut pelkistettiin (ks. Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2018, 101), minkä jälkeen ne ryhmiteltiin yhtäläisten ilmaisujen joukoiksi. Analyysin yksikkönä on ajatuskokonaisuus. Jatkoin materiaalin lukemista ja analyysiä loppuun asti, vaikka samantyyliset ilmaisut alkoivat toistua, kun materiaalin lukeminen oli puolessavälissä. (Ks. Eskola & Suoranta 2003, 63.) Analyysin jälkeen oli erotettavissa 4 erilaisten ilmaisujen luokkaa. Havainnollistan saamiani luokkia lukuisin raporteista poimituin esimerkein. Lainaukset ovat kaikki eri raporteista poimittuja ja siinä muodossa kuin opiskelijat ovat ne kirjoittaneet. Kielivirheitä en ole korjannut. (Vrt. Karlsson-Fält 2019.)

6 TUTKIMUKSEN TULOKSET

6.1 Jännitys, ahdistus, ilo ja yllätyksellisyys resursseina

Tässä aineistossa moni opiskelija kertoi kokevansa aluksi jännitystä ja ahdistusta, mutta kun ensiahdistus oli voitettu, alkoi ilo oman taidon kantamisesta (vrt. Boudreau, MacIntyre & Dewaele 2018, 149). Ruotsia ei monikaan ollut joutunut tositilanteessa käyttämään, ja onnistunut kommunikointi vieraiden kanssa johti tyytyväisyyteen. Artikkelissani, joka käsitteli opiskelijoiden kokemuksia informaalista oppimisympäristöstä (Karlsson-Fält 2019), mainitsin ensinnäkin jännittämisen olleen hyvin tavallinen tunne opiskelijoiden osallistuessa Luckanin keskusteluryhmään, samoin ahdistuksen ja ilon. Kuten edellä on käynyt ilmi, ahdistus ja ilo ovat yleisimmin koetut tunteet aiempien tunnetutkimusten mukaan (Piniel & Albert 2018,127; Ross & Rivers 2018,103) ja positiiviset tunteet liitetään erityisesti luokkahuoneen ulkopuoleiseen oppimiseen (Piniel & Albert 2018, 143).

> Jag var mycket nervös före Luckan. Jag var orolig att jag ska inte förstå vad andra säger. Lyckligtvis mina rädslor var gagnlösa. Alla i Luckan var så vänliga och härliga och jag hade inga problem med förståelse.

> Det kändes spännande at gå till Luckan. Jag hade talat svenska tidigare egentligen bara i skolan så det kändes som ett stort steg att gå till Luckan och prata svenska till obekanta människor Men när jag gick där jag märkte att det var även roligt att försöka kommunicera med andra människor på svenska. Det kändes också pinsamt ibland, speciellt när jag inte förstod vad människor sade till mig. Men i allmänhet var Luckan en positivare upplevelse än jag väntade.

> Det var en rolig upplevelse att försöka lära mig svenska i Luckan. Jag har sällan talat svenska utanför klassrummet. Det var ganska svårt för mig att hänga med diskussionen men andra människor var förstående. Jag trodde diskussionen skulle vara skrämmande, men atmosfären var mycket avspänd. Andra människor var härliga och stöttande. De pratade med mig fastän de inte kände mig. Det var inspirerande att försöka lära mig svenska i en sådan miljö.

Positiivisten kokemusten on todettu antavan henkilökohtaista vahvuutta ja resursseja vastaisten kielenkäyttötilanteiden varalle (ks. Dewaele 2015, 14; vrt. Pishghadam et al. 2016, 511). Hyvin monessa raportissa opiskelijat kertoivat yllättyneensä iloisesti ruotsintaidoistaan joutuessaan käyttämään kieltä kasvotusten vieraiden kanssa:

> Jag var överraskad om hur väl jag förstod samtalet. Jag är stolt med min själv att på trots av min anspänning jag engagerad självständigt i diskussionen.

> Min erfarenhet i Luckan var mycket trevlig. Jag har aldrig haft så mycket kul att prata svenska. Jag blev förvånad över att jag kunde tala svenska så flytande.

> Jag emellertid förstått nästan allt, vad var glada överraskningen. Jag tycker om att du skulle lära nya språkig du måste söka olika situationer när du kan prata med annorlunda personen. Därför min skicklighetsnivå i svenska är inte bra. Det borde vara Luckan i östra finland ☺

Oman osaamisen tiedostaminen ja mielekkääksi koettu luokkahuoneen ulkopuoleinen ympäristö lisäsivät monen opiskelijan motivaatiota (vrt. Khajavy, MacIntyre & Barabadi 2018, 605):

> Det var motivera att märka att jag kunde tala på svenska helt okej. Den omgivningen var också mycket uppmuntrande.

> Som situationen Luckan var jätte avspänd. Det var lätt att förstå vad man talade om och det motiverade mig mycket med min språkinlärning. Efter Luckan var jag entusiastik och jag ville gå dit igen.

> Det var kul att prata om äkta och vardagliga saker med människor i stället för det givande ämne på lektioner. Det här besök motiverade mig med mina svenskstudier. Nu liter jag på min abilitet att prata svenska.

6.2 Positiivinen vuorovaikutus kielenkäytön edistäjänä

Osa opiskelijoista pystyi selvästikin huomioimaan keskusteluryhmän vieraat jäsenet kuten missä tahansa vuorovaikutteisessa ryhmässä. Näissä ilmauksissa vaikuttaisi ensinnäkin olevan kyse tunteen ja kognition dynaamisesta vuorovaikutuksesta (ks. Izard 2010), mutta ilmaukset viestittävät myös suuremmasta panostuksesta, muutoksesta kielenoppimisprosessissa (ks. Ross & Rivers 2018, 119):

> Det var svårare att engagera i diskussion på svenska, men jag var motiverad att försöka min bäst för att inte se ut ohövlig.

> Mitt motivation och koncentration var mycket högare än i skolan. Jag verkligen ville förstå vad andra sade.

> Nya människor skapade ny motivation i inlärning. Förutom lust att prata med människor gav nya motivationen.

6.3 Luckanin viehätys

Luckanin erilaiset keskustelukumppanit ja vapaa ilmapiiri vetosivat suurimpaan osaan opiskelijoita ja se koettiin luokkahuonetta hauskemmaksi, paremmaksi oppimispaikaksi. Ilmaisut voivat viestiä paitsi hyvästä kielitaidosta, myös itseluottamuksesta – käsityksestä itsestään ja ympäristöstä (ks. Aragão 2011, 304):

> Det var roligt att lyssna på åldringars prat och också roligt att prata med dem. Mycket roligare än i klassrummet.

> På mer generellt sätt tycker jag också att det var lättare att prata svenska i sån här slags sammanträffandet än i klassrummet. Kanske en orsak för den här var den informell situation och den ledigt atmosfär.

> Mitt besök av Luckan var en trevlig och trygg upplevelse. Att få träffa nya människor var den intressantaste i alla fall. Allt i allt var det roligt att höra hur språket användes utanför klassen.

Jotkut kokivat vapauttavaksi sen, ettei virheitä korjattu ja ne olivat sallittuja. Esiin tuli myös pelko siitä, että opiskelijatoverit luokkahuoneopetuksessa olisivat nauraneet tai arvostelleen puhetta (ks. Aragão 2011, 304; ks. myös Gregersen, MacIntyre & Meza 2014, 576):

> Att studera utan lärare känns lättare eftersom ingen förväntar dig att veta allt och andra studenter kan inte se ditt misslyckande.

> Det var mycket viktigt för mig att fel var okej. Jag blev förvånad att hur bra jag kunde förstå och kommunicera. Efter en liten tid inlärningen var mycket avslappnad än i klassrummet och jag tycker att kaffet också spelar en roll i det.

> Ofta är jag mycket försiktig att tala svenska eftersom jag är rädd för att jag säga någonting fel. Men jag vet, att det är ganska viktigt att man prata svenska för att lära språket. Luckan var en bekväm plats för att lara sig liten svenska.

Opiskelijoiden raporteista löytyi myös pohdintaa rooleista, joihin opiskelijat ovat tottuneet luokkahuoneharjoittelussa. Luokkahuoneen roolit voivat olla keinotekoisia ja joillekin stressitekijä:

> Man kanske inte alltid tänker på det men i vardagliga situationer behöver man inte stressa över grammatik och vokabulär. Alla ju blir alltid förstådda till slut. I skola, där man vill lära sig svenska är det naturligtvis viktigt för läraren att korrigera eventuella grammatiska fel. Men i situationen som händer utanför klassrummet finns det kanske inte samma roller.

Asenne ruotsin kieleen tuli ilmauksissa myös esiin. Tämä seikka on haastava opettajan näkökulmasta:

> På lektionerna vid universitet är det ofta tråkigt eftersom de flesta studeranden kan inte prata svenska och de tycker inte att använda den.

6.4 Turvallinen ja tuttu luokkahuone

Aineistossa oli melko paljon opiskelijoita, jotka kokivat Luckan-harjoittelun tavalla tai toisella positiivisena, mutta eivät kuitenkaan kokeneet sitä itselleen sopivana tai hyvänä vaihtoehtona puhumisen opettelulle. Syyksi opiskelijat mainitsivat usein luontaisen ujouden. Tämä tunne voidaan Aragão (2011, 304) mukaan yhdistää siihen käsitykseen, joka ihmisellä on itsestään ja ympäristöstään. Seuraavat esimerkit kertovat kuitenkin paitsi luokkahuoneesta ensisijaisena oppimisympäristönä, myös hyvästä kielitaidosta. Onkin mahdollista, että kyseessä ovat persoonallisuuspiirteiltään introvertit opiskelijat, jotka menestyvät hyvin puhtaasti lingvistisissä tehtävissä, koska ovat sitkeämpiä oppijoita ja opiskelijoita. Introvertit ovat hiljaisia, vetäytyviä ja varautuneita ollessaan muiden kuin läheisten ystävien seurassa. (Ks. Pietilä 2014, 55.)

> Jag föredrar fortfarande klassrumsinlärning över detta. Jag är blyg i nya situationer och även om inlärningssituationen var intressant och minnesvärd, kan jag fortfarande levande minnas min ångest i ögonblicket.

> Att studera i ett klassrum känns lite tryggare när jag vet att det finns andra personer där som är lika blyga som jag är. Därför tyckte jag att studera i Luckan var inte alls något för mig. Jag var nervös hela tiden och det var inte en nyttig upplevelse för mig.

> Även om erfarenheten var intressant och visar hur jag kan arbeta i den här miljön anser jag att inlärning i klassrummet är mer lämplig för mig.

Osa opiskelijoista vaikutti edelleen hyvin riippuvaiselta opettajan opetuksesta ja ohjauksesta. Kielet ovat vaikeita oppia, ja oppimisprosessi voi nostattaa voimakkaita tunteita (MacIntyre & Vincze 2017, 63). On muistettava, että ruotsi on opiskelijoille pakollinen kieli, jota kaikki eivät vapaaehtoisesti opiskelisi. Seuraavien ilmaisujen taustalla on havaittavissa heikoksi jäänyt ruotsin kielen taito:

> Jag lärde bäst när en lärare sägar vad jag måste veta. Jag tycker om när allt jag lära är rakt och explicerat enkelt. Att lära utan lärare är svårt.
>
> Jag tycker inte att prata till människor som ja känna inte, men de är 100% hemskt i svenska... Jag förstå bara 50% vad människor talade i Luckan. De var inte så hemskt men ja vill inte gå igen.

Opiskelijat selittivät luokkahuoneen paremmuutta usein kieliopin opetuksella. "Jag preferera föreläsningar eftersom där man får den grammatikförklaring för nästan alla sakerna" kirjoitti eräs opiskelija. Ja toinen: " Jag hade en trevlig tid men jag längtade efter någonting andra. Jag gillar klassrumsundervisning mer, kanske därför att där man också har teoretisk undervisning".

7. YHTEENVETO

Aineiston opiskelijaraporttien tunneilmaisuissa kiinnittää huomiota ennen kaikkea se seikka, että tunteita pystytään heikollakin kielitaidolla kuvailemaan vieraalla kielellä melko monipuolisesti. Opiskelijat kertoivat mm. jännityksestä, ahdistuksesta, miellyttävyydestä, pelosta, ilosta, kiusallisuudesta, mukavuudesta, hauskuudesta, turvallisuudesta, vihasta, ihanuudesta, viihtymisestä, uskalluksesta, vastenmielisyydestä ja ylpeydestä. Mielenkiintoa tähän lisää se, että vieraan kielen oppikirjoissa tunneilmaisuihin ei kiinnitetä kovin paljon huomiota eikä tunteista keskustella juurikaan luokissa, ja opiskelija kertoo usein tunteistaan mieluummin äidinkielellään (vrt. Dewaele 2015).

Tutkimuksen tulokset vahvistavat aiemmissa tutkimuksissa saatuja tuloksia, joissa kielenoppimiseen liittyy sekä ahdistuksen että ilon tuntemuksia. Aiempien tutkimusten mukaisesti tässäkin tutkimuksessa tunteet myös koettiin kielenkäyttötilanteessa luokan ulkopuolella voimakkaina – mitä ilmeisimmin voimakkaampina kuin luokkahuoneessa. Useimmat opiskelijat olivat keskustelutilaisuuteen lähtiessään erittäin jännittyneitä ja ahdistuneita, mutta huomattuaan keskustelutaitojensa riittävän, tunteet vaihtuivat iloksi ja riemuksi. Merkillepantavaa on se, että kokemuksistaan kertovat humanistit ja yhteiskuntatieteilijät (psykologit, logopedit ja filosofit) ovat suureksi osaksi naisia, ja aiempien tutkimusten mukaan naiset kokevat sekä iloa että ahdistusta enemmän kuin miehet (vrt. Ross & Rivers 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre 2014 ja Dewaele 2015).

Tulos, joka varsinkin ruotsia opiskeltaessa on varteenotettava, on opiskelijoiden motivaation selvä lisääntyminen heidän kokiessaan luokan ulkopuoleisen keskusteluympäristön ystävälliseksi ja turvalliseksi. Siihen, että ympäristö voitiin kokea myönteisenä, vaikutti oleellisesti muiden keskusteluryhmään osallistuvien ihmisten ystävällisyys ja avuliaisuus. Myönteisyyttä tuki myös mahdollisuus keskustella vapaasti aiheesta kuin aiheesta ja välttää ohjaajan korjaukset tai arviointi. Monille opiskelijoille kokemus tilanteen autenttisuudesta oli tärkeä: huomio ei kiinnittynytkään pelkästään kielisuoritukseen kuten luokassa, vaan oli huomioitava keskustelukumppani uutena vieraana persoonana samoja tapoja noudattaen kuin missä tahansa luokan ulkopuoleisessa tilanteessa. Tuttu opiskelutoveri luokassa ei haasta suoriutumaan samalla tavalla kuin vieras keskustelukumppani luokan ulkopuolella. Oli siis kyse toisenlaisesta panostuksesta kielenkäyttöön ja oppimisprosessiin kuin luokkahuoneessa. On mielenkiintoista – yllättävääkin – että nekin opiskelijat, jotka kokivat jälkeenpäin luokkahuoneopetuksen paremmaksi vaihtoehdoksi itselleen, perustelivat sitä joko luontaisella ujoudellaan tai luokkahuoneen teoreettisemmalla opetuksella eivätkä vastenmielisyydellä ruotsin kielen käyttöä tai opiskelua kohtaan. Monen opiskelijan ruotsin kielen taitohan on melko heikko hänen alkaessaan pakollisen ruotsinkurssinsa yliopistossa, eikä opiskelijan asenne ruotsin kieleen ole aina myönteinen (ks. Karlsson-Fält 2019).

Tunteet näyttäisivät informaalissa oppimisympäristössä olevan yhteydessä oppimiseen ja opiskeluun monella tapaa: ne voivat vaikuttaa motivaation lisääntymiseen, uskalluksen ja itseluottamuksen kasvamiseen ja ilon kokemiseen oppijan selviytyessä haastavasta tilanteesta. Tärkeintä on jokaiselle sopivan ja turvallisen, positiivisen harjoitusympäristön löytäminen. Ja kun me opettajina pyydämme opiskelijoita lopettamaan jotakin ja sen sijaan ajattelemaan, meidän olisi kyllä joskus hyvä pyytää heitä lopettamaan ja *tuntemaan* jotakin, kuten MacIntyre ja Vincze (2017) kehottavat.

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On a third mission: aligning an entrepreneurial university's mission, strategy and strategic actions to a language centre context

Marise Lehto

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, the mission of universities has evolved. No longer focusing only on 'the two time honored tasks', (Göransson et al. 2009:83) of creating knowledge and teaching, they also seek to extend this traditional mission to include a third component, i.e. becoming an entrepreneurial university, otherwise known as the third mission. The main impetus for this article is my long-term interest in creating a bridge for our higher education students' transition into the workplace and at the same time, working to meet what sits at the heart of the language centre i.e. funding. This article contributes to this focus by elaborating on a potential framework of approach for CeLCS, which is located as an independent unit within the University of Turku, Finland. The university tags itself as an entrepreneurial university and has just recently published the results of an online survey in which the employees gave their opinions on the future of the entrepreneurial university. This article proceeds in the following way. I begin by reviewing the literature on the entrepreneurial university, for example, by exploring definitions of *entrepreneurial university*, *academic entrepreneur* and *entrepreneurial academic* and the highlighting the differences between them. This also includes the rationale and process for becoming an entrepreneurial university, and who the key stakeholders are in this process. I then outline the aims, objectives, and research questions for this study before introducing the results from the online survey questionnaire – the HEInnovate tool. Finally, in the discussion and conclusion section I explore the implications of the responses for CeLCs, discuss limitations to the study, and make recommendations for future implementation of action strategies.

2. THE ENTREPRENEURIAL UNIVERSITY

2.1 The key drivers behind the entrepreneurial university

The term 'entrepreneurial university' owes its provenance to several drivers, one of which is the emergence of the knowledge-based economy (Sotirakou 2004, Mautner 2005, Etzkowitz and Zhou 2008, Sam and van der Sijde 2014). Other drivers include competition, the speed at which Information technology is developing, in other words the 'social, political, and educational context… and a complex mesh of trends including the reduction of government funding, the consequent necessity to raise money etc' (Mautner 2005). This last driver has been felt more keenly than ever within the higher education sector here in Finland with Finnish universities suffering extensive cutbacks at the hands of neo-liberal visions and the associated policies and strategic actions of the current government (as of March 2019).

2.2 Exploring the entrepreneurial university

What is an entrepreneurial university and how does it differ from just an ordinary university? First introduced, or at least made famous by Burton. R. Clark (1998) in his seminal book entitled '*Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organizational Pathways of Transformation*', we can better understand the term *entrepreneurial university* if we start with the individual words or combine them with other words such as *activities, academic, entrepreneur and capitalism*. For example, in Mautner's (2005:102) discursive exploration and analysis of key business words related to entrepreneurial universities and higher education, she quotes Clark as he explains his semantic choice of *entrepreneurial* over *innovative* by justifying 'that the latter would have been gentler in tone'. She warns us that located within the term entrepreneurial university are 'contested' interpretations, e.g. entrepreneurial, entrepreneurship, capitalism, academic capitalism' and whichever words we choose, borrow, or merge, we should choose wisely as they have the power to shape our professional identity.

Another theme that emerged from the literature was the key differences in between *academic entrepreneurship/academic entrepreneur* and an *entrepreneurial academic* (Meyer 2003, Etzkowitz and Zhou 2008, Millar et al 2018). Whereas the first term signifies the academic as having a strong orientation towards activities that are commercialized and profitable e.g. patents, licenses, the second term does not have such a strong financial connotation, with Meyer (2003:107) suggesting that these individuals are 'not growth oriented nor aware of their innovation nor development needs'. However, these individuals may engage in activities such as consulting. In addition, both the entrepreneurial university and the Academic entrepreneur, suggest a move toward independence e.g. 'on its own, independence, autonomy (Clark 1998, Etzkowitz and Zhou 2008). It is important to note that simply doing entrepreneurial activities does not make an entrepreneurial university. Sam and van der Sijde (2014:901) distinguishes between the two by means of pointing out that the concept is manifested through reciprocity; it is the entrepreneurial activities themselves that must 'create value for education and research and vice versa'. Although complete agreement does not exist, another way to conceptualize an entrepreneurial university is by possession of certain broad features or characteristics, one of which is the 'collaboration with the external environment and its external stakeholders- with communities, local organizations, local government chambers of commerce and alumni' (EC/OECD 2012 quoted Bikse et al. 2016).

Finally, an entrepreneurial university must 'take on certain roles' (Sam and van der Sijde, 2014:901) and there are certain expectations, and it must create and foster learning environments in which students can 'take risk, etc. and finally engage in 'improving itself and its surroundings'. Only when we do this can we can call ourselves an entrepreneurial university as it 'emphasizes interrelatedness of the three missions.

2.3 The Third Mission

The term *third mission* has emerged out of the complex social, cultural and political environment that Universities currently find themselves in (Mautner 2005). Viewed as a 'revolution' (Sam and van der Sijde 2014, Loi and Guardo 2015) its path has been charted as one where a University has morphed from being purely a 'teaching institution' i.e. mission one, into one that incorporated 'research into teaching' i.e. mission two, to finally one where these activities contribute to the 'social and economic development' of a society. Located within the third mission is the importance of acknowledging that Universities are 'not the only actors involved in the knowledge production system (Sam and van der Sijde 2014); it is a shared responsibility between Universities and the larger social environment e.g. industries and organizations. This means embracing a type of knowledge which is known as mode 2 knowledge and is one which is contextual, interdisciplinary, and involves eliminating boundaries, in other words moving outside the walls of the University (Gibbons et al. 1994 , Sam and van der Sijde 2014:898). At a practical level it involves Universities, their departments and units working in close collaboration with society for financial benefits. However, Loi and

Guarda (2015) argue that universities conceptualize the third mission in different ways, depending on their values, and is not simply as case of a binary collaboration between these two entities.

2.4. Rationale for becoming an entrepreneurial university

Within the literature, several important reasons emerge for becoming an entrepreneurial university. Regardless of whether it is related to fundamental University models, needs of key actors, keeping pace with the speed at which it happens, or financial support, change plays an important role (Sam and van der Sidje 2014). Although Bikse et al. (2016) refer to 'business incubators' they stress the role the entrepreneurial university plays in:

> 'providing students with new ideas, skills and the ability to think and respond entrepreneurially to societal challenges, enhancing co-creation with external partners is becoming a driving source for achieving sustainable higher education'.

More importantly within the context of the CeLCS unit, it is also a part of the University of Turku's strategy; we position ourselves as an entrepreneurial university through our tagline 'we are an Entrepreneurial University' and '"doing" entrepreneurial university' (2017:3) is outlined as a key focus in the university's Entrepreneurship Unit. In addition, a recent brainstorming survey undertaken at Turku University in autumn 2018 highlighted several key areas for future development such as 'future (sic) entrepreneurial university must develop collaboration'

2.4 Approaches to the process of becoming an entrepreneurial university

Previous research findings suggest that before embarking on any concrete, strategic steps, certain things must be in place within the university and department. For example, Bikse et al. (2016:80) identify two 'preconditions'; namely

> 'to ensure the integrity of theory and practice in the study process, enabling students to learn by doing and to demonstrate their skills in a particular activity by through searching for an innovative approach to tackling economic problems'.

The second is:

> 'the creation of an environment contributing to creative thinking which would promote the generation of new ideas that fascinate, make individuals act, and shape their lifestyle'.

Bikse et al. (2016:83) further explore the process of transforming from a traditional university to an entrepreneurial one; one they claim is 'complex' as it entails:

> 'starting to redefine the University's mission statement, developing strategic plans, implementing the necessary organizational changes, introducing new training modules of entrepreneurial education and involving students in the new organizational mechanisms such as university-based business incubators, technology transfer contact officers, and innovation centres, and developing the networks among them.

