Second Language Learning and Teaching

Danuta Gabryś-Barker
Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel
Jerzy Zybert *Editors*

Investigations in Teaching and Learning Languages

Studies in Honour of Hanna Komorowska

Springer

Second Language Learning and Teaching

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Editors
Danuta Gabryś-Barker
Institute of English
University of Silesia
Sosnowiec
Poland

Jerzy Zybert
Institute of English
University of Social Sciences
Warszawa
Poland

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel
Institute of English
Opole University
Opole
Poland

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Preface

We are constantly confronted with new demands in our personal and professional lives, especially as we face an ever more internationalized world. It is therefore the case that a knowledge of foreign languages can effectively arm us and support us in our efforts to cope with the challenges thus arising. Consequently, applied linguists feel particularly obliged to look for ways of facilitating the language learning process. This conviction underpins the position assumed by the contributors to the present volume and is reflected in their papers. Their intention is to present and discuss a number of issues related with "making the learning burden lighter" which are currently exercising theorists and practitioners in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages.

The volume consists of 18 papers divided into three parts. Part I, *Approaches to Language*, *Language Teaching, and Learning*, is of a theoretical and descriptive character and presents the authors' individual views of and attitudes to the problems discussed in the five papers. **Stanislaw Puppel** considers every language as participating in "the natural language global arena"; he goes on to say that individual languages treated as organisms are distinct components of the alleged "Imperial Tetragon of Embodiment". Also, since language diversity is the reflection of culture it actually "secure[s] the preservation of humanity's maximum cognitive-cultural-linguistic resources". **Anna Ewert** discusses the relationship between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics from a Polish applied linguist's point of view. She appeals for the accurate defining of the scope of applied linguistics and its relation to other disciplines. She also provides an outline history of applied linguistics and relates it to the Polish scene. **Maria Dakowska** discusses different aspects of foreign language didactics: as an autonomous, noninterdisciplinary science with its own objectives; as a field opposed to language teaching methodology and its meaning with regard to the cognitive potential of sciences. She provides a number of rational arguments for her views; these, however, must be deemed controversial, particularly by those who have adopted the ecological position with regard to language as a quantum phenomenon that requires an interdisciplinary scientific approach. **Romuald Gozdawa-Gołębiowski**'s contribution makes a case for acknowledging the

dichotomy postulated by Byram (2010) with regard to educational and functional factors affecting target language and culture acquisition. It is shown in the article that FL (foreign language) didactics faces the problem of choosing between epistemic goals and practical ones, which then determines the teaching methods and approaches adopted. This issue leads the author to propose that it is formulaic language that should be taught in the first place due to its dual nature which comprises both epistemic and utilitarian features. **Jan Zalewski** concentrates on theoretical considerations pertaining to foreign language instruction in the domain of composition writing. Of particular interest to him is the opposition between process and post-process as applied in teaching writing and in linguistic research. He also discusses a number of key developments that have recently taken place in relevant research and had an effect on the current epistemic perception of the process/post-process distinction.

Part II of the collection comprises six papers that involve, in one way or another, the concept of *Awareness in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning*. **Anna Niżegorodcew** reports on an international Polish–Ukrainian project which investigated English majors in two universities in the respective countries with regard to the students' perception of the English language. The findings from her research show that students perceive the target language to be dependent on the source culture. To Polish students English is a language of international communication, while Ukrainian ones link it with the target culture. This finding has pedagogical implications, in that the texts studied in the language classroom can be given different interpretations in different educational contexts. **Halina Chodkiewicz** points out that recent understandings of text processing and of reading comprehension call for