Whereas some scholars have adapted and utilized the self-assessment tool HEInnovate, which was designed by the European Commission in conjunction with the OECD, to guide them in their development of becoming an entrepreneurial university (Bikse et al. 2016, Demirović et al. 2018), others present a variety of alternative approaches and perspectives through several case studies and reports. These are related to both developing as an entrepreneurial university and developing academic capital. For example, in their special issue, Göransson et al. (2009) present several papers which focus on models and frameworks which 'suggest that the universities move towards technology-oriented third missions, thus a closer interaction with enterprises'. Development is also viewed from the student perspective, for example opening business incubators, enhancing the employability of graduates, and the empowering of students (Bikse et al. 2016, Miclea 2004). Other perspectives from the literature identified a focus at the strategic level, especially in terms of attracting international students (Poole, 2001). Several studies also identify the importance of University / Industrial SME's / local organisations collaboration, through for example, best practices such as small local projects, ensuring that both entrepreneurial activities, as well as fostering an entrepreneurial culture within the University employees, and academic entrepreneurship and academic capital is done (Peças and Henriques, 2006, Mathieu et al., 2008, Demirović et al. 2018). Some of the models and frameworks include evaluation systems, collaboration in terms of joint research partnerships, consortiums, and strategic partnerships (Kaklauskas et al. 2018, Dooley and Kirk 2007, Perkmann and Salter 2012, Demirović et al. 2018, Edmondson et al. 2012). There are also several case studies in the literature that outline how third mission activities have been translated into successful partnerships from various contexts e.g. USA & Europe, and disciplines e.g. pharmaceutical, ICT, Executive Management (Peters and Lucietto 2016, Edmondson et al. 2012, Mäkimattila et al. 2015, Gregerson et al. 2009, European Commission/OECD 2012).

2.5 The key stakeholders

Who should be involved in the development of the entrepreneurial university and third mission? What challenges will they face? Whilst there does not seem to be any clear answer to these questions, Sotirakou (2004:360) argues that if we are to succeed then it must be a collective effort as this may have a positive impact at many levels within the department. However, Park (2011) warns us of the negative connotations that the term 'academic capitalism' has and how it can be misinterpreted by the faculty members, so it is important to assess how much employees are willing to share in terms of their academic knowledge. Toma (2011) warns us on the complex area of legal issues relating to intellectual property and our readiness, or reticence, to contribute to mode two knowledge.

2.6 Research aim and objectives

The overall aim of this study is to explore how CeLCS can contribute to University of Turku's entrepreneurial university strategy. In order to carry out this research, the three main objectives are as follows:

1) to review the literature related to the development of the entrepreneurial university and third mission

2) to conduct an online survey with fulltime employees from the CeLCS unit and other representatives

3) to identify action strategies and make recommendations for suggested implementation

2.7 Research questions

1) How is the entrepreneurial university and third mission conceptualized?

2) What are the views of the CeLCS employees on the entrepreneurial university and third mission?

3) What specific action strategies should be recommended and implemented in the CeLCS unit?

In the following section, I outline the data collection procedures, the sample, scope, and data analysis of this study.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data collection

My focus in this article is to review the *what, how, why and who* of becoming and developing as an entrepreneurial university, specifically the independent unit of CeLCS, University of Turku. Several sources were utilized in the data collection phases. For example, based on a keyword search of the relevant databases, I identified key articles for the literature review, identified an online survey tool and I then sent survey questions to the sample by email.

3.2 Research context and participants

The research site for this study was the CeLCS unit, University of Turku. Formerly known as the Language Centre, it recently merged with several other faculties e.g. the Law faculty, the Turku School of Economics. In this study, I focus on the survey results which was sent to the fulltime University teachers of CeLCS, including management level and Board Members, including deputy representatives.

3.3 Scope

The 8 dimensions that were utilized for this study are part of the HEInnovate Entrepreneurial University self-assessment and are as follows: *Leadership & Governance, Organizational Capacity, Entrepreneurial Teaching & Learning, Preparing & Supporting Entrepreneurs, Digital Transformation & Capability, Knowledge Exchange & Collaboration, The Internationalised Institution, Measuring impact.* Furthermore, due to time constraints, I did not conduct any face-to-face interviews. However, this may be a possibility for a follow-up study in the future. Nevertheless, in order to increase the response rate, I sent an advance notice via an email, an invitation outlining the focus and relevance of the survey, followed by reminder emails of the deadline of the survey.

3.4 Data analysis

The data was analysed by the HEInnovate tool and in the following section I present the results and discussion.

4. RESULTS

The aim of this article is to identify the potential action strategies that could assist CeLCS in contributing to the Entrepreneurial University mission at The University of Turku and design a future research agenda. In order to do this I conducted a survey with approximately n=88 of the sample, spread across three groups: namely the Members of the Board & Deputy Board members of CeLCS, and fulltime teachers and lecturers of the CeLCS unit. Overall 6 respondents answered the survey, with 4 respondents choosing to do so anonymously and 2 respondents identifying themselves by name.

4.1 Group 1

This sample consisted of n = 10 and received 1 response in relation to dimension 1 Leadership & Governance, average 3.4 and is presented in table 1 and table 2 below:

Table 1: HEInnovate dimensions group 1 results

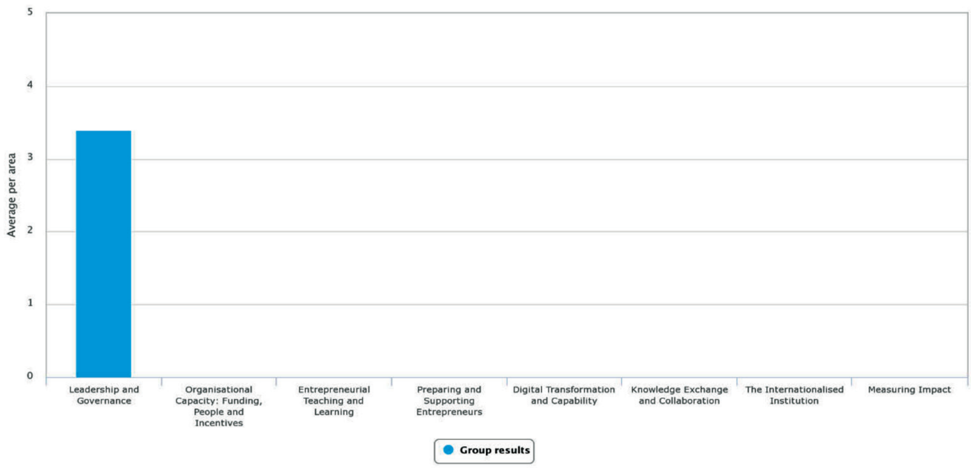

Table 2: HEInnovate Entrepreneurial University self-assessment average values

HEInnovate Entrepreneurial University self-assessment average values	
Dimension	**Average**
Leadership & Governance	3.4
Organisational capacity: Funding, People & Incentives	N/A
Entrepreneurial Teaching & Learning	N/A
Preparing & Supporting Entrepreneurs	N/A
Digital Transformation & Capability	N/A
Knowledge Exchange & Collaboration	N/A
The Internationalised Institution	N/A
Measuring Impact	N/A

4.2 Group 2

This sample consisted of n = 69 and received 4 responses. The group results are presented in Table 3 and table 4 below.

Table 3: HEInnovate dimensions group 2 results

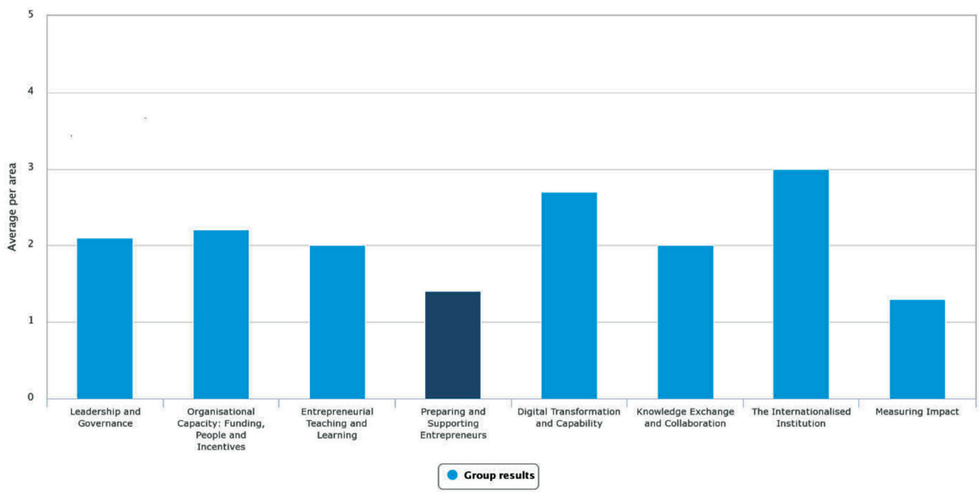

Table 4: HEInnovate Entrepreneurial University self-assessment average values group 2

HEInnovate Entrepreneurial University self-assessment average values	
Dimension	**Average**
Leadership & Governance	2.1
Organisational capacity: Funding, People & Incentives	2.2
Entrepreneurial Teaching & Learning	2.0
Preparing & Supporting Entrepreneurs	1.4
Digital Transformation & Capability	2.7
Knowledge Exchange & Collaboration	2.0
The Internationalised Institution	3.0
Measuring Impact	1.3

4.3 Group 3

This sample consisted of n = 9 and received 1 response in relation to all 8 dimensions, and is presented in Table 5 and 6 below.

Table 5: HEInnovate dimensions group 3 results

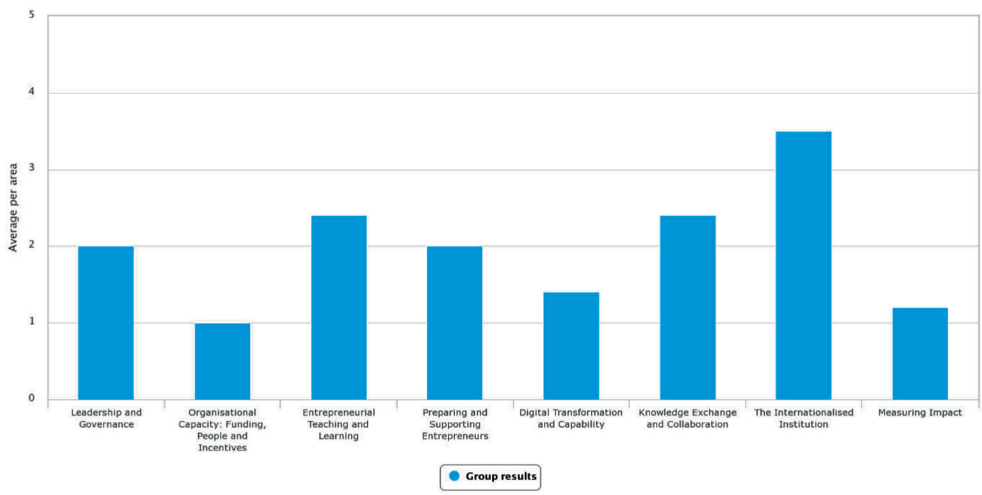

Table 6: HEInnovate Entrepreneurial University self-assessment average values group 3

HEInnovate Entrepreneurial University self-assessment average values	
Dimension	**Average**
Leadership & Governance	2.0
Organisational capacity: Funding, People & Incentives	1.0
Entrepreneurial Teaching & Learning	2.4
Preparing & Supporting Entrepreneurs	2.0
Digital Transformation & Capability	1.4
Knowledge Exchange & Collaboration	2.4
The Internationalised Institution	3.5
Measuring Impact	1.2

In the following section, I discuss the implication of the results and suggest potential action strategies for CeLCS to consider in relation to each dimension:

5 DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Dimension 1: Leadership and Governance

This dimension was answered by all of the 6 respondents and suggests that an awareness of leadership, commitment and governance within the CeLCS unit exists. However, in order to strengthen this dimension, CeLCS should develop a more coordinated and transparent strategy, derived from the University of Turku's overall strategy, especially in relation to implementation, integration and environment and disseminate to all key stakeholders.

5.2 Dimension 2: Organisational Capacity: Funding People & Incentives

5 of the 6 respondents answered this section and the results suggest that CeLCS should seek to develop projects which focus on seeking sustainable funding and investment, including staff development programs on how to advance the entrepreneurial agenda. It should also review ways of providing incentives for those staff who support this advancement, keeping in mind that not all staff will be oriented towards such rewards. Furthermore, it

should also seek to foster relationships with internal stakeholders, such as The Business Disruption unit at the Turku School of Economics and /or the Turku Science Park, in order to develop third mission activities.

5.3 Dimension 3: Entrepreneurial Teaching & Learning

This section was also answered by 5 of the 6 respondents and suggests that CeLCs could participate in e.g. seminars, workshops run by The University of Turku's Entrepreneurial unit, that aims at developing the units' entrepreneurial knowledge, thereby contributing to the third mission.

5.4 Dimension 4: Preparing & Supporting Entrepreneurs

Following on from dimension 3, CeLCS could attend some of the extensive range of programs that The University of Turku have to offer on studying about startups in order to learn more about e.g. spinoff companies. This would support the move from 'ideas to action'

5.5 Dimension 5: Digital Transformation & Capabilities

This section was also answered by 5 of the 6 respondents and suggests that CeLCS should leverage its current digital knowhow and competence in order to foster development of its digital culture, infrastructure, practices and presence.

5.6 Dimension 6: Knowledge Exchange & Collaboration

This section was also answered by 5 of the 6 respondents and suggests that CeLCS should seek to foster relationships and strengthen links with local and international stakeholders e.g. multilingual organizations, specifically the workplaces which the students from The University of Turku aim to enter. In addition, it should consider starting an incubator in order to create and develop knowledge related to these organizations, including taking a participatory approach i.e. including representatives from these organizations. This would support development of the 'knowledge ecosystem may lead to published research within this field; an established goal of the second part of Turku University's mission.

5.7 Dimension 7: The Internationalised Institution

This section scored the highest value in the survey and was answered by 5 of the 6 respondents. This suggests that the respondents perceive internationalization in CeLCs as integral to its growth, and is a key component of its strategy. Therefore, CeLCS should delve deeper into action strategies that support the unit and its' employees in fostering, pursuing and developing their international higher education relationships, thereby supporting the third mission of The University of Turku. As an example, on a recent doctoral conference to Singapore, I established contact with the conference organizer, Singapore Institute of Management and Global Education, and visited the campus over two days, exploring the potential for collaboration between our units with several key personnel.

5.8 Dimension 8: Measuring Impact

Although this section was answered by 5 of the 6 respondents, it is important to point out that at this early stage of CeLCs development as a unit, this cannot become a strategic priority until the previous dimension are in development.

5.9 Limitations of the study

Whilst the above results and discussion provide us with interesting insights, it is important to acknowledge that several limitations of the study exist. First, and perhaps most notably, the number of respondents to the survey was extremely low. Although the survey remained open for two weeks, and I clearly stated the approximate time in the invitation that answering the survey would take i.e. approximately thirty minutes, including at one point extending the deadline for two more weeks, the sample may have had busy teaching/lecturing schedules. In addition, they may have had concerns related to their knowledge levels of an entrepreneurial university and Third Mission, as at one point I received an email from a respondent stating that 'I don't feel that I am competent to answer the questions in the survey'. Furthermore, there may have been some confusion related to the survey tool itself. Based on a face to face query from a respondent regarding whether or not to '*send anything anywhere*', I sent out an email on the 3 April, 2019, stating that there was no need to *send* anything, just click on save. However, at this stage, the survey had already been completed by 2 respondents in group 2 and on the 15 March, 16 March and 4 April respectively, 3 more respondents went on to complete it successfully. Furthermore, in the original invitation email, I clearly stated that the respondents need to 'save and submit' and could contact me if they needed any clarification. Two further limitations exist related to the online survey tool: the first being the complex terminology of this survey. However, I attached a *glossary*, both in English and Finnish to assist with this. The second challenge was the term 'HEI' (Higher Education Institute), as it could not be replaced with the unit's name 'CeLCS'. Although I clearly stated this in the invitation letter, it may have been interpreted by the respondents as relating to Turku University as opposed to the CeLCS unit. Finally, returning to Parks' (2011) warning as set out in the literature review, the notion of committing to the third mission may be counter to what the employees view as their responsibility in contributing to developing mode two knowledge and the third mission. It is for these reasons that these results and associated findings may be questioned from a qualitative perspective in terms of their validity and reliability. However, it is precisely because of the low response that I argue the findings offer CeLCS fertile ground to begin the exploration process, perhaps through a more qualitative lens e.g. semi-structured interviews, as they work to decide what the next steps and associated action strategies are in relation to the third mission development.

6. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As a summary, it is clear that the term entrepreneurial university is one that is challenging on a number of levels and there are several important aspects for CeLCS to consider. Firstly, building on the results and findings of this survey, they should seek to understand in a more exploratory approach how the key stakeholders conceptualize an entrepreneurial university and third mission activities, perhaps by running seminars and workshops in collaboration with their vision, mission and strategic planning work. This would also allow them to gauge the commitment and contribution that key stakeholders are able to make, want to make, and are required to make, and in turn develop clear and actionable strategies related to their third mission activities. Based on this they should then seek to initiate collaboration activates with the supporting units within The University of Turku e.g. Business Disruption unit at TSE, Turku Science Park, as this will support the next steps of fostering relationships with the local and international community. Through these actions, not only will CeLCS make progress towards their own unit's vision and mission, but also that of the third mission of the entrepreneurial University of Turku.

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From analogue to digital: a report on the evolution and delivery of the Finelc 2digi project

Mike Nelson

'The Board identified a common theme for development in distance and multidisciplinary teaching and the use of teaching technologies. The Board decided to set up a working group to further develop the idea and to make a concrete presentation to the board on the matter. The group will consist of Heli Harrikari, Ville Jakkula, Mike Nelson, Heidi Rontu and Peppi Taalas. Mike will act as the group coordinator.´

Extract from the minutes of the Finelc Directors' meeting at Aalto University, December 2015

1. INTRODUCTION

The text above is a record of the origins of the Finelc 2digi project as noted in the minutes of the 'bosses' meeting just before Christmas in 2015. The bi-annual meetings of language centre directors had been discussing the role of Finelc going forward and decided that its role could best be served by initiating and implementing projects on topics that would be central to language centre teaching and development. The government of the day had just launched its 'digiloikka' (digital leap) push, and despite opposition to the way in which this was being marketed at the time, it was clear that the transposition from analogue models of teaching to digital presented a considerable challenge to the teaching profession.

This article is a report on the 2digi project from its inception to the launch of the website (2digi.languages.fi) in June 2019. It will report on the various stages experienced and present the work completed by the participants.

2. FROM ANALOGUE TO DIGITAL: HOW THE PROJECT WAS ENACTED

It was agreed amongst the bosses that each participating language centre would fund the project by allowing up to two teachers to take part. They would be given a 24-hour reduction of teaching per academic year and all travel would be paid for. This was the only funding for the project until its final stages. During spring of 2017 the working group met regularly by Skype and instigated a number of plans. Firstly, a message was sent to all Finnish language centres asking for volunteers and a group of 26 teachers was assembled from nine language centres. At the same time, the working group prepared for the project by determining its provisional main function and goals. These five main aims are summarized below:

1. Creating guidelines and assistance for language centre teachers when transferring teaching from an analogue to a digital mode.

2. **Affording flexibility in learning**: establishment of models for course implementation taking into account digital literacy available for all teachers to use.

3. Creating a support network: a digital platform to support innovation in teaching. A network of contact persons who can help and coordinate digital literacy in all language centres.

4. Symposium/webinar day to present all results.

5. Joint publication: research to lead to a final joint publication.

This initial plan was then, after a number of meetings, and as a result of the information gained from the questionnaire, put into the concrete form shown in Fig. 1 below. It was considered of great importance that a clear plan be given to all participants, along with a realistic timetable.

At the outset, the first working group stated that ‘the aim of this project is to assist teachers in the transposition of their teaching in language centres from the analogue to the digital in a way that is led by pedagogical purpose and not technology in itself’.

Running concurrently with this, Nelson (2017) carried out a survey of Finnish language centre teachers to benchmark digital approaches being used and to discover how the notion of digital literacy was understood at grassroots level. This survey provided a number of important insights into the attitudes towards and use of digital tools and approaches in language centre classrooms across Finland.

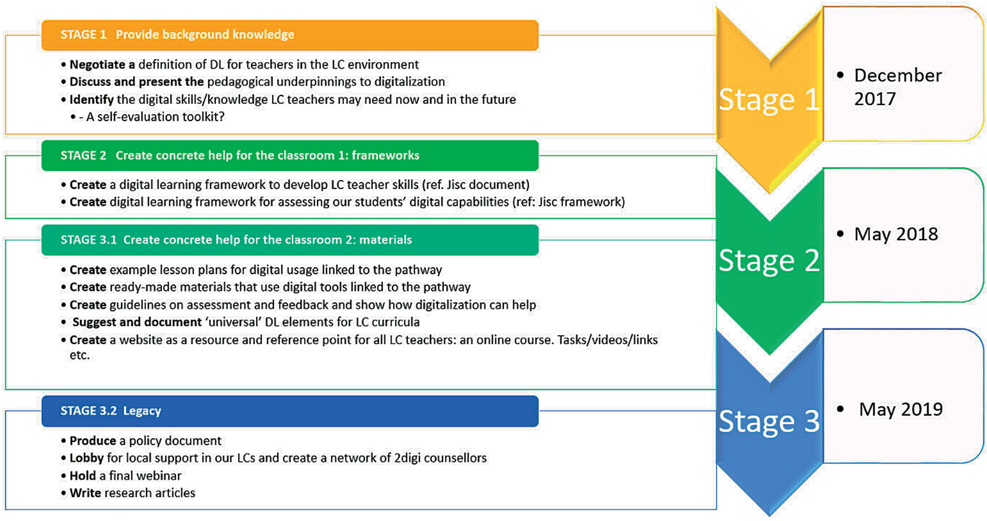

Fig. 1 The provisional 2digi project plan from March 2017

2.1 Digital Literacy in the Language Centre Classroom

This qualitative and quantitative survey was carried out between January and February 2017 and received 104 replies, which was considered a good return in comparison to similar studies. The full article (Nelson 2017) can be viewed online[1] but in terms of this report, it is perhaps important to mention some of its significant findings. The survey found that teachers understood the need for digitalization of teaching and by and large actively took part in this process. However, there was great uncertainty about how to define digital literacy. Only 46% of respondents had a clear idea of what digital literacy was and only 35% thought that their colleagues knew. There was also a wide range of answers in relation to the kind of pedagogical approaches taken to digitalization in teaching, from the highly complex to not having much idea at all. The study also found that although teachers were encouraged to digitalize their teaching, and there was some local support, very few language centres had included this aspect in their curricula planning. A clear need for scaffolding was discovered and five main areas for future support and development were uncovered:

1 https://www.utupub.fi/handle/10024/143721

1) Develop core digital skills.
2) Clarify and define digital literacy for teachers.
3) Develop a pedagogical base for digital teaching.
4) Bring digital literacy to mainstream curricula.
5) Improve basic IT skills and ensure a local support network.

At this point, the project began for all participants with the start-up seminar in Turku in March 2017.

2.2 Working groups and joint meetings

The seminar was held at the Centre for Language and Communication Studies in Turku. The aim was to set targets and create the working groups necessary to carry the project forward. The main theme of the day was to discuss what was meant by digital literacy. Three presentations were given: Mike Nelson presented 'Using computers and stuff': Digital Literacy in the Language Centre Classroom - a report on the national survey. This was followed by Janne Niinivaara who discussed 'Digitalization of the classroom: Attitudes and fears in digital use'. Finally, Juha Jalkanen presented 'Designing for digital literacies: How technology changes pedagogical design'. It was decided that the first objective was to begin work on Stage 1 of the project. This was to negotiate a definition of digital literacy (DL) for teachers in the language centre (LC) environment to discuss and present the pedagogical underpinnings to digitalization and to identify the digital skills/knowledge LC teachers may need now and in the future. Participants were then able to choose which of these themes they were most interested in and thus three working groups were formed.

The outcome of Stage 1 was that Group 1 created a detailed grid of information defining digital literacy, Group 2 created a set of questions and answers that explained the added value and costs that the digitalization of teaching creates, and Group 3 created an online self-evaluation questionnaire for teachers to measure their own digital skills for the classroom. Concurrent with this was the establishment of a dedicated website for the project, which was made by the IT Research team of the University of Turku.

One important aspect at this point in the project was the need to find a means by which all the scales used by the different self-evaluation tools would be harmonized. The problem became apparent because teams were working on the different self-evaluation questionnaires separately and there was the danger that the scales to measure ability levels would differ between them. The teachers' questionnaire covered four main areas: skills, user, motivation and member of the working community. To present the results of each of these areas we decided to use the CEFR scale of A1 to C2 based on the DigiCompEdu CEFR Educators scale. By using this scale for the teacher's self-evaluation, we could then use the same scale for the student self-evaluation and maintain a coherence within the project.

The original plan was to have all three targets completed by December 2017, but it became evident early on that more time would be needed. Thus, an organic approach was adopted by which the groups were split – half the participants continued working on Phase 1 and half began work on Phase 2. This can be seen in Fig. 2 below.

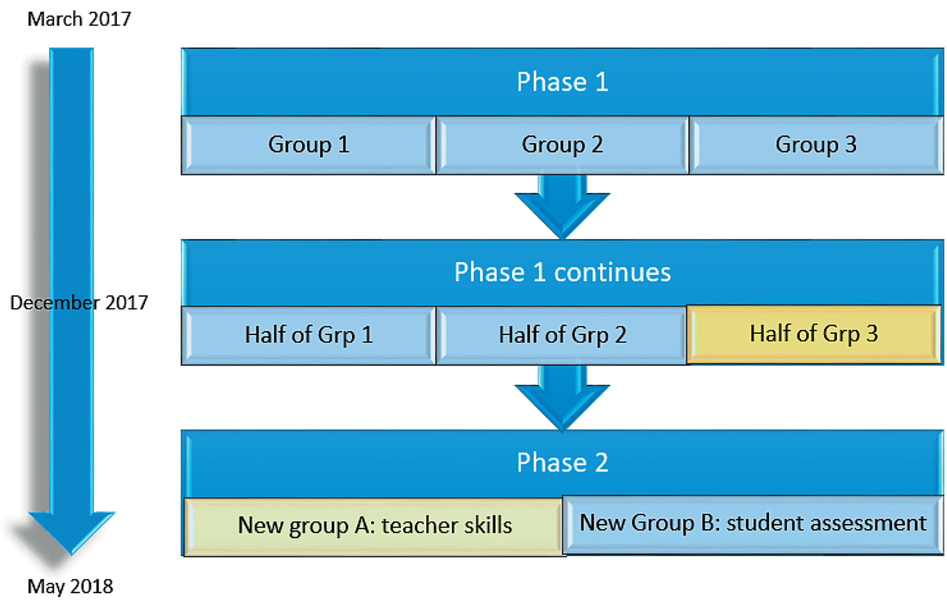

Fig. 2 The structure of working groups from December 2017.

The second phase of the project was to focus on creating a self-evaluation mechanism for students and at the same time to provide a bridge for teachers between the self-evaluation questionnaire created by Group 1 to their continued development in digitalization.

By May 2018, the student self-evaluation questionnaire was complete, but the teacher framework would take until the end of the project to be ready. In the workshop held in Helsinki in May 2018, there was an opportunity to reflect on how the project had gone up until that point, as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Teacher reflections on the 2digi project in May 2018.

Positives	Challenges
• help given when needed/asked for	• need for concrete products to work towards the challenges it brings
• DigiCompEdu was useful	• how does our bit fit into the whole? – fragmentation
• great team leaders	• own tasks sometimes unclear
• networking across LC boundaries	• uneven division of labour
• fun group work	• not enough time allocated by own LC
• interesting and challenging area	• flow of information between teams
• wonderful, smart colleagues	• structure of the project
	• pressure to produce products
	• big picture unclear at times
	• do we produce research articles?

The reflection showed that teachers were united in their understanding of the positives the project had brought: networking, new information and colleagues:

> *'great to network with people from other language centers transcending "language group" boundaries.'*
>
> *'It has been a pleasure working with some very smart and wonderful people.'*
>
> *'Meetings well organized, beneficial, informative, productive, working with others fun!'*

However, there were a number of reservations. The negative aspects tended to centre around a perceived lack of clarity as to what each individual and team was expected to do in terms of the end product.

> *'There has often been a pressure to produce a "product" by a deadline. This might lead to avoiding difficult questions, and streamlining texts, in order to finish on time.'*

The emotional side of the project was also referred to as one participant wrote:

> *'For such a technical topic, emotions came into play a lot. Digitalization is not fait accompli, but a process that raises questions about what we are doing. What answers we come up with are not ultimate truths, but snapshots of current situations, opinions, hopes and hypotheses.'*
>
> *Time was a limiting factor. Disparate teams led to LCs forming their own sub-groups so somewhat isolating. On-line meetings were less effective.'*

This last comment was heard throughout the project and was somewhat ironic for a project focusing on the digitalization of practices: in order to *really* get things done it was better to meet face to face.

A thorough discussion between all participants certainly helped the situation, but to some extent these remained issues in the background of the project until the final stages. It can be said that the project was a journey of discovery for almost all of the participants and arguably this uncertainty was an essential part of the process.

The latter part of the workshop was spent discussing plans for Stage 3: what kind of resources teachers might need and how we would present them. We began by asking questions that we did not know the answers to: before being in a position to help other teachers, we needed to clarify matters to ourselves. We came up with three basic ideas. Firstly, to define a wide range of generic skills students need in a digital environment and create online materials to support them in achieving them. Examples of this could be team-work skills: what parts it has eg trust skills and concrete examples of how it could be taught/created using digital means; self-management, teamwork skills, collaboration, giving feedback and carrying out self-evaluation; and information searching skills, creating a professional identity (eg creating LinkedIn profile, formal/informal register usage).

The second idea was to take learning outcomes from a particular course type and create online materials to support them in achieving them, for example scientific writing, presentation skills and beginner's courses. Finally, we wanted to include the notion of processes, so rather than focusing on outcomes and listing course activities, we wanted to consider ways of thinking that would allow for the opportunity to use digital technologies. For example, student choices in how they execute a task become more transparent when digital tools are available.

The first version of the 2digi website was launched on 24 September 2018.

As the third and final stage began, the steering group worked on the above ideas and created a template for teachers to use in the creation of online resources for teachers. These were disseminated in the workshop in Helsinki on 4.9.2018 and ensured that for each resource we would name the expected learning outcomes, explain the format of how students will study (e.g. independent/pair/group), indicate how learners are supported and feedback given, how it will end and what happens next and how the learning process and experiences are dealt with (reflection).

The final workshop was held on 26.4.2019 in Helsinki and provided an opportunity for an overview of the project and the possibility to discuss the future. The 2digi website was launched in the Language Centre Days in Aalto University on 7.6.2019.

3. 2digi: what was created?

In the following section, the results of the three stages of the project are presented and examples are given from the website. The concept behind the site was that it could be used primarily as part of an ongoing developmental process for teachers and students or could simply be used on an individual basis where users could choose the parts they wanted to take advantage of. The developmental process can be seen in Fig. 3 below. We will now present each part of this process and give examples of each section.

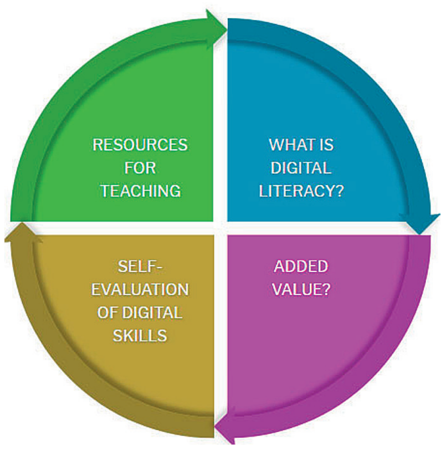

Fig. 3 The process flow of how to use the 2digi website

3.1 What is digital literacy?

This question was the starting point of the project and it was noted in the survey done by Nelson (2017) that there was considerable uncertainty as to what this concept consists of. The group assigned to this part of the 2digi project used as a basis for their work the Jisc (2012) *Building digital capability: a teacher profile*, in which they presented their views on what digital literacy would mean for teachers in higher education in the UK. The original grid was modified to fit the language centre context and, at the same time, the element of attitude and motivation was added that was missing from the original definitions. We decided to present teachers with a quick, one sentence definition of digital literacy and at the same time provide a much more detailed list of definitions for more in-depth self-analysis. The one sentence idea had to be expanded, but below the definition arrived at can be seen.

Digital literacy in a language centre context means two things:

1. Teachers are able to support student learning in a pedagogically appropriate manner such that they can make use of digital programs and equipment in their teaching, supervision and assessment to benefit students in the acquisition of the academic and working life language and communication skills they need.

2. All staff are willing and able to work, communicate and collaborate with all partners using appropriate digital tools and platforms.

The grid then consisted of seven key elements: attitude and motivation; ICT proficiency; information, media and data literacy; digital creation; digital communication; networking and collaboration; digital learning and professional development; and digital identity and wellbeing. A fuller example can be seen below in Fig. 4.

Digital creation, scholarship and innovation (creative production)	
Digital creation	• use and edit a range of digital media – text, images, video, audio, digital presentations, podcasts and screencasts, blog and web posts – to communicate educational ideas • design and create digital materials to meet specific learning needs • design digital texts, quizzes and assessment tasks
Digital research	• collect and analyse data using digital methods (e.g. online surveys, data capture tools, video and audio recording, social and sharing media, qualitative and quantitative data analysis tools, data visualisation) • publish and present the outcomes of research in digital formats
Digital innovation	• discover and implement new learning/teaching ideas using digital tools and media • investigate and evaluate new digital approaches to learning and teaching

Fig. 4 An example from the 'What is digital literacy?' grid.

3.2 What added value does digitalization bring to language centre teaching?

From the inception of the project, members wanted to stress the importance of a pedagogical approach in a technology-enriched environment. For those teachers still sceptical of technology, we wanted to show in a concrete manner the added value that digital technology can bring to the classroom. At the same time, however, we also wanted to highlight the downsides that this can bring and count the 'costs' of technology. This section of the website was organized around six key questions that teachers may ask:

1. How does online learning benefit students who want to develop working life skills?

2. How does the networked world affect our approach to the teaching of languages and communication?

3. How does a digital approach make learning more accessible?

4. How can we cater for individual preferences and needs?

5. How are teachers' views of learning reflected in their technological choices?

6. How does going digital help with the ability to monitor learning?

For each of these questions, we provided a short video answer and a more detailed check-list with references to the relevant literature. Below is an example: How can we cater for individual preferences and needs? The added value is shown along with the potential costs this may incur.

Added value:

With the right digital tools;

- *Learning can be differentiated more easily, for example, taking into consideration the student's subject area.*
- *Students with diverse goals, backgrounds and skills can tailor their learning. Tailored learning can be more meaningful, which can lead to greater engagement and achievement [1].*
- *Learners can choose the pace of learning. When the pace of learning is adjusted for each learner, all learners have the necessary time to achieve the learning objectives [1], [2].*
- *Learners can be given more choice. Being given more choice, they take ownership of their learning and develop learning strategies and self-regulated learning habits that are necessary for lifelong learning [2].*
- *Learners are able to tap into the online networks and resources relevant for their professional lives [3].*
- *Information can be presented in diverse, flexible ways for different learners [4].*
- *Teachers and learners can identify or modify existing resources more easily [1].*
- *Learners can receive more frequent and immediate feedback in real time (formative, integrative assessment) [1], [4].*
- *Learning gaps that impede progress can be identified and addressed more quickly, special needs diagnosed, and progress accelerated [1], [4].*
- *Teachers can focus their attention on students who are struggling or who are progressing more rapidly than their peers [1], [2].*
- *Students can present their learning results in diverse ways and document their learning [4].*
- *Knowledge gained outside formal education can be more easily acknowledged [1], [4].*

Costs:

- *Digital infrastructure and network capacity have to be sufficient [4].*
- *Investments in design and development are needed: digital material creation is expensive, and quality assurance is needed.*
- *Teacher training in digital environments is necessary to ensure expertise [4].*
- *Pedagogical support, study guidance, and increased coordination effort are essential for keeping track of asynchronous activities.*
- *Students may not assume responsibility; a teacher is required to guide the learning process.*

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3.3 Self-evaluation: teachers

Once teachers have been able to reflect upon the definition of digital literacy and consider what added value it gives, the next stage of the process is to evaluate their own digital skills in the classroom. This took the form of a self-evaluation questionnaire where teachers are asked a series of questions and asked to note if they disagree, agree somewhat or totally agree.

On completion of the questionnaire, teachers are presented with a profile of their current position, using an adapted version of the CEFR scale. This includes a diagrammatical representation of their level and in addition (seen below in Fig. 5), a more detailed analysis is provided in the four areas of attitude, skills, use of digital tools and work community.

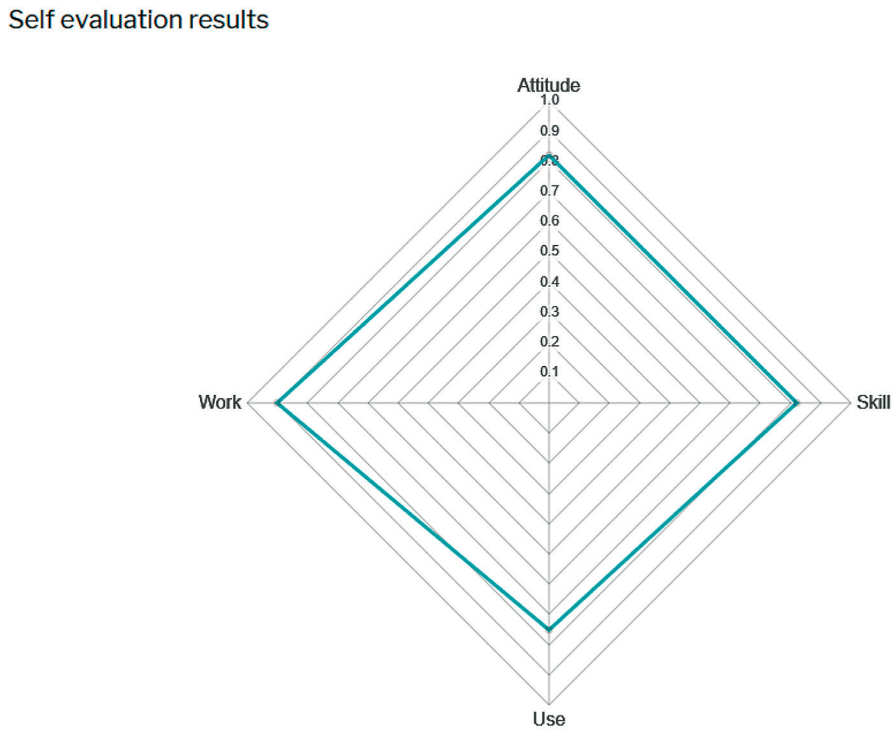
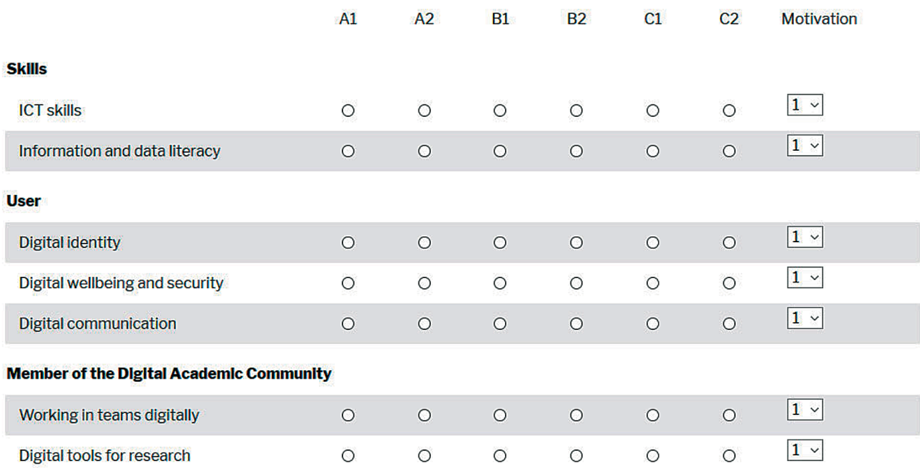


Fig. 5 A diagrammatical representation of teacher skills – an example.

3.4 Self-evaluation: students

Whilst the main focus of the 2digi project was on teachers, we thought that both students and teachers alike would benefit from students being given the opportunity to quickly and easily reflect and gauge their own digital skills in relation to teaching and learning situations. Thus we created a simple grid for students to quickly evaluate their own skills level using again the CEFR levels and also the same four categories used in the teacher self-evaluation questionnaire: motivation, skills, user, and member of the digital academic community (as opposed to member of the work community for teachers). For each of the elements a descriptor was created and by moving the mouse over the buttons the descriptor appears to enable the students to quickly and accurately answer. A similar profile is then created for students to print or keep in pdf format (in Fig 6 below). With this questionnaire, it is also possible to teachers to get the results of a whole class of students and see where their strengths and weaknesses lie.



	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	Motivation
Skills							
ICT skills	○	○	○	○	○	○	1
Information and data literacy	○	○	○	○	○	○	1
User							
Digital identity	○	○	○	○	○	○	1
Digital wellbeing and security	○	○	○	○	○	○	1
Digital communication	○	○	○	○	○	○	1
Member of the Digital Academic Community							
Working in teams digitally	○	○	○	○	○	○	1
Digital tools for research	○	○	○	○	○	○	1

Fig. 6 The student self-evaluation questionnaire

3.5 Resources

The 2digi website provides resources for teachers who want to digitalize their teaching set at three levels: lesson level – resources that present a lesson using digital resources or approaches; course level – resources that cover a whole course; and process level – resources that transcend the first two levels and operate at a more abstract level. Although the resources are varied and diverse in nature, they all follow a pre-planned structure that gives a uniformity in their presentation. Thus, each resource shows the learning outcomes expected, the ways of working and activities, how the students are supported, the kind of feedback students get and a discussion on how the work ends and what happens next. Students and teachers can also discuss and reflect on the learning experience. One of our guiding principles in the creation of these resources was that they would not be tied to any specific language and could be used by all language teachers.

Each resource also indicates the difficulty level for the student in language terms using the CEFR scale, they show the 'digicompetence' level required by teachers to use the resource (easy, medium, difficult) and also a number of key words relating to the themes in the resource. In this way, teachers of varying abilities can find ready-made lessons that can help them progress in their digital development.

3.6 Digital portfolio: pedagogy with a twist

In terms of the process for teacher digital development, the next step is to create a digital portfolio and the website facilitates this to be done both for individual teachers and also for leaders and planners. Teachers can in this way assess and document their own digital literacy and leaders and planners can create a digital literacy learning and development plan. A four-step process was created to give a clear guiding path shown below in Fig. 7. Teachers are here recommended to use the Digicompedu self-analysis questionnaire[2] to think more deeply about

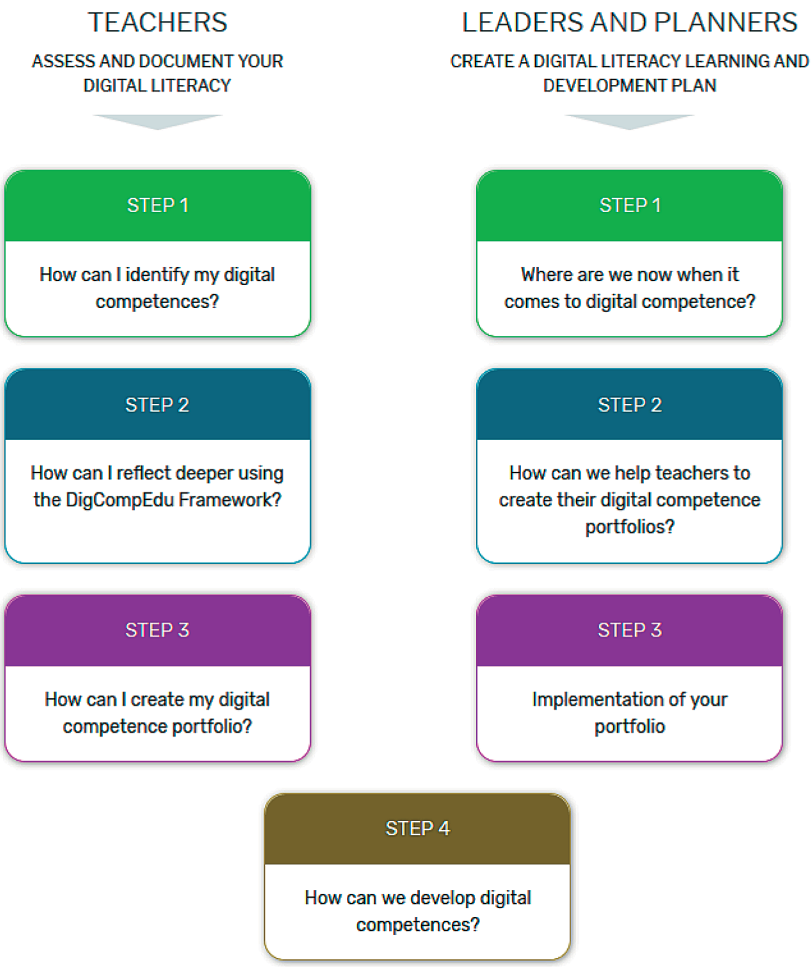


Fig. 7 The four steps of digital portfolio creation.

2 https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/en/digcompedu/self-assessment

3.7 Digital ethics

The final section of the site provides help and information regarding digital ethics in a broad aspect. Three areas are addressed: privacy and anti-bullying, copyright do's and don'ts, and copyright and creative commons.

4. 2DIGI: THE NEXT STEPS

The 2digi project was never meant to be an end in itself, rather it was seen by participants as an important stepping stone in helping the digital development of language centre teachers. In the final seminar day on 27 April 2019, the future and possible continuation of the project was discussed. It became clear that there were still a number of important issues that remained largely unresolved in the project and there was enthusiasm to work on them going forward. These formed a number of questions, which are listed below:

1. What will be the content of language teaching, learning and communication for future working life?

2. How does digitalization change the communication?

3. What will be the focus of the language centre courses in the digital era: will it be more focused on general communication principles (critical thinking, creativeness, intercultural communication) or on traditional language skills?

4. How do we promote relationship building through digital media if F2F is not possible?

5. How do we promote genuine engagement?

There were also a number of suggestions of what actions now need to be taken to keep up the momentum created by the project. Firstly, alumni online get-togethers (e.g. screen sharing, show and tell digital tools) were suggested. In this way it was hoped that participants could be kept up to date. Further, the possibility to attend training organized by different partner Language Centres was also wished for. A second suggestion was the creation of an action plan to map strengths among teachers (for example, through the portfolio tool) with the objective of targeting training to the needs of different teachers. The third idea concerned resources: teachers should be supported in their development digitalization of teaching (e.g., time, tools, incentive/motivation, training, and conferences/research). There was a general wish that the results of the implementation of the 2Digi website material would be shared and that participants could meet and continue working together. As part of this, it was suggested that we could arrange for 'ambassadors' to visit language centres to hold workshops for staff on the digitalization of teaching. There are concrete plans for this to be done at time of writing. Finally, it was hoped that language centres in the future would ensure that the digital skills measurable in the 2digi project would be used as part of the recruitment process of teachers to gauge the digital skills of candidates.

The 2digi project provided a steep learning curve for its participants and helped focus and explain our perceptions of digital literacy in a comprehensive and concrete manner. We hope that the fruit of our work will be enjoyed by language centre teachers and provide a clear framework for their present and future pedagogical development.

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What is business English? Key word analysis of the lexis and semantics of business communication

Mike Nelson

1. INTRODUCTION

The importance of the command of business lexis for business people has been recognized for centuries (Defoe 1726), and the business advantages derived from knowledge of specialist lexis are arguably self-evident. However, until relatively recently, the lexis of business received little attention in academic research. Business English teaching is perhaps the largest and most diverse example of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) today. It is therefore important that teachers and students alike have access to and understand not only the lexis key to their own individual fields, but also have an understanding of the semantic world that is created when language moves from that of the general to business.

In this article, I attempt to answer the question of whether there is a lexis specific to business English and if there is, just what it consists of. In order to do this, the Business English Corpus of Nelson (2000) is utilized, using Scott's (1997/2009) notion of key words, to discover how business English lexis differs from that of general English. The semantic environment in which the lexis operates is also examined using the concept of positive and negative key words; that is, words that appear in business English with unusual frequency or infrequency as compared to general English. The article shows that business English can be seen as a clearly defined entity, whilst at the same time drawing from and giving back to general English.

A brief review of the literature is followed by an explanation of the corpus-. based methodology used in the analysis of business lexis. Then, a detailed analysis of positive and negative key words is carried out leading to an analysis of the notion of business English as seen through the prism of its most important lexis.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

It is interesting to look back to the 18th century and the quotation mentioned in the introduction above and realize that the importance of the command of business lexis for business people has been recognized for centuries. Daniel Defoe, when writing *The Complete English Tradesman* in 1726, was quite explicit on the importance of understanding and being able to use the language of business. He wrote:

> I therefore recommend it to every young tradesman to take all occasions to converse with mechanics of every kind, and to learn the particular language of their business; not the names of their tools only .... but the very cant of their trade, for every trade has its *nostrums*, and its little made words, which they very often pride themselves in, and which yet are useful to them on some occasion or other. (Defoe 1726/1987: 25-26)

His book, though written in a style unfamiliar to the modern reader, is filled with much advice and insight on business that is just as relevant today as when he wrote it. The implication of Defoe's advice is a clear implicit understanding that there is a language of business that is separate and 'specific' from that of general English. This, he points out, has a definite business advantage:

> If you come to deal with a tradesman or handicraft man, and talk his own language to him, he presently supposes you understand his business; that you know what you have come about; that you have judgement in his goods, or his art, and cannot easily be imposed upon; accordingly, he treats you like a man that is not to be cheated ....
> (Defoe 1726/1987: 26)

Yet despite this clear business advantage, and the length of time this has been known, the lexis of business received little attention, academic or otherwise until relatively recently. The brief review of the literature that follows shows that academic work has been done related to several aspects of Business English, but what has been missing is an overview of the lexis - a knowledge of what business lexis is and how it typically behaves. This work, therefore, stemmed from a practical desire to be more certain that the lexis presented to students as Business English, is, in fact, Business English and the desire to confirm that a specific lexis of business communication actually exists.

2.1 Business English: a brief history of its research

Business English clearly fits into the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) context but is seen as a very broad and complex part of it (Ellis & Johnson 1994). Early state-of-the-art articles on Business English (Johnson 1993; Dudley-Evans & St John 1996; St John 1996), and two major handbooks on teaching Business English (Ellis & Johnson 1994; Brieger 1997), discussed for the most part only aspects of teaching and materials and discussion of learner issues. They therefore did not address the nature of BE as such. Nickerson and Plancken (2016: 4-5) highlighted two seminal articles that were the beginning of concerted applied research into BE, Johns (1980) article on cohesion in written business discourse, and Williams' (1988) article on the language of business meetings.

Another early example was Morrow (1989) with a study of conjuncts use in the Wall Street Journal. Later in the 1980s attention turned to turn-taking strategies in business discourse, for example, Lenz (1987) using a corpus of six technical meetings and Micheau & Billmyer (1987), who looked at politeness strategies of native and non-native speakers. Thus attention also turned to the importance of culture in communication strategies. Jenkins and Hinds (1987), Mauranen (1993) and Yli-Jokipii (1994) are key examples. Yli-Jokipii studied the differences in the use of *requests* between Finnish, American and British writers of business letters. Differences were found not just between the Finnish and native speaker group, but also between American and British writers, though this was less marked. Finns tended to use 'non-intruding detached behaviour' (1994: 252) when making requests, whereas 'American writers preferred explicitness' (1994: 253) and the British writers 'employed less overt tactics' (1994: 253). Building on the work of Hofstede on power distance and culture in business, attention then turned to the influence of corporate culture and power on language (Charles 1996; Barbara & Scott 1996). Later work in this area has continued (Barghiela-Chapini et al. 2013).

A further influence on BE research in the 1990s came from the study of genre. Work by Bhatia (1993), who found patterns in company sales' promotion letters, and others found clear patterns of moves and steps that are familiar to all teachers of academic writing through the seminal work of Swales (1994). This work into business genre has continued and Evans (2010, 2012) in studies of business emails has found seven different genres in use and Handford (2010), using the Cambridge and Nottingham Business English Corpus (CANBEC) found that business meetings can be recognized as a distinct genre.

2.2 Research into business English with pedagogical aims

Later work in the field of BE began to focus more on the pedagogical aspects of actually teaching BE. Nickerson and Plancken(2012: 6-9) single out three pedagogically-focused articles as being particularly significant: Li So-mui and Mead (2000) investigated English use in the Hong Kong textile business in order to use the analysis to design materials/lessons for those entering the field. Charles and Marschan-Piekkari (2002) used interviews and key informants in a multi-national organization to create strategies for teaching that would best fit their employees. Lockwood (2012) created a training curiculum for a call centre company in the Philippines using a communications audit. These studies, however, draw on a long tradition of needs analysis in BE going as far back as Stuart and Lee (1972) and the language audit of Pilbeam (1979). Nelson (1992, 1994a, 1994b) created a computer-based needs analysis system that linked students' needs and want to a material's database for course design and implementation. Koester (2014) used CANBEC to show how hypothetical reported speech is used in negotiations to facilitate the advancement of the discussions.

2.3 Studies into the lexis of business English

As noted previously, there have been few studies into the lexis found in the business environments. Bhatia (1993) had looked at aspects of lexis when describing the moves in sales and application letters. Nelson (2000), on which this article is based, elucidated the overall nature of business lexis and Nelson (2006) investigated the used of semantic prosody in BE finding not only business-specific lexis, but also business-specific semantic prosodies. Koester (2004) in a corpus-based study of business communication found it to be topic-centred and task-oriented and consisting of specialist business lexis. Poncini (2002) also examined the specialised lexis of business and how it is used to create a professional identity. A more recent study (Walker 2011) focused on the lexis and collocations of business English in comparison to general English.

3. METHODOLOGY

The starting point of this research is the assertion that the lexis used in Business English is significantly different from general English. In order to examine this assertion, the Business English Corpus (BEC) of Nelson (2000) was used. The corpus consists of 1,023,000 words and is made up of both written (56%) and spoken (44%) elements. The texts were collected from native speaker sources in the UK and USA.[1] A distinction was made in the text selection by distinguishing between texts that are used in actually doing business, e.g. emails, reports and meetings and texts that can be considered to 'talk about' business, e.g. newspaper articles and radio and TV interviews. The written section, therefore, consists of approximately 575,000 tokens. Of this section just under 200,000 words consist of the 'about' section – books, newspapers, journals and magazines – and 379,000 words of 'doing business' texts in fifteen categories e.g. annual reports, contracts, emails and letters. The spoken section has just over 200,000 words of 'about' texts, for example, interviews and radio and TV programmes and 227,000 words of 'doing business' in six categories including meetings, negotiating and telephone conversations. The concept of whole text was used, meaning that only whole texts were included except for five 10,000 word samples from books. A sample size per macro-genre, e.g. business letters, was set at 20,000 words to try to maintain balance in the corpus.

Using WordSmith 3 (Scott 1999), the BEC was statistically compared using Log Likelihood and a p value of p=.0000001 to the 'general English' of the British National Corpus (BNC) Sampler. The BCN Sampler consists of just over 2 million words and is equally divided between written and spoken texts. The spoken section is divided into two: context-governed (e.g. education and leisure) and demographic texts by socio-economic class. The written section also has two main categories: imaginative (e.g. drama and poetry) and informative (e.g. science and world affairs), containing 231,000 and 779,000 words, respectively. The corpus thus presents a broad sample of what can be considered 'general' English.

The comparison of corpora created a list of approximately 1,000 'key words' Key words, for the sake of this analysis, are words which occur with *unusual* frequency (i.e. more than you would expect) in a given text or texts when compared to their frequency in a reference corpus with Log Likelihood compensating for difference in corpus size. Thus the key words here are

[1] A full break-down of BEC composition can be found at http://users.utu.fi/micnel/business_english_lexis_site.htm

considered to be statistically unusually frequent in their occurrence when compared to the general English of the BNC Sampler to a probability of p=.0000001.

The key word list produced by WordSmith included *positive key words* and *negative key words*. Scott defined these words: 'A word which is positively key occurs more often than would be expected by chance in comparison with the reference corpus. A word which is negatively key occurs less often than would be expected by chance in comparison with the reference corpus' (1999: WordSmith Help File). The key words, therefore, represent those words that are 'special' to Business English both in the sense that *positive* key words occur statistically *more* frequently in Business English than in general English, and conversely, that *negative* key words occur *less* in Business English than would be statistically expected in general English. These *positive* and *negative* key words of the BEC were then separately categorised grammatically, using the categories of Ljung (1990): *noun, verb, adjective, noun/verb, noun/adjective, verb/adjective, noun/verb/adjective* and *-ly adverb*. The four largest of these grammatical categories in both positive and negative key words - nouns, verbs, adjectives and noun/verbs - were then further individually analysed and each word in each grammatical category was placed into a semantic group. The semantic groups were identified based on a qualitative analysis of the key word lists. The identification of semantic groups and the division of key words into positive and negative, allowed the lexical demarcation of the business world to be made.

4. IS THERE SUCH A THING AS BUSINESS ENGLISH LEXIS?

The answer to this question must be 'yes', but it must also be a qualified 'yes'. Business English does not exist as a separate entity of its own using entirely its own lexis. It is, like all specialist lexes, tied to the general language that goes to form the most frequent words used in the language. In the list of the 100 most frequent words found in the BEC, only seven words can be found that could be thought of as business-related. These are shown in Table 1 below. In total, when added together, their frequency in the BEC amounts to 14,489 instances, representing only 1.41% of the total corpus. It may look on the basis of these results that, in terms of frequency of use, there is no readily definable lexis of Business English.

Table 1 Business-Related Words Found in the Top 100 Most Frequent Words in the Lemmatised BEC

N	WORD	BEC Freq.	BEC %	LEMMAS
38	COMPANY	2 934	0.29	companies (1092)
41	BUSINESS	2 837	0.28	businesses (287)
54	MARKET	2 336	0.23	markets (469), marketing (469), marketed (10)
56	WORK	2 234	0.22	works (226), worked (134), working (680)
84	SERVICE	1 461	0.14	services (641), servicing (43), serviced (5)
89	PRODUCT	1 385	0.14	products (644)
94	PRICE	1 302	0.13	prices (417), pricing (69), priced (20)

However, whilst pure frequency of lexis can be useful in linguistic analysis (Francis & Sinclair 1994) it is not the only criterion by which a specialist variety of language can be identified. It is argued here that a more accurate picture of both specialist languages in general, and Business English lexis in particular, can be gained by analysis of words that occur *significantly more often or less* in a particular linguistic area, in comparison to general language usage, rather than by looking at words that have a high occurrence in terms of overall frequency. These words have been termed *key words* (Scott 1997, 1999).

4.1 Positive key words in the BEC

Tribble (1998: 7) noted that 'The first feature you notice when comparing a keyword list with a frequency list for the same data is that they are usually very different'. This is true of the key word list gained from the BEC. The top 100 positive key word list is presented in Table 2, excluding the non-business lexis and showing only the 49 clearly *business-related* words.

There are at least two striking differences between the BEC frequency list and the key word list - *number* and *content*. In the top 100 *frequency* list only seven words were found that were clearly business-related. In the *key word* list, 49 words were found to be business-related. The content of the lists also differs: the frequency list is full of function words (e.g. *the, and, but, because*) and delexicalised verbs (e.g. *get, go, know*) with only a very small number (nine) of lexical, meaning-carrying words (*company, year, business, market, people, service, product, price, system*). The key word list, in contrast, displays almost totally lexical, meaning-carrying words. In addition to these words with a high business-related meaning, a group of words - sub-business words[2] - excluded from the list due to not being pure business words, are words that could be intuitively expected to be found in a business environment, for example, *fax, billion, global, project, performance, year, rate, agreement, group, offer and growth.*

Table 2 Top 100 BEC Positive Key Word List - Business-Related Words Only

N	Word	BEC Freq.	BEC %	BNS Freq.	BNC %	Keyness Log L.
1	BUSINESS	2 837	0.28	542	0.03	3 557.7
2	COMPANY	2 934	0.29	782	0.04	3 118.6
3	MARKET	2 336	0.23	831	0.04	2 056.1
4	CUSTOMER	1 199	0.12	147		1 763.0
6	PRODUCT	1 385	0.14	412	0.02	1 377.2
7	SALE	1 210	0.12	343	0.02	1 239.4
9	MANAGEMENT	973	0.10	279	0.01	989.6
10	PRICE	1 302	0.13	586	0.03	941.5
11	FINANCIAL	780	0.08	237	0.01	765.0
12	BANK	940	0.09	379	0.02	749.0
14	SERVICE	1 461	0.14	916	0.05	728.7
15	STOCK	889	0.09	350	0.02	722.5
16	ORDER	1 224	0.12	681	0.03	709.0
17	EXECUTIVE	529	0.05	86		707.3
18	CONTRACT	656	0.06	183		678.3
19	CLIENT	535	0.05	126		607.4
21	CONTRACTOR	326	0.03	16		582.3
23	MANAGER	742	0.07	317	0.02	562.4
25	SELLER	298	0.03	12		546.6
26	INVESTMENT	577	0.06	185		546.2
27	SHARE	1 148	0.11	762	0.04	528.8
29	COST	1 127	0.11	747	0.04	520.2
33	PROFIT	799	0.08	429	0.02	482.0
34	SELL	789	0.08	419	0.02	481.8
42	CORPORATE	277	0.03	33		410.6
44	BUYER	292	0.03	42		407.9
45	CREDIT	392	0.04	110		403.8

[2] The term *sub-business* words is used here to describe words that appear in the background of business, but are not pure business words themselves. They often take on different meanings or usage when appearing in the Business English environment as opposed to their use in general English.

N	Word	BEC Freq.	BEC %	BNS Freq.	BNC %	Keyness Log L.
46	INDUSTRY	712	0.07	404	0.02	402.8
47	SUPPLIER	288	0.03	44		393.9
49	BUDGET	437	0.04	152		390.7
52	ACCOUNT	859	0.08	593	0.03	373.4
54	DISTRIBUTOR	218	0.02	16		363.5
55	DELIVERY	291	0.03	56		363.4
56	CASH	384	0.04	124		361.7
58	COMPPANY'S	263	0.03	45		344.7
63	DIRECTOR	541	0.05	289	0.01	328.2
68	SHAREHOLDER	286	0.03	73		311.1
72	INVESTOR	248	0.02	51		300.7
74	EMPLOYEE	307	0.03	94		299.5
78	INVOICE	182	0.02	17		287.8
82	PAYMENT	321	0.03	115		280.8
83	TAX	629	0.06	427	0.02	280.3
84	TRADE	696	0.07	509	0.03	276.3
86	OFFICE	651	0.06	461	0.02	272.1
88	ENGINEER	368	0.04	163		269.9
89	MEETING	739	0.07	575	0.03	264.1
90	FIRM	466	0.05	265	0.01	262.9
91	FINANCE	298	0.03	117		242.7
96	PURCHASE	289	0.03	117		229.4
97	EXPENSE	236	0.02	73		228.7

The difference between the frequency and key word lists is summarized in the table below:

Table 3 Differences in the Top 100 Frequency/Key Word Lists of the BE

Top 100 frequent words in the BEC	Top 100 key words in the BEC
7 pure business-related words	49 pure business-related words
virtually no sub-business lexis	some sub-business lexis
higher number of function words	lower number of function words
abundant delexicalised language	little delexicalised language

Key words thus sit on top of, and are supported by, general language. They can be seen as a separate, but not independent, set of lexis bound to the situations and activities of business.

4.2 Key word analysis

Initially, it was planned to analyse only the most 'key' key words found in the BEC, i.e. those words that are presented above as being the most 'key' words of Business English. However, a superficial analysis was enough to see that the words could be categorised into semantic sets - that is, the words seemed to fall mainly into a limited number of semantic categories.[3] It was therefore decided to assign all the key words gained into these semantic sets.[4] There were in total 1,611 key words remaining after the clean-up process. Of these, 925 were positive key words and 686 were negative. Whilst this was a manageable number for manual analysis it was felt that the semantic groups the words could be assigned to would become too large to handle easily, so the *positive*, and then *negative* key word sets were first assigned to their appropriate word classes. *noun, verb, adjective, noun/verb, noun/adjective, verb/adjective, noun/verb/adjective* and *-ly adverbs*.

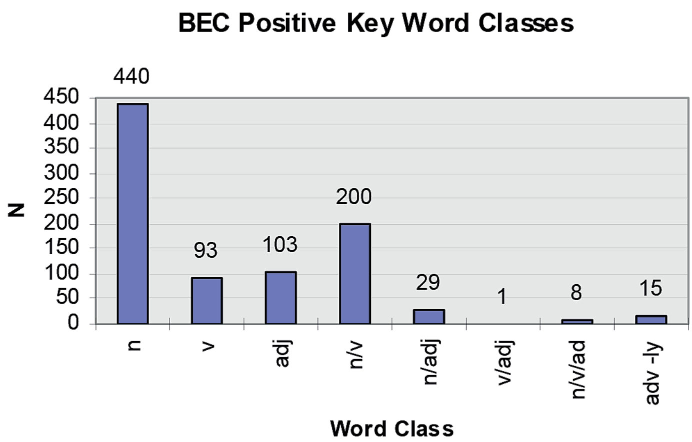
4.3 Positive key word analysis

For each of these grammatical classes a semantic analysis was conducted. Here, the results are confined to only the 'nouns' section.

3 This was not without difficulties as will be seen later on, but did provide an approach that would enable both easier analysis and pedagogical application.

4 Berber Sardinha (1999) discussed how key words can be used in text analysis and suggested two main ways of obtaining a representative sample of key words - either by using the *majority* of key words gained (50%+1), or by statistically determining a *significant* sub-set (1999: 4-6). For work on the BEC it was decided to take *all* the key words into the analysis, in order to provide as broad a picture of Business English lexis as possible.

Table 4 Positive Key Words Grammatical Categorisation



As can be seen from the Table 4 above, there were 440 positive key nouns, and it was possible to divide them into ten semantic groups. The semantic categories identified are shown in the diagram below.

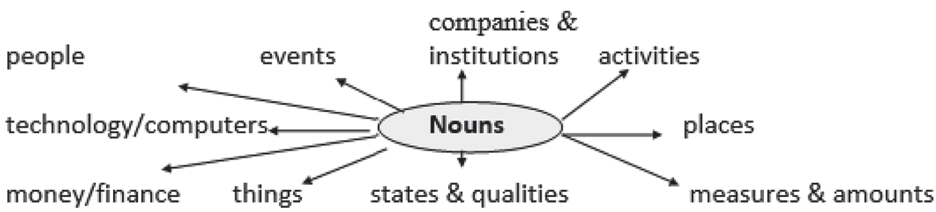


Fig. 1 Semantic noun categories of BEC key words

Four initial points can be made about these key nouns: they displayed a remarkable business focus; they were tangible as opposed to abstract; they tended to be impersonal rather than personal; and they were positive in connotation as opposed to negative. Now each category is discussed in detail.

1. *People*: The most key examples from this category included *customer, management, executive, contractor, manager, seller, buyer, supplier, distributor, director* and *shareholder*, and the homogeneity of the group was quite remarkable. Out of the 67 people or groups of people referred to in the key word list, only nine (13% of people found) could be considered as

not being directly involved with the business world: *allies, attendees, loser, guy, cavalry, prosecutors, chef, neighbours, maker*, and some of these would not be seen as particularly out of place in business (*chef, loser, attendees* and perhaps, unfortunately, *prosecutors*). It must be stressed here that *all* the people found in the key word list were categorised here, not just the business-related people. The list thus quite clearly delineates the people, or groups of people, involved in business from those not.[5] This will become more apparent when analysis of the negative key words is completed.

2. *Companies & institutions*: There were 36 references (8%) amongst the key word nouns to companies/institutions representing a distinctly recognisable semantic group. Key examples from this category were *company, industry, organisation, airline, telecom, plc, EU, subsidiary, Inc* and *consultancy*. Two points need to be raised here. Firstly, the significance of this category being found at all - it is clearly indicative of the business bias of the key words and, secondly, the relative homogeneity of the institutions found - the institutions computed are mostly business-related. The only totally non-business word found in the list was *faculty*, and that was one of the least 'key' key words in the set. The abbreviation *EU* could also be considered to be non-business, but it has been at least partially mentioned in the corpus in relation to business in Europe. A sample can be seen below, showing *EU* surrounded by business-related language:

N	Concordance
4	ries - such as Canada and New Zealand - outside the EU. Inflation targeting gives the monetary authorities
5	g themselves with accession and the operation of the EU and Community's principles. The EP is playing a
6	m process and which are, therefore, further away from EU membership; 4. Calls on the Commission to
7	not diverge wildly from BT1. Also, as I am outside the EU, I don't think VAT is applicable. I'll keep in touc
8	nt line. Security aspects CCEE accession to the EU will de facto involvetheir active participation in th
9	sufficiently close to the average of the best performing EU countries. As far as the exchange rate is concer

3. *Activities*: There were 28 words assigned (6% of nouns) to this category and the most key activities found included *business, delivery, transmission, development, production* and *communication*. In this category there were few purely business activities - *business*, *administration* and *takeover* being the only clear examples (10% of the sample) - but the remainder (25 words - 90%) were words referring to activities that could be thought of as being in the background of running a business, for example, *delivery, development, competition, administration*.

[5] This is not to say that the list provided by the key word analysis is exhaustive of all people concerned with business, but that of the people that it found, the vast majority are clearly related to business.

4. *Things*: This was a large category (151 words - 34%) and displayed a very strong emphasis on tangible items. The number of tangibles was by far the largest (127 words - 84% of the category sample) and included words such as *product, auto, vehicle*. The more abstract words were much fewer (24 instances - 16% of the category sample), and included *opportunity, culture, scope*, *solution* and *basis*.[6] This is an interesting category in that it can be seen as a category that shows the *what* of what can be found in the business world, both in concrete and abstract senses. It included words that could intuitively be expected to be in the background of running a business, e.g. *opportunity, segment, sector, information, unit* and *capability*, whilst words found here that could not be related to the business world in any reasonable way were *pets, membrane* (actually used in the corpus when describing a product) and *souvenir*.

5. *States & qualities*: The states and qualities found here were overwhelmingly positive, including examples such as *growth, skill, leadership, competence, excellence, commitment, improvement, stability, success, strength* and *efficiency*. This was contrasted by a much smaller number of negatives - the only overtly negative words were *debt, loss, liability, inflation, slowdown, downside* and *insolvency*. Thus, out of 43 nouns in the category, only seven were negative in meaning (16% of the group), whilst 36 (84% of the group) were either overtly positive, or at least neutral. Once again, the relative homogeneity of the words found is striking - they are all words that could be expected to be found in a business environment.

6. *Measures & amounts*: The words in this category are words that refer to quantities and measurement, for example, of money - *billion, million, trillion* - and time - *year, month* and *week*. It is a small category, only 12 instances (2% of key nouns). The category indicates a focus in business on large numbers, for example, in terms of money, only the very high-end numbers are included as being key (*million, billion, trillion*).

It could be deduced from this, that lower-end numbers - the tens and hundreds - are used equally in both the business and non-business world, and the business world deals more with very large numbers. Examples of these high-end numbers in relation to money, taken from the BEC, are shown below:

[6] Formal division into tangible and abstract was not without problems as some words, e.g. *relationship*, could fit to one or the other category. The observations noted, therefore, are based on an intuitive impression of the words gained.

N	Concordance
714	ontributor to operating income with an increase of $9.7 million. Net income for the year ended December 31,
715	its phenomenal growth, with turnover increasing from £1 million to £350 million in eight years. And with a foreca
716	ontributor to operating income with an increase of $9.7 million. Net income for the year ended December 31,
717	PBT was £7.8 million compared with a budget of £7.0 million mainly due to the favourable mix of sales and be
718	elow amortized cost compared with an excess of $18.8 million at December 31, 1993. Consolidated investme
719	year end gearing was 12% with net borrowings of £253 million and we expect gearing levels to rise marginally

7. *Places*: Sixteen 'places' (3% of key nouns) were included in this category, showing the key places where business takes place. The majority of the words (9 instances - 56% of category) refer to places belonging to the business world, e.g. *office, premises, department, division, boardroom, depot, marketplace*, and the remainder point to more general aspects, e.g. *street's, country, world's*, but need not be considered out of place in a business context. The word *hotel* is also featured here.

8. *Events*: In all, 23 events[7] (5% of nouns) were included in this category showing events that are central to business life. They included a high number of purely business or work events: *sale, merger, bankruptcy, transaction, arbitration, demerger, promotion, privatisation, deregulation* and several less directly business-related events, e.g. *appraisal, valuation, termination, retention*. This group is notable for the positive/neutral aspects of its lexis, with only one overtly negative word - *bankruptcy* - identified.

9. *Money/finance*: This was a relatively large category[8] (40 words - 9% of the key noun sample) and was notable for the impersonal quality of the lexis found. The words were centrally concerned with the financial aspects of running a business, e.g. *expense, earnings, revenue, margin, salary* and *equity*. There is, therefore, little in this group relating to the individual person, with words being largely descriptions of financial aspects of companies, for example, *payroll, cashflow, turnover* and *maturities*.

[7] This category overlaps to some extent with the *activities* category, but has here been treated as a separate entity in itself. There are several 'activities' that can also be taken as 'events', e.g. *delivery* and *installation*, for example. The designations into the two categories rested on intuition and are therefore potentially flawed, but the categories themselves are valid: *session, merger, valuation*, for example, are clearly events, and *distribution* and *competition* are clearly activities. It is possible, however, that some of the words assigned to one or the other could be interchanged (*delivery* and *installation*, for example).

[8] Other finance-related words were also placed into other categories, for example, *bankruptcy* into the *events* section. It was admittedly difficult at times to know where to best place some of the words.

10. *Technology/computers*: Words found here (21 words - 4% of key nouns) reflect the importance of computers and technology in modern business life - *Internet, PC, software, browser, web* - and also that fact that there are many high profile businesses that deal in these areas.

5. DISCUSSION

As a result of the above analysis it can be seen that the positive key words found in the BEC fall, to large degree, into a limited number of recurring semantic groups. These semantic groups span grammatical word classes, and though distinct in their extremes, are fluid at their boundaries with words sometimes being able to appear in one group or the other. In all, the lexis of Business English found here presents a clear picture of the world of business - its people, its institutions, its activities and events. At the same time, however, 'neutral' lexis is also used, pointing to the fact that Business English should not be considered only in these limited terms, but also as being linked to non-business language. Thus, business English lexis can be seen as one of a number of pools of specific lexes, fed by the broad river of general English, but also possessing a diversity and eco-system unique to itself. These ideas can be seen in Fig. 2 below.

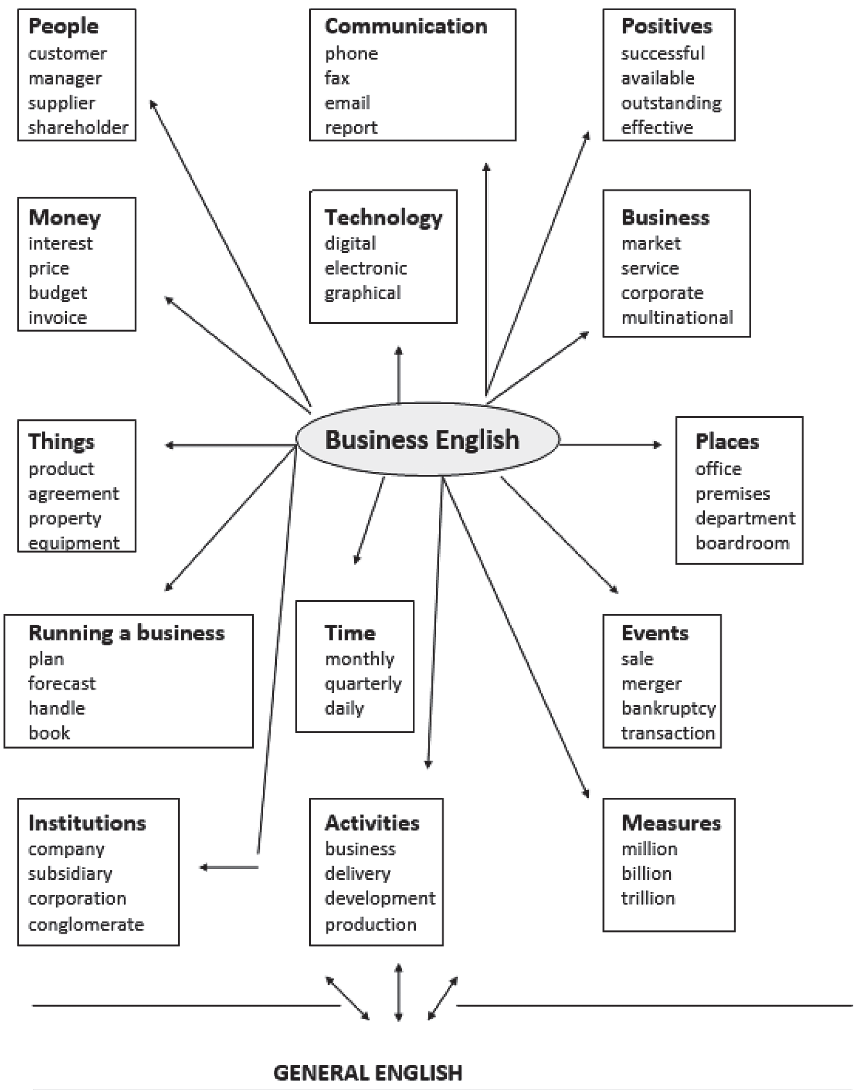


Fig. 2 The main semantic groups that go to form key Business English lexis

6. NEGATIVE KEY WORD ANALYSIS

Negative key words represent those words that were found to occur with an unusual *infrequency* in the BEC. They were, as with the positive key words, first divided into word class groups along the lines of Ljung (1990).

Each category was then further divided into semantic and lexical sets. Again, as an example, only the ‘nouns’ category will be discussed. It is important to remember here that the term *negative* key word does not mean that a key word has negative connotations, but rather that it occurred in the BEC *significantly less* than would be expected (to a pre-set statistical requirement) when compared to general English.

6.1 Negative nouns

The differences between the lexical groups found in the positive key nouns and the negative were stark. In all, eleven semantic categories were identified, and despite the fact that several of these eleven categories found were the same as those for the positive - *people, institutions, activities & events, things, states & qualities*, and *places* - the content of the categories was radically different. Additionally, five new categories were identified - *food & drink, house & home, time, earth & nature* and *parts of the body*. The semantic groups are shown below in Fig. 3, with the new groups in italics:

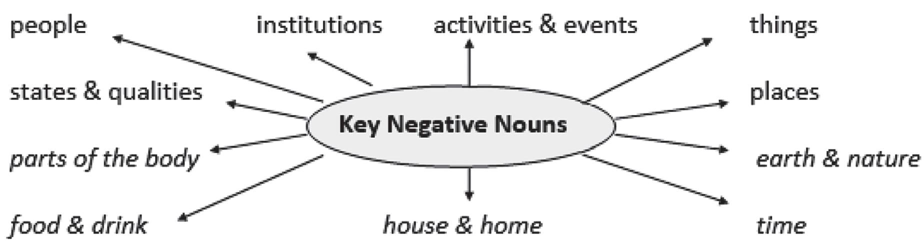


Fig. 3 Semantic noun categories of BEC negative key words

Each of the categories will now be discussed and compared to lexis found in the *positive* key words.

People: In this category - the largest - a clear divide between the business and the non-business world is statistically marked out by the key word analysis. Forty words were found that were related to people (20% of all negative key nouns)[9] and of these, certain sub-semantic sets could be distinguished. Firstly, there are many words concerned with family - *mum, mother, child, dad, son, brother, daughter, sister, daddy, husband, wife, aunt* - and there was a smaller set linked to people - *man, child, boy, girl, lady, baby, lad.*

[9] The word *God* has been included here, not because God is considered a person per se, but (without going into a prolonged philosophical debate) a person-like figure.

Other groups focused on royalty/aristocracy: *lord, king, queen*; on religion: *god, Christian, soul*; and on professions: *soldier, artist, officer, student, waiter, MP, secretary*. Whereas the *positive* group of people was virtually all business-related, this group had no obvious business connections except, perhaps, *secretary*. Even the professions that were included here were non-business, e.g. *soldier, artist, officer, MP*. The semantic divide is shown the diagram below:

Negative Key Words: People	**Positive Key Words: People**
man *God*	executive contractor shareholder
mum *mother*	management customer
child *dad* *daddy*	supplier distributor director

Fig. 4 People featured in positive and negative key words

Institutions: There were only seven instances here (3% of negative key nouns) *church, army, hospital, council, EC* and also business-related institutions *union* and *FT*.[10] The abbreviation *EC* is now less used than *EU*, which was a *positive* key word, and thus appeared more in the older BNC (i.e. the BEC is more modern than the BNC Sampler corpus and so uses the abbreviation *EU* more frequently than the older *EC*).

Food & drink: A small (10 instances - 5% of negative key nouns) but distinct semantic set - *fig, egg, chocolate, tea, bread* and *dinner* are some examples.

Activities & events: The activities and events found here (10 instances - 5% of negative key nouns) mostly relate to everyday life - *birthday, Christmas, marriage, election* and *prayer* being examples. Intuitively they feel like those events and activities that affect people personally, and occur outside their work. Again, they contrast with the strong business focus of the *positive* key words such as *business, delivery, sale* and *production*.

House & home: Continuing with the personal theme is this group (15 instances - 7% of negative key nouns), in which the words are all related to the house, and things found in the home: *curtain, bed, door, garden, home, bedroom, toilet, bathroom* and *kitchen* being prime examples.

[10] *FT* is probably included as being key here because of its high use in the BNC.

Things: This contained the most diverse group of nouns (29 instances - 14% of negative key nouns) and there were no business-related words. The group included abstract nouns such as *expression, intelligence*, *behaviour, character* and *preference* and concrete nouns such as *ball, sprinkler* and *railway*.

States & qualities: In the positive key word section, this category contained words mostly positive in connotation such as *growth, skill, leadership* and *competence*. The words found here (only 11 in all - 5% of negative key nouns) in the negative key words seem to mostly connect to important ethical questions - those in some way relating to the meaning of life - *death, life, war, peace*, *truth,*[11] *age* and *faith*. The other words found here were *motion, length*, *unity* and *joy*.

Earth & nature: This category further lexically divides the non-business and business worlds with a stress on substances, e.g. *diamond, ash* and *mercury*, on animals, *horse* and *cat*, and on nature, e.g. *tree, river* and *leaf*.

Two further small categories included were *time* (8 instances) and *parts of the body* (11 instances). In the *time* category, which included words such as *night, morning, century* and *summer*, the most interesting find was that only two days were mentioned - *Saturday* and *Sunday* - the two days of the week when the business world traditionally rests. Thus, the key word function statistically confirms what would ordinarily be only intuitively assumed. The *parts of the body* category had 11 words including *leg, mouth, blood, skin, nose, tooth* and *heart*. The final category - *places* - contrasts with the corresponding category in the positive key words as can be seen in Fig. 5 below. The negative key words are linked to town: *library, ward, district*; countryside: *bay, forest, cottage, hill, sea*; and even above: *heaven*.

Negative Key Words: Places			**Positive Key Words: Places**		
town	*county*	*village*	office	premises	department
ward	*palace*	*library*	division	boardroom	depot
opera	*prison*	*castle*		marketplace	

Fig. 5 Places featured in positive and negative key words

[11] It is interesting that the word 'truth' occurs far less in business life than in non-business life.

It can be seen from the comparison of the positive and negative key word nouns that a firm divide is established between the business and the non-business world, in terms of the lexis and related concepts that are found there and the lexis that is not.

7. KEY WORDS AND THE 'WORLD OF BUSINESS'

Key words - the approach used in this paper to identify core business lexis - is based on ideas that go back to the 1930s and J.R. Firth. Stubbs (1996) refers to Firth's (1935, 1957) notion of *focal* or *pivotal* words, and both Stubbs (1995) and Scott (1997) refer to later work on key words and the meaning of vocabulary done by Williams (1976). Williams' interest in vocabulary had been aroused by his experience of returning to Cambridge University after a prolonged spell in the army, serving in World War 2. On his return he found it difficult to fit in, and when discussing this situation with an old colleague who was in a similar position, both men commented that the new people at the university 'don't speak the same language'. This was not meant literally, of course, but that, as Williams noted, 'we have different immediate values or different kinds of valuation, or that we are aware, often intangibly, of different formations and distributions of energy and interest. In such a case, each group is speaking its native language, but its uses are significantly different' (Williams 1976: 9). Williams was, therefore, interested in the meanings of words and how they have changed over time and the differing connotations they have. He believed that these *keywords* helped to define culture - the changes in their meanings embodied the changes in society. Williams' starting point was his own intuition and he did not have available the computerised corpora now in use to back up his ideas. His belief was that the keywords pointed to social attitudes - these keywords illuminated and shed light on the cultural world. In this paper, the key words, albeit arrived at by different means, point not to culture in general, but to the semantic environments of business - they are indicative of and embody the 'culture' of business.

This idea of a 'world of business' is not a new one. Pickett (1986b), suggested that business language was 'a linguistic world of 'forms and frameworks' of conventionalised transactions, governed by the courtesies and formalities of business life' (1986b: 2). The key word analysis has found that this 'world' is clearly marked out in terms of the lexis used, i.e. what lexis is used and, conversely, what lexis is not used, or used to a much lesser extent. The table below shows how the world of Business English lexis is distinguished from the lexis of the everyday world:

Table 5 B usiness Lexis vs Non-Business Lexis: Positive and Negative Key Words

Business Lexis (positive key words)	**Non-Business Lexis (negative keywords)**
1. **People**: from the business world: *customer, contractor, manager, seller, buyer*	1. **People**: family, royalty, domestic relations: *man, mum, wife, dad, baby, Queen*
2. **Institutions**: Companies and business institutions: *company, industry, airline, telecom*	2. **Institutions**: Societal: *church, army, hospital, council*
3. **Things**: business-related, concrete: *product, property, equipment*	3. **Things**: diverse: *horse, cat, diamond, glass, river* abstract: *expression, intelligence, preference*
4. **Places**: Business-related: *office, department, boardroom*	4. **Places**: House and home: *curtain, bedroom, bathroom, kitchen* Countryside: *bay, hill, sea, forest*
5. **Days of the week**: Not key	5. **Days of the week**: Saturday, Sunday
6. **States & qualities**: business-related and positive: *growth, stability, leadership, competence*	6. **States & qualities**: ethical questions / meaning of life *death, life, war, peace, truth, age, peace*
7. **Dynamic *public* verbs**: *sell, manage, manufacture, deliver, confirm*	7. **Personal and interpersonal *private* verbs**: *know, see, pray, feel, die, lie, marry*
8. **Positive impersonal adjectives**: *new, best, successful, available, relevant*	8. **Positive and negative personal adjectives**: *nice, lovely, beautiful* *bloody, dead, dark*
9. **Money**: focus on money/finance: *cashflow, VAT, GDP, capital, earnings*	9. **Moneys**: No/little mention of money/ finance - only mentions: *quid* and *pound*
10. **Activities**: business-related: *investment, payment, development, production*	10. **Activities**: personal, family related: *birthday, Christmas, marriage, prayer*

It is important when viewing the demarcation of business lexis from non-business lexis, however, that the key words are seen in terms of *tendencies* rather than *absolutes*. The key word analysis shows which words occur with unusually high frequency, not that they are the only words that occur. It is important to note that the lexis found amongst the positive key words is the *only* lexis of Business English, but rather that these words are much more likely to be used in a business environment than other words. However, the semantic delineation formed by the key word statistic between the business and non-business world is sharp and can, in general terms, be seen along a series of dichotomous axes: *business* vs *society*, *positive* and *shallow states*

& qualities vs *conflicting* and more *philosophical states & qualities*, *emotive* vs *non-emotive* and *dynamic actions* vs *reflection*. These are presented in the chart below:

High frequency in Business lexis		**Low frequency in business lexis**
business	------------------->	society
positive	------------------->	positive & negative
shallow	------------------->	deep/philosophical
dynamic	------------------->	reflective
non-emotive	------------------->	emotive

Fig. 6 The axes that delineate Business English lexis

8. CONCLUSION

Analysis in this paper has shown that there exists a clearly definable set of lexis that is statistically linked to Business English with a one in a million chance of error. This lexis is not defined by frequency of occurrence, though some of the words are indeed very frequent, but by unusual occurrence - either words that occur far *more often* in Business English than would be expected in general English, or words that occur *far less* in Business English lexis than would be expected in general English. When talking about key words it is important to remember that they sit on top of a vast amount of 'ordinary' language - the same language, in fact - as general English. Thus, Business English lexis does not exist as a separate entity of its own, but feeds from and to general language. However, Business English lexis displays several characteristics typical to itself.

The lexis of Business English is, to a large degree, formed from a limited number of semantic groups that create a 'meaning world' for business. This world is populated by business people, companies, institutions, hierarchy, money, business events, places of business and is marked by its positive, shallow, dynamic and non-emotive lexis. It is a world that is concerned with concrete entities, methods of communication and of quantity and measure. Conversely, when considering negative key words, the business world is clearly separated from the personal - it is *not* about society, family, house & home, personal activities, weekends and distinctly negative states. Lexis that reflects all that is deep, reflective and emotive tends to be pushed away by the business world. It is not a world for philosophical debate, but a world for practical action in relation to concrete entities. All this may possibly be deduced by intuition. What this study has done has shown that these intuitive thoughts can be backed up by statistical data, and that the key words gained from the BEC fall into clearly defined semantic categories. A final word of caution, however, can be made. The semantic categories identified, and the words' allocation to them, was not rigid and all-inclusive. This paper does not state these were the only semantic sets found, but that they were prominent and the words displayed tendencies to fall into one or other of the groups.

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Crossing lines: Finnish and non-Finnish students' cultural identities and *Finnish Nightmares*

Bridget Palmer

1. INTRODUCTION

In this era, where intercultural competence has emerged as a 21st-century skill, issues of cultural belonging and identity are increasingly being examined (Ananiadou & Claro 2009; Geisinger 2016). This is the case even as cultures are still often broadly described using stereotypical behavioral traits (Andersen, Hecht, Hoobler & Smallwood 2003). A complete, nuanced portrait of cultural identity in today's multicultural and multinational world can be difficult to obtain given its highly personal, and personalized, nature. Such a complex cultural identity may not be easily confined to an axis, chart, grid, circle, or other static form, many of which have been used and continue to be used to codify cultural identity. Hofstede (1980), for example, has been developing and refining four (later expanded to five, and then six) core cultural dimensions for use in comparing different countries, originally for business contexts, over the last forty years. The cultural anthropologist Hall (1989) described traits and behaviors as belonging to either high- or low-context cultures. Lewis (2015) proposes an adaptable LMR model, which categories cultures as Linear, Multi, or Reactive. As they categorize and systematize culture, these various taxonomies seek to "keep a wave upon the sand" and do succeed to some extent, more so for some purposes than others.

These systems for recognizing, identifying, and describing stereotypical or commonly held cultural traits are therefore valuable but limited. They restrict and prescribe, even as the people they are applied to act in unpredictable or nuanced ways (Guest 2002). Choosing to see cultural identities as static lists of behaviors is "an all-pervasive phenomenon that affects gender, class, race, language, religion, nationality, and ethnicity. We stereotype others, and others stereotype us. We are all victims as well as victimizers" (Kumaravadivelu 2003: 715).

Karoliina Korhonen's *Finnish Nightmares* comic series portrays Finnish cultural stereotypes through its main character, Matti, who avoids small talk and eye contact and appreciates considerable personal space. The Finnish Nightmares series has become a sensation not only in Finland but around the world, with hundreds of thousands of followers on social media, airport gift shop products, and two published books, one of which has been translated into Chinese. However, Korhonen's Finnish Nightmares has drawn criticism from those who say that Matti's stereotypically Finnish behavior does not accurately represent Finns, and is even typical of many non-Finns. (Korhonen 2016b).

Korhonen's *Finnish Nightmares* comic series can be interpreted as a medium that prescribes stereotypical Finnish behavior as conceived and observed by the author (though she herself rejects this oversimplification). However, if *Finnish Nightmares* is treated not as a codified system of cultural identity set in stone, but rather as a constant prompt from which a dynamic response can be obtained, it could perhaps be used to fill in the details of a complex 21st-century cultural identity for Finns and non-Finns alike.

Korhonen's work was used in this manner in the current research, serving as a mirror into which Finns and non-Finns peered and then answered the question: do I share Matti's nightmares, and what does that say about my cultural identity?

The conclusions of this research will add to the emerging understanding of cultural identity as a complex, dynamic entity, rather than a static, predictable set of traits based on nationality. In the context of language teaching at the University of Turku, this research will be helpful in calibrating expectations for staff and students, both Finnish and international, as they navigate a classroom context that may be unexpectedly culturally complex.

2. METHODS

This research was conducted during the Autumn 2018 semester at the University of Turku in Finland. Fifteen students from the course KIEN2033: Intercultural Communication met to discuss twenty panels from the Finnish Nightmares comic series. Five of the students were from Finland; the remaining ten students were from Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Japan, Korea, Russia, and Vietnam. Nine of the international students had been in Finland for three months; the tenth had been in Finland for two years.

The discussion format was unstructured: comic panels were shown one by one to the participants and they could respond freely to the panel as well as to comments made by other participants. Not all participants chose to respond to every panel, and only the eight most-discussed panels are included in the results.

Direct quotes used in the results were transcribed in real-time. The names of the participants are not used; rather, they are identified by their nationality. This strategy is used not to be reductive, but to allow the reader to highlight instances in which a person from a given nationality agreed or disagreed with existing cultural stereotypes and therefore illustrate how real-life cultural identities may be surprising and nuanced.

3. RESULTS

Each figure shows a *Finnish Nightmares* comic panel from Korhonen (2016a). Participant responses to each comic panel follow.

Figure 1 Matti avoids his neighbor.

The panel featuring Matti avoiding his neighbor by waiting to leave his own apartment until the hallway is empty prompted strong responses among the participants of all nationalities. Some of the Finnish students expressed frustration with Matti's behavior in this panel ("if I want to leave, I leave"), as this panel is one of the most widely shared on social media and is therefore commonly referenced as stereotypical Finnish behavior. However, a Finnish student who identified with Matti's behavior contended that "stereotypes come from something. They don't just appear out of thin air. There is something that is true and people latch onto it."

Another Finnish student conceded, "I think it's true in general, but I don't do it. I just go out when I need to."

A German student confessed that "I didn't want to [encounter] my next-door neighbor...so if I heard him going out, I would just wait. It was better for both of us." To which a Finnish student replied, "I think you are more Finnish than me!"

Figure 2 A salesperson asks Matti if he needs help.

A Finnish student agreed with Matti's discomfort in this situation by explaining her preference that "if you need help, you go to ask for it." A French student similarly lamented that her "mother is on a first-name basis with a salesperson, so when I go in I'm really embarrassed. It's not good for them to know who I am." In general among the participants, there was a consensus that the act of a salesperson approaching a customer was somehow very American, and could come off as "high pressure."

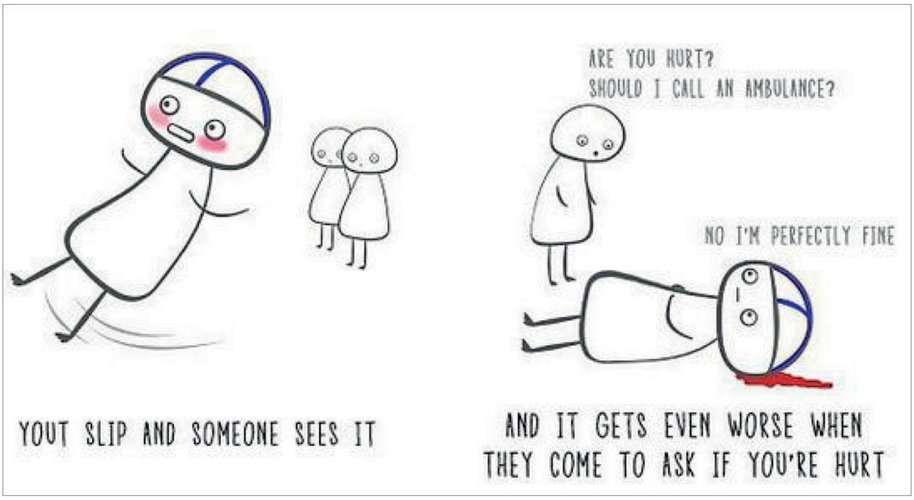

Figure 3 Matti falls down in public.

A Finnish student characterized this experience of Matti's as being near-universal in Finland, saying that "the first thing you think if you fall: did someone see?" Another Finnish student brought up possible differences in social standing or familiarity as having an effect on how such a situation would play out: "Other students seeing me doesn't bother me. Relatives would be worse, or someone who is from a different part of the world." The international students expressed their inclination to be the one trying to help: "I would of course ask if I can help" (German) or "if it's an old person I would help" (Belgian).

The German student further explained that "people in Germany don't care so much what the others think." A Russian student characterized such a society (where someone who fell might not receive help) as: "people always fall and...usually nobody comes and asks 'how are you?'"

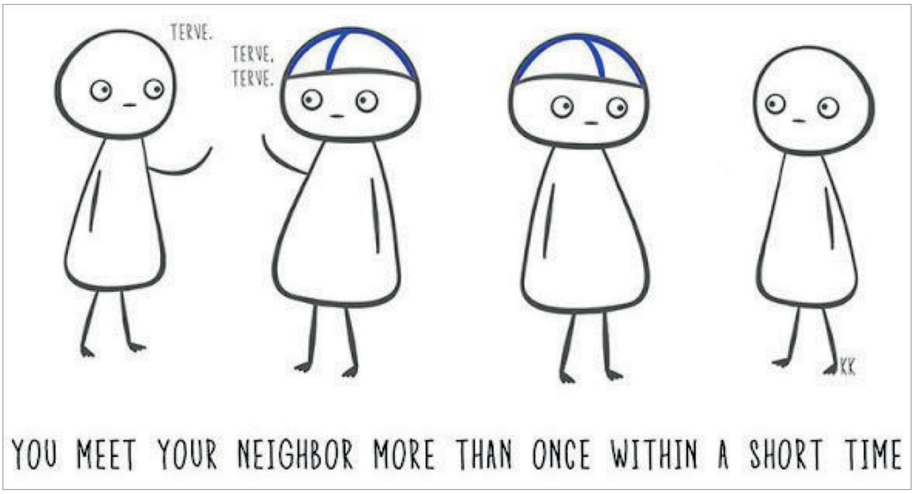

Figure 4 Matti sees his neighbor twice.

Most of the participants – Finnish and non-Finnish – expressed annoyance with the situation as experienced by Matti. However, the reasons for their annoyance differed. Some were annoyed at seeing the neighbor again within a short period of time, while others were annoyed when the neighbor didn't greet them the second time! A Finnish student took issue with Matti's behavior here and explained that "this is something I really hate. I really hate it when the neighbors don't say hi."

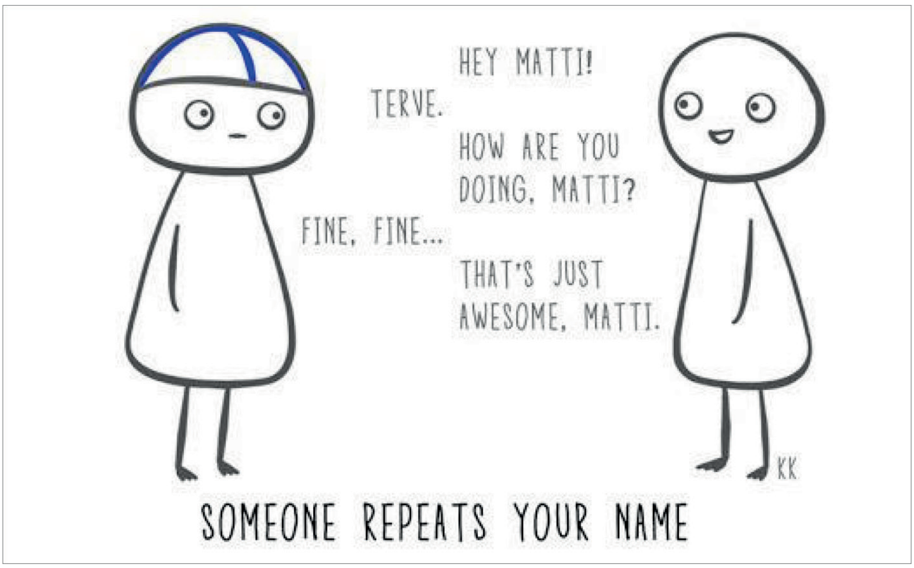

Figure 5 Someone repeats Matti's name.

The practice of repeating someone's name within a short conversation was another behavior identified by the students as being stereotypically American. In Finland, however, as a Finnish student explained "we can repeat 'you' for many hours without saying names." A French student even said she had noticed that "usually when we put the name of the people we are talking with [it] makes them more comfortable, but in Finland it makes them more uncomfortable."

Even though repeating someone's name was generally agreed to be an American cultural trait, most of the international students did not take issue with it beyond saying that it tended to sound like salesmanship. The Finnish students had stronger reactions, if on opposite sides of the spectrum. One said "it's kind of nice when people call me by name because Finnish people don't do that. When someone says [name], my heart is just warmed." Another disagreed: "'Hi' is ok. 'Hi, [name]' is ok. 'How are you, [name]?' crosses a line!"

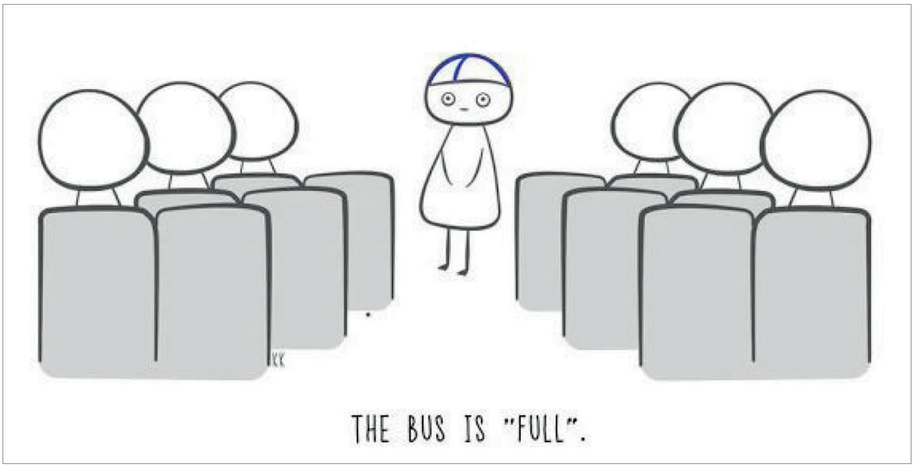

Figure 6 The bus is full.

A German student pointed out that her reaction to this panel has changed since being in Finland for three months. She now considers a bus full even when the seats are half-filled, whereas previously she would not have. She added: "now I realize I have become like that. When a girl sat next to me [once] I felt very uncomfortable." A Finnish student expressed relief that at least "on the train it's not that [stressful] because the seats are assigned," thereby seemingly placing the social burden of choosing to sit next to someone on an inanimate automated ticket kiosk.

However, this behavior was not universally agreed by participants to be only Finnish, as a French student explained: "ironically, I think it's less true in Finland than in France. In France, once even half are filled we would stand even if seats are free." And, another French student added, "most of the people are sitting close to the aisle." In nearby Belgium, however, "you will always have someone sitting next to you. It's so full. It will always be crowded." It was the same in the Czech Republic: "it's so crowded that you have to sit next to someone."

Figure 7 Matti forgets something at the store.

The experience of having to go back to a shop if something is forgotten was mostly discussed by the Finnish students. One explained it as, "I'm not ashamed so much as I don't want to go back there and I'm just too lazy. If it is something I really need to buy, I'll go back." Another Finn said they would "go to another shop," [with a third Finn adding that they "would go to a bigger shop – [one time] I went to Prisma three times [in the same day]."

One international student from France commented that the decision of whether to go back to the store or not would depend on the size of the shop and how much anonymity s/he could expect when going back.

Figure 8 Only one person can stand under the bus shelter.

The panel of Matti standing in the rain since one person is already under the bus shelter is another widely shared *Finnish Nightmares* example of stereotypical behavior. As such, it also inspired a strong reaction among participants, especially the Finnish ones. What is interesting about this is that it is also one of the most widely documented stereotypical Finnish behaviors on the internet in general, with imgur albums and reddit threads devoted to photos of this phenomenon happening in real life (see, for example, Toppo 2017).

During the discussion, a Finnish student who identified with Matti's stereotypically Finnish behavior explained that "[sharing with] one person might be ok if we are at opposite ends but if there are three people then I will stand outside." In Russia, as one student shared, "this bus stop would be fully crowded under the shelter. Everybody thinks about comfort first and crowdedness [sic] not at all."

A French student pointed out that this kind of behavior by Finns at a bus stop was confusing to an outsider considering the behavior of Finns at a sauna: "in the street I see you need personal space, but in the sauna you are so close together!"

4. DISCUSSION

As seen from the participants' discussion of *Finnish Nightmares* comic panels, cultural identity is indeed dynamic and hard to define. There was no panel where all the Finnish students agreed with Matti's behavior, and furthermore, no panel where all the international students disagreed with it. There were agreements and disagreements with Matti that zig-zagged across international borders, even among geographically and culturally close countries, and even within Finland's borders. Furthermore, individuals themselves did not entirely align or not align with Matti's stereotypically Finnish point of view – they could agree with some and not others.

Two participant comments can be highlighted. The first is from the Finnish student who began the discussion (looking at the panel of Matti hiding in his apartment) by saying that "stereotypes come from something. They don't just appear out of thin air. There is something that is true and people latch onto it." Stereotypes, long relied on by those wishing to simply and economically explain cultural features, do come from something. And that something may be frequently engaged-in behavior on the part of a majority of members of a particular cultural group, even if it is not universal. These stereotypes "[help] us reduce an unmanageable reality to a manageable label" (Kumaravadivelu 2003: 716).

The second comment that illustrates the dynamic nature of cultural identity is from a German student who, after three months in Finland, is surprised to realize that she has "become like that" – 'that' meaning 'engaging in stereotypically Finnish behavior such as deciding a bus is completely full if it is in fact half-full.' As Bourelle (2015) explains, people's life experiences necessarily inform their cultural identity, and they may pick up behaviors and attitudes from other cultures along the way.

5. CONCLUSION

Finnish and international staff and students at the University of Turku should be aware that previously held conceptions about the cultural characteristics of their colleagues, peers, and students may not match the complex and fluctuating realities of cultural identity. The 21st-century skill of intercultural communication requires developing an understanding that cultural identity is dynamic and nuanced, as illustrated by the reactions of Finnish and international students to comic panels from the *Finnish Nightmares* series.

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Creating a Blended Learning Model for Teaching Academic Presentations Skills to Doctoral Researchers

Kelly Raita

1. INTRODUCTION

The ability to present research effectively is an important transferable skill for doctoral students (Barrett & Liu 2016). According to Domain D of the Researcher Development Framework (Figure 1), researchers need to be aware of the appropriate channels to communicate and disseminate their research. They also need to be skilled at using these channels to 'engage, influence, and impact' a wide range of audiences formally and informally using different techniques and media (Vitae 2011). In response to this need, higher education institutions often arrange courses in academic presentation skills for researchers (Secker 2012). However, teaching presentation skills to researchers using traditional materials for a classroom setting can pose several major challenges.

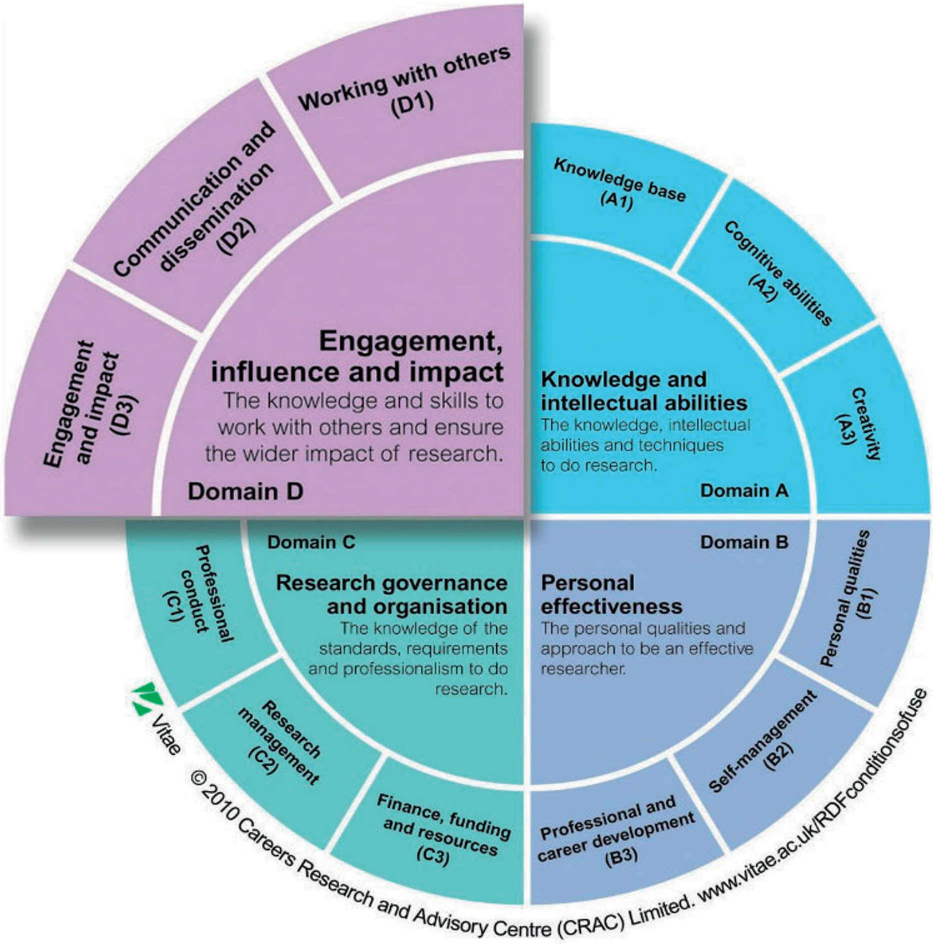

Figure 1: The Researcher Development Framework describes areas of knowledge, skills, behaviours and personal qualities of researchers across their career (Vitae 2011)

This article reports on a small-scale study to address the challenges experienced whilst teaching presentation skills to researchers in a traditional classroom setting. Based on the challenges, a blended model for the course was created and piloted to account for relevant academic course content and materials, the diversity of researchers, the danger of feedback saturation, the prerequisites of 21-century digital literacies and the emergence of new presentation formats. Little research has been conducted into academic presentations from the perspective of blended-learning models.

1.1 Content and Materials

Relevant content and quality (authentic) materials play a major role in teaching academic presentation skills to researchers. Nevertheless, materials often fail to account specifically for the structure and genre of academic, as opposed to general, presentations. In a study by Levrai and Bolster (2015), academic presentation materials were evaluated based on a criteria-driven approach and interviews with university lecturers about their interpretations of a successful academic presentation. Based on their study, a successful presentation was characterised as including references and being verifiable; citing sources, which were integrated in speech and in visuals; presenting solid research, borne of arguments; demonstrating knowledge and encouraging deeper discussion. Levrai and Bolster highlighted the importance of materials which characterize the structure and organisation of different presentation genres and which guide students on how to integrate sources and reference their presentations.

1.2 Diversity of Researchers

Supporting researchers is challenging as they are not a homogeneous group. In generic presentation skills courses, researchers commonly practice giving conference presentations after which they receive peer and teacher feedback. If the presentation is filmed, they also self-evaluate their performance using the recording. Although generic group training is efficient, it does not always provide appropriate support for the level and discipline-specific needs of researchers. This challenge is compounded when attempting to design personalised presentation skills courses with tailored content based on needs. Given the diversity of researchers, their knowledge, experience and skills often vary considerably depending on the presentation conventions of their discipline, their distinct identities as researchers, as well as their positions in the researcher lifecycle (Bent 2016). Researchers at the early stages of the research lifecycle lack data and experience, in contrast, to researchers engaged in the later stages who are potentially generating sophisticated data and developing theories that they need to test out based on robust research-orientated argumentation. Based on this, generic one-size-fits-all courses in presentation skills are ill-placed to meet the highly specific needs of researchers.

To address the diversity of researchers, a personalised, ‘boutique’ approach has been suggested by Secker (2012) as a useful format. The boutique model focuses on a learner-centric approach to teaching. Irrespective of the context of the learning and the delivery method the main focus is ‘customer-satisfaction'. Training and learning is designed to address learner needs and to create a more satisfying and fulfilling experience. However, adopting a 'boutique model' for the traditional classroom presentation skills course is not a clear-cut process. On the contrary, Powis (2012:18) has pointed out that it can represent:

> a loss real or perceived, of control in the teacher–learner relationship. It will certainly mean a questioning of delivery methods and perhaps a shift in emphasis away from classroom delivery to more learning experiences where the focus of teaching and learning is not a formal classroom situation but rather interaction with carefully designed learning environments (physical and virtual) accessing support as needed.

Therefore, a blended-learning design is a promising solution in that individual support can be supported by technology-rich resources on-line, and the classroom reserved for scaffolding communicative competence.

1.3 Timing and Feedback Saturation

Timing is also a challenge for the traditional presentation skills classroom, as the process can render most of the classroom passive in their roles as observers (audience) and evaluators (peer-feedback). This is particularly the case in traditional presentation classrooms where presenting a conference presentation is usually required in a course. Added to this is the extra time for responding to questions and receiving high-quality, peer and teacher feedback. In a group of twelve researchers, this process can account for seven full teaching hours within a course out of which an individual researcher will have had limited opportunities to speak. This heavy emphasis on giving feedback, although a valuable element of a vicarious process, can lead to 'feedback saturation' after watching several presentations during one sitting and over several lessons.

To address this challenge, collecting feedback via an on-line survey (Google survey) in real-time can save in-class time as well as provide immediate data for the presenter post-presentation. By designing the feedback surveys to reflect precisely the specific needs of a presentation format, for example the design of scientific (histology) images in a conference presentation, the process of giving feedback indirectly becomes a learning experience as it raises the awareness of the researcher providing the feedback. Added to this, different feedback forms can be used within the same presentation which focus on specific areas such as visuals, delivery, interaction, language, referencing. This approach can ensure, greater focus on academic integrity and combat feedback saturation by eliminating the 'one-size-fits all' feedback form for every presentation and allowing researchers to choose their feedback roles. Furthermore, the teacher receives all feedback comments and therefore can evaluate how well the course participants are achieving the learning outcomes based on the feedback they provide (or overlook). Giving feedback on the peer feedback allows the teacher to calibrate understanding of the feedback process and address areas of presentation skills that need scaffolding in future lessons.

1.4 Digital Literacy and New Presentation Formats

A further challenge for the traditional presentation classroom, is that new formats for presenting research are evolving rapidly. These formats often leverage digital technologies beyond the traditional conference face-to-face presentation format. According to the Digital Competence Framework for Educators (Redecker 2017) educators must empower their learners to communicate in digital environments by fostering effective, inclusive and innovative learning strategies. Most notably, educators need to blend learning activities, assignments and assessments so that learners develop the skills to effectively and responsibly use digital technologies to communicate, collaborate and participate. To do so, learning environments need to be designed so that they consciously incorporate activities in which learners must express themselves digitally and create digital content in different formats. In using digital formats, this also requires that learners are aware of copyright laws for digital content, as well as referencing sources (Redecker 2017).

Trends in presentation formats have also indicated that audiences are increasingly demanding quicker and more visually attractive presentations rather than a ‘death by PowerPoint’ experience. This increasing demand means that for a researcher to successfully present, nowadays it is no longer enough that they are well versed in the traditional conference presentation format. Instead, they need to work with ‘ninja-like’ agility to adapt their research stories to a wider array of formats, for example Pecha Kucha, video abstracts and 3MT, and master the demands of digital and analogue settings. Researchers must also be well-versed in the technical, legal, academic, verbal and non-verbal communication skills most fitting of the format they choose to communicate their research whether online or face-to-face.

1.5 Blended-Learning Model

To address the challenges experienced by the traditional presentation classroom, blended learning offers a promising solution. The term blended learning is nebulous to define (Sharpe et al. 2006; Sharma & Barrett 2007) and has multiple synonyms i.e. 'hybrid or mixed learning' (Stracke 2007: 57); 'e-learning' (Shepard, 2005) or 'b-learning' (Banados 2006: 534). However, in the context of this paper, blended learning is defined according to the definition by Banados (2006: 534) as:

> a combination of technology and classroom instruction in a flexible approach to learning that recognises the benefits of delivering some training and assessment online but also uses other modes to make up a complete training programme which can improve learning outcomes and/or save costs.

1.6 Aims

The aim of this small-scale research was to adapt a traditional classroom presentation skills course by addressing the challenges experienced in teaching the course. In response a blended-learning model was created to maximize active participation in the classroom and to account for technology-rich formats, congruent with the 21st century. This approach to using learning technology has been shown to develop both student autonomy (Black, 2005) and multimedia skills related to text, images, and videos, which are prerequisites for high-quality academic presentations (Bloch, 2013).

The specific aims of the study were to evaluate the researchers' perceptions of the blended presentation skills course and to identify areas for improvement based on:

1. Which presentation formats did the researchers select when given a choice, and what factors influenced this choice?
2. Were the researchers satisfied with having a choice of presentation format and the materials provided in the course design?
3. What were the perceived benefits of the course?
4. What suggestions did researchers make for improving the course?
5. Which method of feedback did the researchers prefer to give and receive?

2 METHODS

This study included eleven doctoral researcher students who participated in the 2-ECTS classroom course KIEN3041 Academic Presentations for Researchers during spring 2019. KIEN3041 comprises 20-hours of contact and 33-hours of on-line activities. The aim of the course is to facilitate researchers with presenting their research at conferences and in other professional or academic contexts. The on-line materials consist of instructions and resources for creating and delivering different formats for academic presentations and evaluation forms. In the original course (taught pre-Spring 2019) all researchers presented the traditional conference and poster presentation formats and no choice was offered for presenting other formats.

2.1 Creating the Blended Course – Flipping the Classroom

For this intervention study, the course was adapted by expanding the on-line materials to include new technology-rich presentation formats (video abstracts, screencast talks, web conferences, 'digital image' e-posters and split-site poster presentations), and also new and quicker formats (*Lightening talks*, 2MT, 3MT, Ignite, Pecha-Kucha). In addition, to create a fully blended, course, the on-line activities were adapted so that the topics traditionally taught in the classroom were offered as learning activities i.e. e-tivities, in Moodle (see Figure 2).

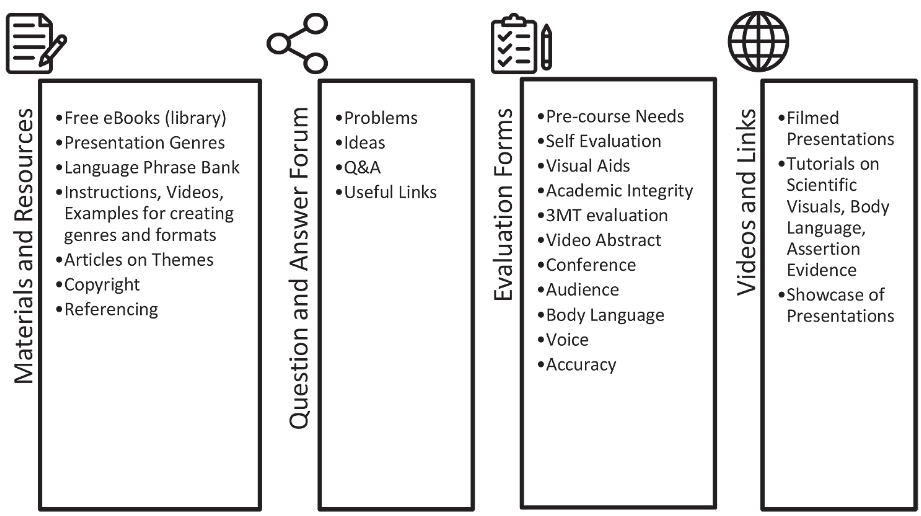

Figure 2: Resources offered on-line in Moodle for the Blended Course

2.2 Creating the Deck of Presentation Challenges

After flipping the classroom content, and redesigning the Moodle environment, a deck of eleven presentation challenges were created which focused on a presentation format or delivery skill (see Table 1). During the first contact lesson, researchers were instructed that they needed to present four presentation formats based on the deck of presentation challenges and to select the dates when they would present their challenges. Of these four formats, two challenges were mandatory (Challenge 2.2 *Research Pitch* and Challenge 2.5 *Pecha Kucha)*, and two challenges were freely chosen by the researchers. The aim of the mandatory challenges was to ensure that researchers gave technology-rich formats focused on timing, visuals and audiences. Those who selected Challenge 3.1 the *research screencast* or Challenge 3.2 the *on-line video abstract* were instructed that they would need to play the recording they had created for the challenge during the lesson and give a commentary or demonstration to teach the group about the process they had followed to create their video, e.g. the technologies used, the editing process to add subtitles, the challenges and solutions.

Table 1: Deck of Presentation Challenges Created for the Blended Presentation Skills

Traditional Research Format	Lightening Talks Popularised Format	On-Line Format
1.1 Conference Presentation *Expert*	2.1 Impromptu Talk *Lay Audience* (2min)	3.1 Video-conference presentation/webinar *Choose Audience* (synchronous)
1.2 Poster Presentation *Expert*	2.2 Research Pitch x 2 *Lay and Expert* (2min each)*	3.2 Screencast Pecha-Kucha or section of conference *Choose Audience* (asynchronous)
1.3 Roundtable Presentation *Expert or Semi-technical*	2.3 3MT (3-minute thesis) *Academic Audience*	3.3 Short Video Pitch & QR code link *Expert Audience* (asynchronous)
	2.4 5MT (5-minute thesis) *Semi-technical Audience*	
	2.5 Ignite (5-min) or Pecha Kucha* (6.6min) *Choose Audience*	

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Course Participants and Faculties

Figure 3 represents the breakdown of course participants according to faculty. In total, eleven researchers participated in the pilot course. Most of the participants were Finnish (N=7), and four were international researchers (N=4).

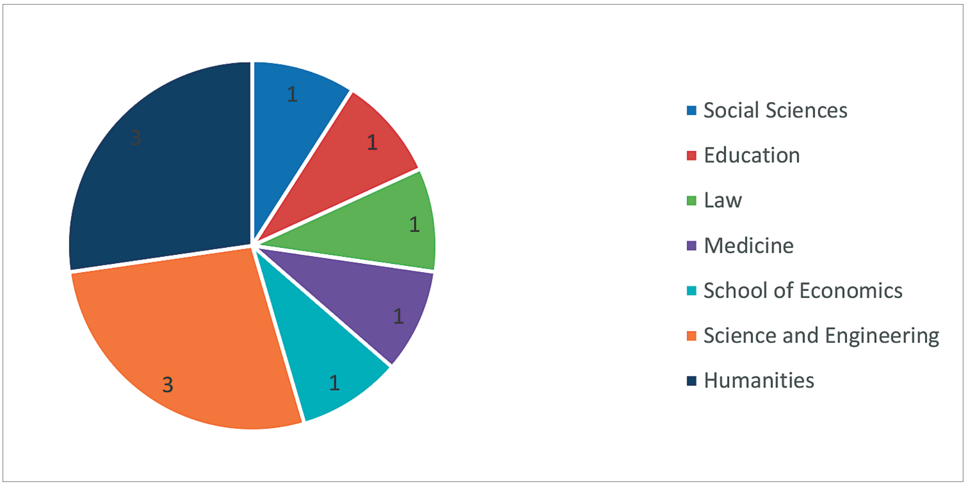

Figure 3: Course Participants According to Faculty (N=11)

3.2 Which presentation formats did researchers select when given a choice?

The formats selected by researchers are represented in Figure 4. The number of researchers choosing the mandatory Pecha Kucha (8 instead of 9) can be explained by one participant who substituted the Pecha Kucha with a screencast (N=1) .Surprisingly, the most popular formats, after the mandatory formats, were the three-minute thesis (N=6) and the video abstract (N=6). Originally, only 2 particpants selected the video abstract, but after their presentation and commentary, four other researchers decided to take the video-abstract challenge too.

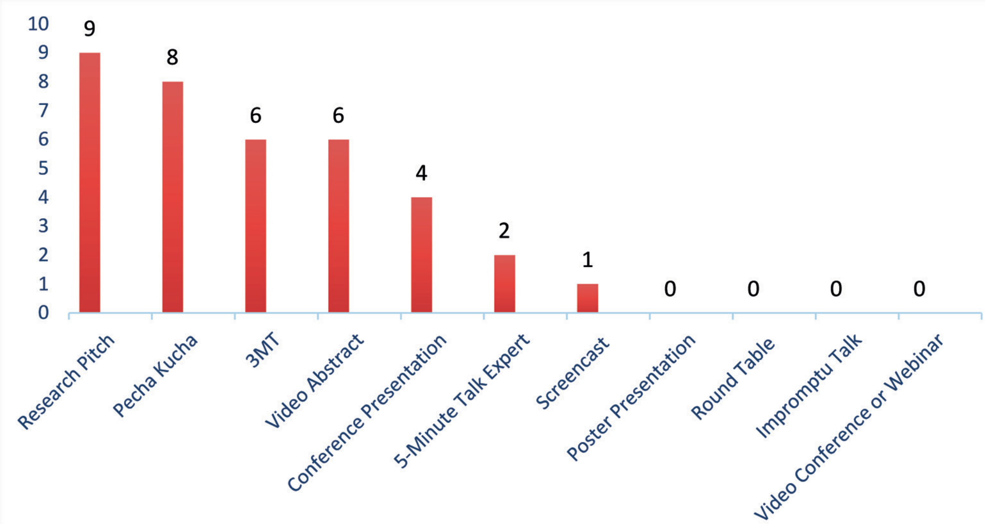

Figure 4: Formats chosen during the course

3.3 Which factors influenced the formats that researchers chose to present during the course?

In response to the question: which factors influenced their choice of formats for the course, certain themes emerged.

Relevance to working life and their *position in the researcher lifecycle* were considered the main motivation. Researchers reported "the challenges which I chose will be useful for me in the future," and "I found them most relevant for the future." Others agreed and stated that "[the] conference presentation for an expert ...gave me the opportunity to prepare for a conference I'm going to later in the year." In addition, "I found the challenges I chose the most useful for the future," "[the formats I chose] were short and suit my situation with research at the moment," and "my research is still very new," were also noted.

A lack of relevance was an interesting motivation for choosing the format with one researcher stating "[I] wanted to practice 'traditional' ways of presenting, the other challenges felt too trendy and not that useful for working life."

Novelty value and *trying something new* also emerged as motivational factors. Researchers mentioned that they wanted to "pack information and try new formats," and "to try out the video abstract part," as well as to "try something novel." Another researcher observed that they "wanted to get familiar with video presentations and QR codes on poster presentations to try something totally new." The influence of watching the presentations of the group also emerged as a factor as illustrated by one researcher's comment that "I didn't choose the video at first but when I saw [name of researcher] showing their video and how they did it I thought it was nice and wanted to try it too."

The *level of difficulty* or *comfort level* of the challenge was an unexpected response with researchers noting that they had chosen challenges because "it is quite easy (and quick) to give a short idea about my research to experts," and "I wanted something more challenging than just practising the language, answering questions and body language." Similarly, another researcher noted "I guess I just felt most comfortable with them from the choices."

Audience was a common factor in choosing the presentation formats with researchers noting that: "It is easy to talk to experts. I wanted to tell about my research to people who don't know to see if I can make them understand," and "I wanted to practise with different audiences," as well as pitching and "I wanted to practise with (grant committee) expert audience to persuade."

3.4 Were researchers satisfied with the freedom to choose presentation formats and the materials provided in the course design?

All of the respondents reported that they were satisfied with the freedom to choose their presentation formats and also found the materials adequate for creating the formats (see Figure 5) below.

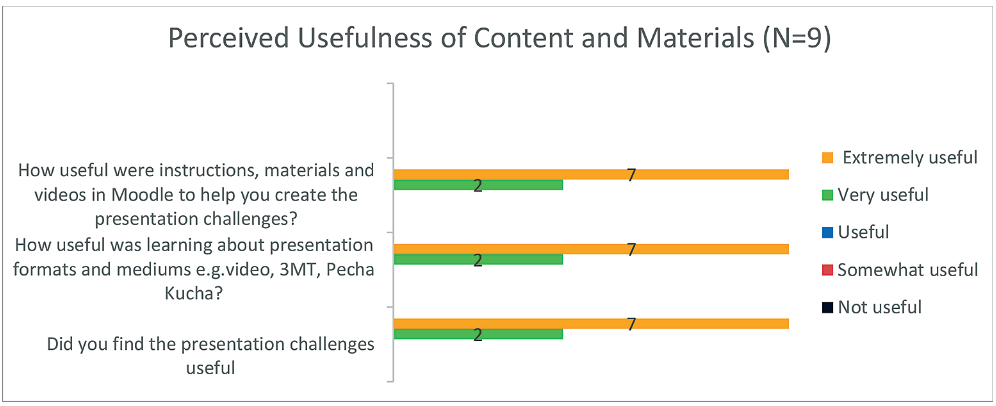

Figure 5: Level of satisfaction with course formats, instructions, and materials

3.5 What were the perceived benefits of the blended course?

Practice and feedback were noted as the main benefit of the course by several of the researchers. Researchers commented that "Most of all getting practice in presenting and then direct feedback afterwards has been very useful. Especially because I don't have a lot of experience in presenting, this course has been valuable." Another mentioned they "could now deliver better presentations," and that "Learning body language, how to improve my presentation to make it more academic was useful."

New unfamiliar aspects of academic presentations were also noted as a useful element of the course with researchers noting that: "the course spotted light over [highlighted] some points that I had never think about before like referencing," and "extra tools inside Powerpoint I did not know how to use," as well as "new ideas."

Another theme that emerged was the *intensity of the course* as highlighted in comments such as "Everything was useful. Intensive and many new things," as well as "lots of information and activities were packed into the course."

Materials and controlled practice using the video recordings were also perceived as key benefits as noted in the comments that the benefits of the course were: "Learning body language, how to improve my presentation to make it more academic." In addition, the value was noted of "Materials and videos on language, advice on posture and pace, examples of good/bad speeches and video of my presentation, help from course participants and new ideas," as well as "Self-evaluating the video of my presentation was uncomfortable but really useful."

3.6 What suggestions did researchers make for improving the course?

Surprisingly, most of the comments about improving the course focused on *adding more challenges to reflect the needs of the researchers* based on their position in the researcher lifecycle. Here, having greater agency in the course design was a very useful suggestion with one researcher noting that: "one idea could be to add one more option to the presentation challenges where the students could define the challenge themselves according to their specific needs (and in agreement with the teacher). In this way, the course could accommodate even more individual modification which could be helpful given that the students come from very varied fields."

Several of the group suggested introducing even *more (ambitious) challenges* to the deck of challenges in Table 1 by noting "we could make more videos and then teach and show techniques to [the] group and get comments on the videos." In addition, one of the more experienced researchers suggested "Introduce LaTeX beamer (it's the name of a presentation package) presentations, if it is possible. Make it as an option for presenters. Maybe as a separate challenge or an option for some challenges."

Other researchers focused on *adding more practical challenges* related to presentation delivery such as introducing "more exercises like the ones to improve skills. i.e. - more challenges," and "a challenge practicing the human element in presentation techniques for how to pronounce correctly, stand etc."

The *lack of homogeneity* and *accounting for the diversity* of the group was also highlighted and "It would be better if there were groups for different disciplines, for example natural sciences because ways and requirements of presenting are so different and other students are not able to give that useful feedback (...only you and one other knew about good scientific practice point of view in my field)." Also, "using a divided group for disciplines [was considered] more useful." Another researcher suggested "inviting a specialized audience when needed, this might be achieved by inviting old scholars who attended the course. Record their feedback in the session on presentations with an informed consent, for example and use in other courses." Many of the group commented that they were satisfied with the course and when asked what they would change responded "nothing," and "don't change it," as well as "all was good."

The comments about improving the course clearly align with the autonomous nature of the 'boutique approach' and the recommendations of the Researcher Development Framework which advocate personalising the learning design and using technologies to address the diverse nature of researchers (Powis 2012).

3.7 Which method of feedback method did researchers prefer to give and receive?

Google survey was the preferred method for giving feedback during the classroom lessons with 9 out of 9 selecting it. This was preferred over the time-consuming process of orally giving feedback *in situ*, immediately after watching a peer presentation. There was a stark contrast in how researchers preferred receiving feedback. Figure 6 shows that most of the group preferred feedback in the form of self-evaluation using the recording of their presentation (N=9).

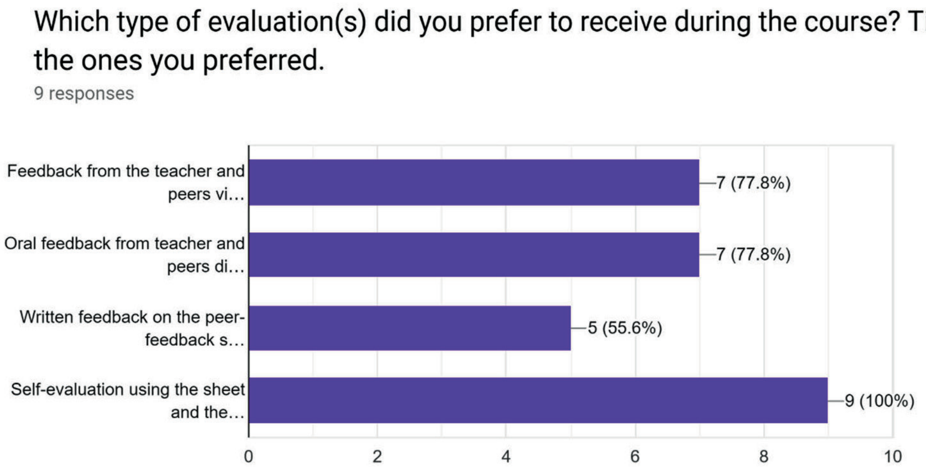

Figure 6: Preferred medium for receiving feedback.

Written peer feedback from peers was the least preferred method. One of the limitations of this study was the design of the questionnaire as it grouped teacher and peer feedback in two categories. It is difficult to evaluate whether the teacher or the peer feedback was preferred, and the impact of the delivery channel used for feedback.

This creates a challenge for future courses and feedback. It would be interesting to establish why researchers preferred the immediate feedback and the factors influencing this preference. Also, in this course the feedback was provided via printed feedback forms and Google surveys, both in written format. However, in future studies, it would be useful to test written feedback compared to the quality of spoken feedback directly after the presentation or as spoken video comments post-presentation in the on-line environment.

4 CONCLUSION

This paper illustrates a blended-learning model developed for an academic presentation skills course for researchers. The aim was to address challenges experienced while teaching in a traditional classroom course. By leveraging rich technologies for delivering the course content on-line, it was hoped that the extra time available in the classroom could be used for researchers to present many different presentation genres using media-rich formats. In this small-scale study, the blended course was designed and piloted with a small group of researchers. After piloting the course, the researchers' perceptions were collected to evaluate their satisfaction and experiences and to consider how to further develop the course. Based on the initial findings, it is clear that the course's personalised approach gave researchers a greater sense of agency and control. In addition, the initial feedback indicated that researchers were satisfied with the on-line materials and reported that the materials were adequate for creating and presenting different formats for presenting their research to different audiences, formally and informally; and for using different mediums. The blended approach provided greater autonomy than the 'one-size-fits-all approach', as it allowed researchers the freedom to personalise the course content based on the presentation challenges they selected irrespective of the stage of their postgraduate studies. This approach was fitting of the diverse nature of the researchers. These initial results, albeit limited to a small group, are promising and warrant developing the blended-course model further to include more presentation challenges and to align the contents closer with the Researcher Development Framework.

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Tio års perspektiv på förberedande undervisning i svenska som det andra inhemska språket vid Åbo universitet

Anne-Maj Åberg

För tio år sedan började behovet av förberedande undervisning i svenska som det andra inhemska språket öka vid Centrum för språk och kommunikation vid Åbo universitet. Syftet för denna artikel är att kartlägga hur den förberedande undervisningen har utvecklats sedan dess och hur studenternas utgångsläge för studierna i svenska har förändrats under denna period. Materialet utgörs av en enkät som studerandena på de förberedande kurserna har fått besvara läsåret 2008–2009 och läsåret 2018–2019 samt av studiehandböcker vid samma tidpunkter. Studien görs som en del av 40-årsjubileum för Centrum för språk och kommunikation vid Åbo universitet.

Svenska som det andra inhemska språket ingår i högskoleexamen

Både finska och svenska är nationella språk i Finland (731/1999, 17 §), och det andra inhemska språket är en del av studierna genom hela utbildningssystemet från grundskolan till högskolestudier (se vidare Juurakko-Paavola & Palviainen 2011).

Enligt examensförordningar både vid universiteten (794/2004, 6 §) och vid yrkeshögskolorna (1129/2014, 7 §) ska studerandena i samband med sina högskolestudier uppvisa att de har sådana kunskaper i finska och svenska som krävs av offentligt anställda (424/2003, 6 §) och som behövs på det egna området eller i yrket.

Både muntliga och skriftliga kunskaper bedöms enligt nivåbeskrivningar som är förankrade i den europeiska referensramen för språk (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* 2001, CEFR). I samband med högskolestudier ska de finskspråkiga studerandena uppnå minst nivå

B1 i både muntliga och skriftliga färdigheter i svenska. (Elsinen & Juurakko-Paavola 2006.)

Allt färre når färdighetsnivån B1

Det har dock visat sig att allt fler finskspråkiga studerande har svårigheter i att uppnå denna nivå i svenska. Detta anses bero på det minskade timantalet i den grundläggande utbildningen och gymnasiet och på det allt lägre deltagandet i provet i svenska i studentexamen. (se t.ex. Nationalspråkutredningen 2011; Tuohimaa & Valli 2013; Juurakko-Paavola & Åberg 2018.)

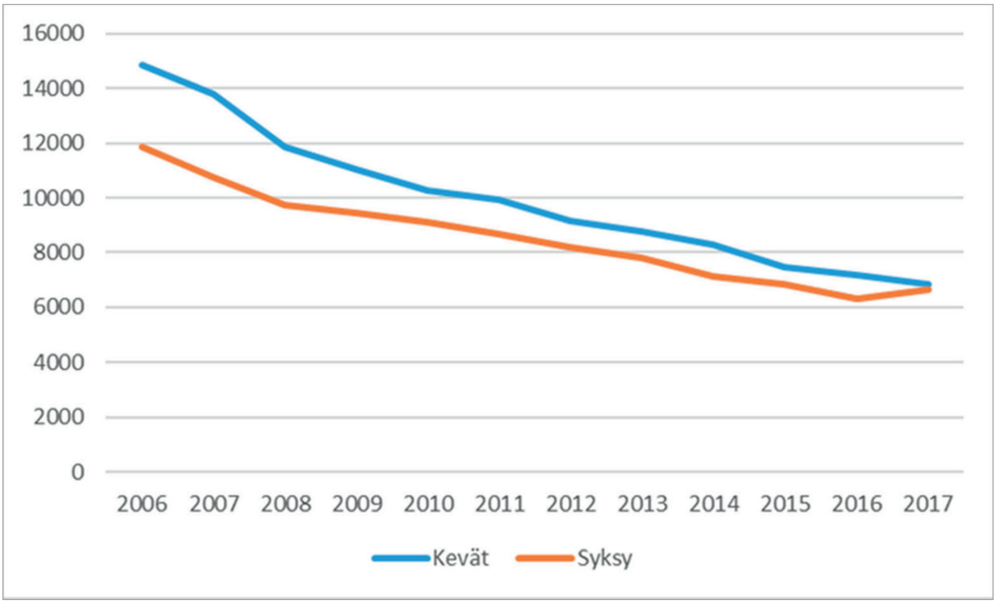
De flesta högskolestuderande har läst svenska som B1-språk[1] i sina tidigare studier i grundskolan och i gymnasiet. Studierna i svenska som B1-språk inleds redan i åk 6 i den grundläggande utbildningen sedan år 2016 då de tidigare inleddes i åk 7. Det sammanlagda antalet undervisningstimmar är dock detsamma som tidigare (228 timmar). (Utbildningsstyrelsen 2014:47, 2016a; GLGU 2004; LP 2016). I gymnasieutbildningen ingår idag fem obligatoriska kurser i svenska som B1-språk (190 timmar). Dessutom kan man avlägga två frivilliga kurser i svenska (76 timmar). (GLP 2016:104–106; Utbildningsstyrelsen 2016b.) I gymnasiet är målnivån för studierna i svenska numera B1, dvs. samma nivå som krävs vid högskolestudier (GLP 2016:101; Elsinen & Juurakko-Paavola 2006).

Det är dock värt att notera att de flesta gymnasister inte uppnår denna nivå när man granskar vitsordet i studentexamen i förhållande till färdighetsnivåerna i referensramen (se vidare Juurakko-Paavola 2015; Juurakko-Paavola & Takala 2013). Ca 40 % av dem som avlägger provet i svenska uppnår minst vitsordet M, som anses motsvara nivå B1[2] (Juurakko-Paavola & Åberg 2018). Antalet studenter som avlägger svenska i studentexamen har dock nästan halverats sedan svenskan blev frivillig i studentexamen år 2005 (Lag om ändring av gymnasielagen 766/2004, 18 §). Detta framgår av figur 1. Den blåa linjen i figuren visar antalet studenter som har avlagt svenskan i studentexa-

[1] Observera att B1 inte syftar på språkfärdighetsnivåerna i CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) utan på lärokursens omfattning.

[2] De vitsord som ges för proven i studentexamen är *laudatur* (L), *eximia cum laude approbatur* (E), *magna cum laude approbatur* (M), *cum laude approbatur* (C), *lubenter approbatur* (B), *approbatur* (A) och *improbatur* (I), där laudatur är det högsta vitsordet och improbatur är underkänt (Statsrådets förordning om studentexamen 915/2005, § 3). Vitsorden i studentexamen länkas inte till CEFR-nivåerna utan studentexamensnämnden bestämmer varje gång poänggränserna för de olika vitsorden (Studentexamensnämnden 2016).

men på våren och den röda linjen antalet studenter som har avlagt svenskan i studentexamen på hösten.



Figur 1. Antalet studenter som avlagt svenskan i studentexamen (2006–2017) (ur Juurakko-Paavola & Åberg 2018).

Exempelvis år 2017 deltog uppskattningsvis endast 43 % av alla examinander i provet i medellång svenska. Av flickorna deltog 52 % i provet men av pojkarna endast 28 %. (Se vidare Juurakko-Paavola & Åberg 2018.) När man tar hänsyn till att endast ca 40 % av dem uppnår vitsordet M betyder det att endast ca 10 % av alla pojkarna och ca 20 % av alla flickorna i gymnasiet uppnådde färdighetsnivån B1. (Juurakko-Paavola & Åberg 2018.)

Man kan inleda högskolestudierna även efter en yrkesutbildning, men i den yrkesinriktade grundutbildningen ingår endast en kunskapspoäng obligatorisk undervisning i svenska (ca 14–20 timmar) (Kantelinen 2011:43; Juurakko-Paavola & Palviainen 2011: 18; Juurakko-Paavola & Åberg 2018; Utbildningsstyrelsen 2019). Målnivån är numera färdighetsnivån A2.2 i hör- och läsförståelse och färdighetsnivån A2.1 i tal och skrivning (Utbildningsstyrelsen 2019). Målnivån i yrkesutbildningen är därmed inte tillräcklig i relation till vad som krävs som utgångsnivå i senare studier vid högskolor (Kantelinen 2011:43). År 2008 uppskattade ca 37 % av yrkesstuderandena att de är minst på nivå B1 efter att ha fått undervisning i svenska (Kantelinen 2011:48). Detta är ett liknande resultat som man har fått i gymnasiet (se ovan).

Även vid universiteten har man granskat studentvitsordet i förhållande till färdighetsnivåerna i referensramen på samma sätt som i gymnasiet (se Hildén 2009; Tuohimaa & Valli 2013). År 2008 fick 56 % av nya universitetsstuderandena vitsordet M som anses motsvara nivå B1 (Hildén 2009), medan andelen sjönk till 44 % år 2012 (Tuohimaa & Valli 2013). I yrkeshögskolorna uppskattade 56 % av studerandena att de var på nivå B1 i en enkät år 2008 (Juurakko-Paavola 2011:65). Situationen är därmed liknande som vid universiteten (se ovan).

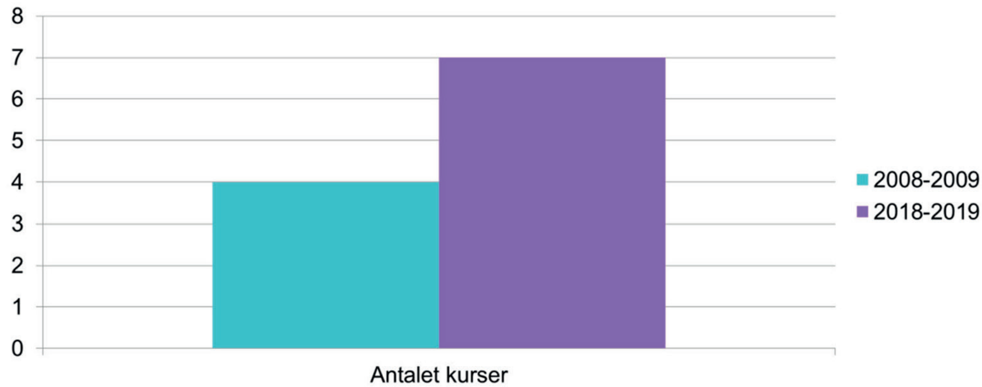
Enligt Språkcentren vid universiteten och yrkeshögskolorna, som har hand om undervisningen av svenska som det andra inhemska språket, har kunskapsnivån i svenska sjunkit under 2000-talet. Situationen har lett till att man har varit tvungen att erbjuda förberedande undervisning i svenska för studerandena. (Nationalspråksutredningen 2011:62–63). Så är fallet även vid Centrum för språk och kommunikation vid Åbo universitet vilket behandlas härnäst.

Antalet förberedande undervisning har fördubblats

För att kartlägga hur den förberedande undervisningen vid Åbo universitet har utvecklats under de senaste tio åren jämfördes studiehandböcker från läsåret 2008–2009 och läsåret 2018–2019. I beräkningen har tagits endast den kontaktundervisning som erbjuds för studerande från alla fakulteter vid Åbo universitet i Åbo. Handelshögskolan vid Åbo universitet har lämnats utanför kartläggningen eftersom den inte var en av fakulteterna läsåret 2008–2009. I tillägg till kurser med kontaktundervisning erbjuds det också nätkurser.

Vid Åbo universitet inleddes tilläggskurser i den förberedande undervisningen för tio år sedan under läsåret 2008–2009, alltså bara några år efter att svenskan blev frivillig i studentexamen. Sedan tidigare erbjöds det redan en gemensam stödkurs, *Peruskurssi*, för alla fakulteter på 2 sp och på nivå A2. Kursen var avsedd som stöd före de obligatoriska studierna i svenska för studerande med svaga kunskaper i svenska. Kursen erbjöds två gånger under läsåret: en grupp på höstterminen och en grupp på vårterminen. Men läsåret 2008–2009 inleddes också en ny kurs, *Språkakuten*, på 2 sp och på nivå A2. Kursen var avsedd för studerande som upplevde sig ha stora svårigheter i att kunna avlägga de obligatoriska studierna i svenska. Målet var att kunna hjälpa de studerandena att uppnå nivå B1 senare i de obligatoriska studierna. Också den här kursen erbjöds två gånger under läsåret: en grupp på höstterminen och en grupp på vårterminen.

Tio år senare läsåret 2018–2019 erbjöds förberedande undervisning i svenska under namnet *Ruotsin valmentava kurssi* på nivå A2 som också var 2 sp. Under kursen strävade man efter att hjälpa studerandena att uppnå startnivån B1 som krävs i de obligatoriska studierna. Kursen erbjöds sammanlagt sju gånger under läsåret: fyra grupper på höstterminen och tre grupper på vårterminen. Därmed har omfattningen av den förberedande undervisningen nästan fördubblats under de senaste tio åren som framgår av figur 2.



Figur 2. Antalet förberedande kurser i svenska vid Åbo universitet läsåret 2008–2009 och läsåret 2018–2019.

Detta är dock inte hela sanningen eftersom i tillägg till kurser som är riktade till studerande från alla fakulteter erbjuds det också fakultetsspecifika förberedande kurser. Dessutom har man också ökat den obligatoriska undervisningen i svenska vid vissa ämnen, t.ex. i utbildningsprogrammet för kemister ingick läsåret 2008–2009 endast 2 sp studier i svenska, men numera är omfattningen av studier 4 sp.

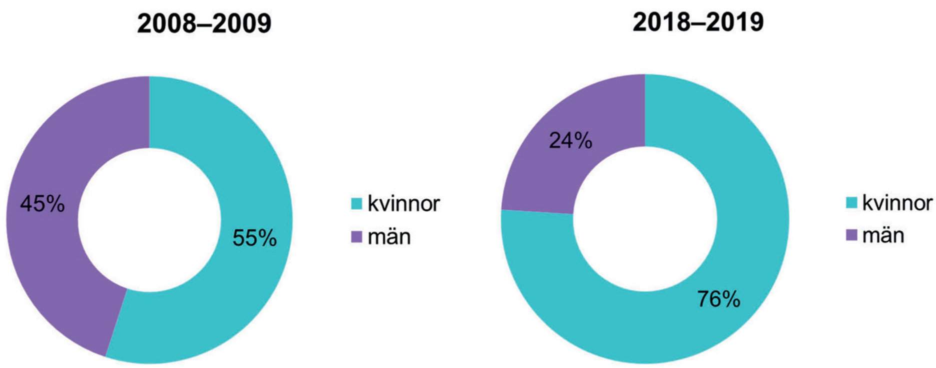
I tillägg till förberedande undervisning erbjuds det också numera kursen *Ruotsia vaille valmis* på 2–5 sp sedan läsåret 2012–2013 för de studerandena som har misslyckats att avlägga den obligatoriska kursen i svenska.

Studerandenas utgångsläge har förändrats

För att kartlägga hur studerandenas utgångsläge för studierna har utvecklats jämfördes svaren i en enkät som studerandena på de förberedande kurserna har fått besvara läsåret 2008–2009 och läsåret 2018–2019. I enkäten frågades om deras bakgrund och om deras tidigare studier i svenska. Det frågades också varför de ville delta i den förberedande kursen i svenska. Enkäten besvarades på papper läsåret 2008–2009 och elektroniskt läsåret 2018–2019.

Kvinnliga studerande verkar delta aktivare i den förberedande undervisningen

Läsåret 2008–2009 deltog sammanlagt 53 kursdeltagare i enkäten. Av dessa var 55 % kvinnor och 45 % män, vilket var en ganska jämn fördelning mellan könen. Läsåret 2018–2019 deltog sammanlagt 92 studerande i enkäten, av dessa var 76 % kvinnor men endast 24 % män[3]. Andelen kvinnor var därmed avsevärt högre än andelen män. Av figur 3 framgår det att andelen kvinnor var mycket större läsåret 2018–2019 jämfört med läsåret 2008–2009.

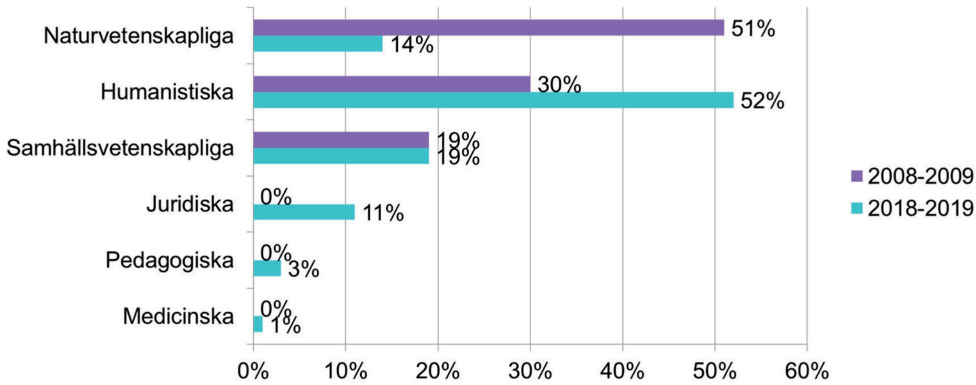


Figur 3. Fördelningen av kön för 53 studerande i procent läsåret 2008–2009 och för 91 studerande i procent läsåret 2018–2019.

Kvinnorna verkar därmed delta aktivare i den förberedande undervisningen.

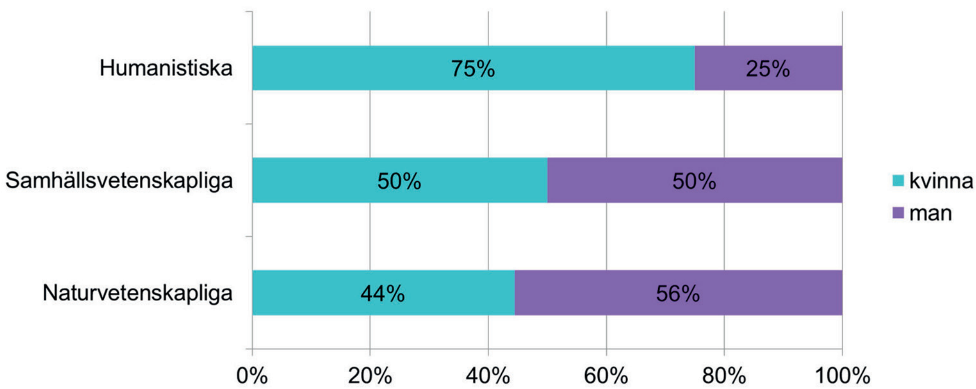
Läsåret 2008–2009 deltog studerandena från tre olika fakulteter i den förberedande undervisningen. De flesta studerande kom då från naturvetenskapliga fakulteten (51 %). Tio år senare deltog studerandena från sex olika fakulteter i den förberedande undervisningen. De flesta studerade kom då från humanistiska fakulteten (52 %). I figur 4 presenteras fördelningen av studerandena enligt fakultet i procent i materialet.

[3] En student besvarade inte frågan om könet.



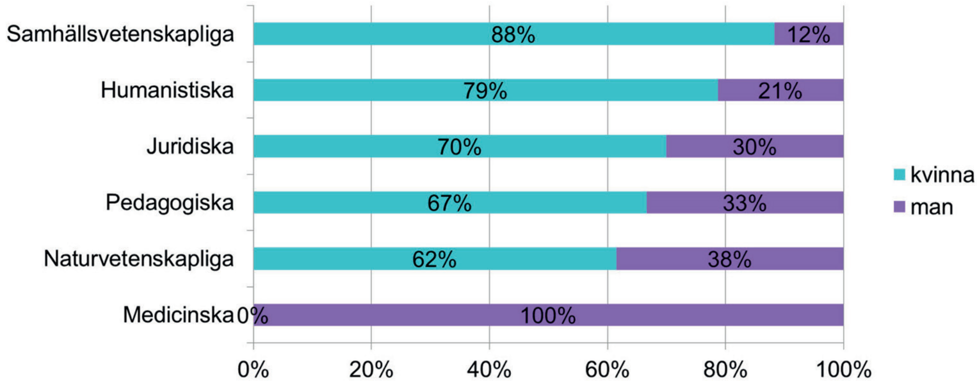
Figur 4. Fördelningen av studerandena enligt fakultet för 53 studerande i procent läsåret 2008–2009 och för 91 studerande i procent läsåret 2018–2019.

Könsfördelningen är relativt jämn bland alla högskolestuderandena (54 % kvinnor och 46 % män år 2018) men det förekommer stora skillnader mellan olika utbildningsområden (SVT 2018). I figur 5 presenteras könsfördelningen i materialet mellan olika fakulteter läsåret 2008–2009.



Figur 5. Fördelningen av studerandena enligt kön och fakultet för 53 studerande i procent läsåret 2008–2009.

Som framgår av figur 5 fanns det något flera män bland studerandena från matematisk-naturvetenskapliga fakulteten medan andelen kvinnliga studerande var högre bland studerandena från humanistiska fakulteten läsåret 2008–2009. Läsåret 2018–2019 var andelen kvinnor genomgående högre förutom att det endast fanns en manlig student från medicinska fakulteten som framgår av figur 6.



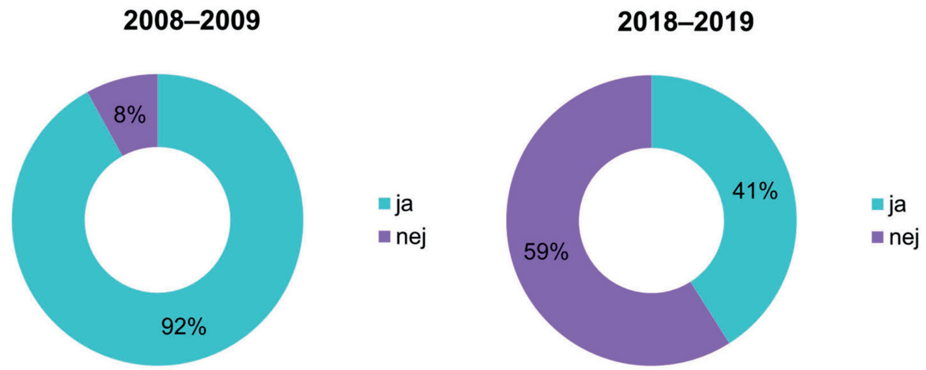
Figur 6 Fördelningen av studerandena enligt kön och fakultet för 91 studerande i procent läsåret 2018–2019.

Allt färre har avlagt provet i svenska i studentexamen men fördelningen av vitsorden har inte förändrats

I enkäten frågades om studerandenas tidigare examen och deras tidigare studier i svenska. Läsåret 2008–2009 hade 92 % av dem som hade avlagt studentexamen även avlagt provet i svenska (48/52 studerande). Av kvinnorna hade 97 % avlagt provet i svenska och av män 87 %.

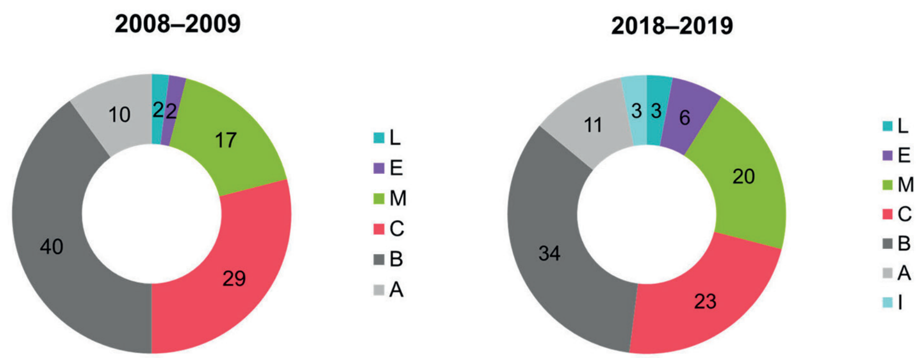
Svenskan blev frivillig i studentexamen år 2005 (se ovan) och därmed har detta inte påverkat så många av studerandena som deltog i kursen läsåret 2008–2009. Endast åtta studerande hade avlagt studentexamen efter år 2005 och hade därmed haft möjlighet att välja om de deltog i provet i svenska eller inte. Hälften av dem hade valt att inte göra det. Av dem var tre män och en kvinna

Situationen såg dock helt annorlunda ut tio år senare under läsåret 2018–2019. Då hade endast 41 % av dem som hade avlagt studentexamen även avlagt provet i svenska (34/83 studerande). Av kvinnorna hade 46 % avlagt provet i svenska men av män endast 24 %. Detta är något lägre andel än i hela landet bland examinanderna år 2017 (jfr ovan). Denna drastiska förändring framgår av figur 7.



Figur 7. Fördelningen av studerande som har avlagt svenska i studentexamen för 52 studerande i procent läsåret 2008–2009 och för 83 studerande i procent läsåret 2018–2019.

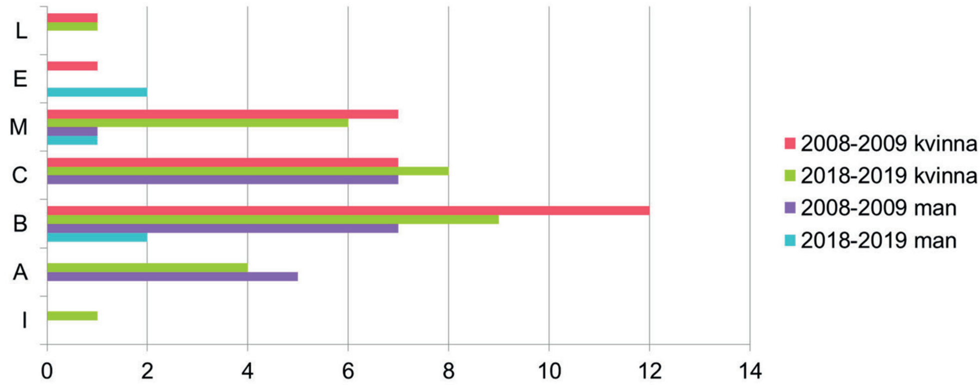
När vitsorden som studerandena fått i svenska i studentexamen granskades, visade det sig att det inte förekommer några stora skillnader i fördelningen av vitsorden under denna tioårsperiod. Fördelningen presenteras i figur 8.



Figur 8. Fördelningen av studentvitsorden i svenska för 48 studerande i procent läsåret 2008–2009 och för 34 studerande i procent läsåret 2018–2019.

Inte bara de svagaste deltar i förberedande undervisning utan det finns även några studerande som har fått höga vitsord som E och L. Läsåret 2008–2009 uppnådde 21 % av kursdeltagare minst vitsordet M som anses motsvara nivå B1 medan andelen var 29 % läsåret 2018–2019. Man kan inte säga någonting färdighetsnivån hos de studerande som inte har avlagt svenska i studentexamen.

I figur 9 granskas ännu fördelningen av vitsord och kön.

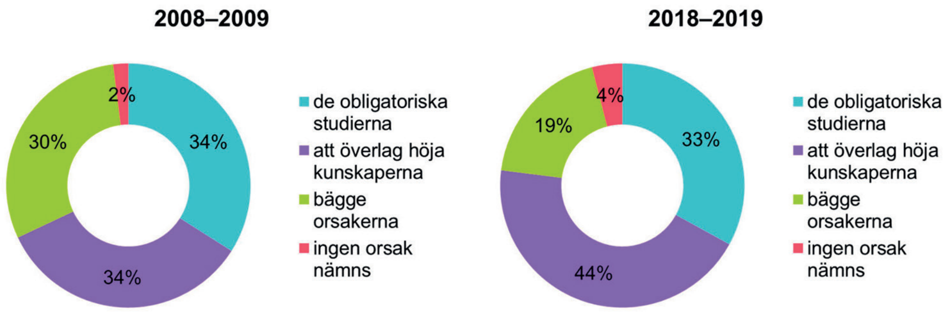


Figur 9. Fördelningen av studentvitsordet i svenska enligt kön för 48 studerande i antal läsåret 2008–2009 och för 34 studerande i antal läsåret 2018–2019.

Av figur 9 framgår att de kvinnliga studerandena har fått högre vitsord i svenska än de manliga studerandena läsåret 2008–2009. Läsåret 2018–2019 kommer det inte fram en lika tydlig skillnad mellan könen eftersom endast fem män har avlagt svenska i studentexamen bland de som deltog i enkäten. Tidigare studier (t.ex. Jauhojärvi-Koskelo & Palviainen 2011; Juurakko-Paavola 2016) har dock visat att kvinnorna uppnår bättre vitsord och högre färdighetsnivå i svenska än män.

Studerandena nämnde ofta de obligatoriska studierna som orsak till att delta i kursen

I studien kartlades även orsakerna till att delta i den förberedande undervisningen. Studerandena fick själv motivera varför de ville delta i undervisningen. Dessa presenteras i figur 10.



Figur 10. Motiven till att delta i förberedande kursen i svenska för 53 studerande i procent läsåret 2008–2009 och för 86 studerande i procent läsåret 2008–2009.

Som framgår av figur 10 nämnde studerandena ofta de obligatoriska studierna som orsak till att delta i kursen. Ca en tredjedel av studerandena nämnde endast de obligatoriska studierna som orsak både läsåret 2008–2009 och läsåret 2018–2019. Men en tredjedel ville överlag höja sina kunskaper i svenska läsåret 2008–2009. Andelen sådana svar uppsteg till 44 % läsåret 2018–2019. Nästan en tredjedel av studerandena nämnde båda dessa orsaker läsåret 2008–2009 men andelen sådana svar var en femtedel tio år senare. Det förekom även svar där ingen orsak nämndes vid båda tidpunkterna.

Sammanlagt nämnde därmed 64 % de obligatoriska studierna läsåret 2008-2009 medan läsåret 2018-2019 nämnde 52 % de obligatoriska studierna. Att andelen sådana svar var något högre för tio år sedan kan bero på att examina förnyades läsåret 2008–2009. Studerandena hade bråttom att bli färdiga utan att vara tvungna att komplettera sin examen enligt de nya examenskraven. Det fanns till och med några fall där studerande hade allt annat förutom svenskan klar. Numera ingår studierna i svenska redan i kandidatexamen då de tidigare ingick i magisterexamen.

Härnäst ges några exempel på motiveringarna. I exempel 1 har studerandena endast nämnt de obligatoriska studierna som orsak att delta i kursen.

1)

2008–2009

Virkamiesruotsi on PAKKO päästä läpi vuoden aikana, muuten en valmistu. Yrityskertoja takana jo 3kpl.

> [Jag MÅSTE avlägga kursen i tjänstemannasvenskan under det här året, annars utexamineras jag inte. Jag har redan försökt tre gånger.]
>
> *Valmistuminen ruotsin kurssista kiinni.*
>
> [Utexamineringen hänger på kursen i svenska.]
>
> **2018–2019**
>
> *En pääse pakollisesta ruotsin kurssista läpi.*
>
> [Jag kommer inte att klara av den obligatoriska kursen i svenska.]

I exempel 2 har studerandena angett som orsak att de överlag vill höja sina kunskaper i svenska.

2)

> **2008–2009**
>
> *Koen ruotsin kielen hallinnan kohtuullisen tärkeäksi ja koska lukiossa ja peruskoulussa ruotsin opiskelusta ei tullut mitään huonon motivaation takia, niin yritetään nyt.*
>
> [Jag upplever att det är relativt viktigt att kunna svenska och eftersom studierna i gymnasiet och grundskolan inte blev till något på grund av dålig motivation så nu försöker jag på nytt.]
>
> **2018–2019**
>
> *Koska ruotsin taitoni ei ole riittävällä tasolla peruskoulun ja toisen asteen opinnoista huolimatta. Tämä on ikävää, sillä puolet suvustani on ruotsinkielisiä. Toivoisin myös saavuttavani sellaisen tason, että voisin käyttää ruotsia vapaa-ajallani.*
>
> [Eftersom mina kunskaper i svenska inte är på en tillräckligt bra nivå trots studierna i grundskolan och andra stadiet. Det är tråkigt, eftersom hälften av mina släktingar är svenskspråkiga. Jag hoppas kunna uppnå en sådan nivå i svenska, att jag skulle kunna använda den på fritiden.]

I exempel 3 har de nämnt både de obligatoriska studierna och att de även annars vill höja sina kunskaper i svenska som orsak till att delta i kursen.

3)

2008–2009

Pakko saada pakolliset kieliopinnot suoritettua. Lisäksi hävettää huono ruotsin osaaminen.

[Jag måste avlägga de obligatoriska studierna. Dessutom skäms jag över mina dåliga kunskaper i svenska.]

2018–2019

Ruotsintaitoni on hyvin huono ja haluan selviytyä tulevista ruotsin pakollisista edes suhteellisen hyvin. Se on kuitenkin Suomessa tarvittava ja vaadittu kieli, joten haluan sitä kunnioittaa.

[Mina kunskaper i svenska är mycket svaga och jag vill klara av de obligatoriska studierna i svenska ens någorlunda bra. Svenskan är ett språk som krävs och behövs i Finland vilket jag vill respektera.]

Utbudet av förberedande undervisning har ökat under de senaste tio åren samtidigt som andelen studerande som avlägger svenska i studentexamen har sjunkit

Kartläggningen visar att det numera erbjuds mera förberedande undervisning i svenska vid Centrum för språk och kommunikation vid Åbo universitet. Under de senaste tio åren har antalet kurser nästan fördubblats. I tillägg till dessa kurser erbjuds det också fakultetsspecifika förberedande kurser, nätkurser och en stödkurs för de som har misslyckats att avlägga de obligatoriska studierna.

Detta kan anses bero på att studerandena numera behöver mera stöd i sina studier än tidigare. Kartläggningen visar att studerandena tycks ha sämre utgångsläge att avlägga de obligatoriska studierna i svenska om man utgår från andelen studerandena som inte har avlagt provet i svenska i studentexamen. Andelen studerande som har avlagt svenska i studentexamen har sjunkit från 92 % läsåret 2008–2009 till 41 % läsåret 2018–2019 i detta material. Trots det har fördelningen mellan de olika vitsorden hållits på samma nivå och överraskande nog deltar även studenter med goda studentvitsord i svenska i kurserna.

Kvinnliga studerandena tycks söka sig mera aktivt till de förberedande kurserna även om de manliga studerandena har sämre utgångsläge om man utgår från andelen som väljer att inte avlägga svenskan i studentexamen. Andelen kvinnor som avlade svenska i studentexamen läsåret 2008–2009 sjönk från 97 % till 46 % läsåret 2018–2019 medan andelen män sjönk från 87 % till 24 %.

Trots att så många idag har problem med svenskan ställer sig ändå många positivt till studierna i svenska i sina kommentarer.

I fortsättningen skulle det vara intressant att jämföra hur undervisningen i olika fakulteter har utvecklats för att få en bättre bild av omfattningen av undervisningen i svenska vid Centrum för språk och kommunikation Åbo universitet.

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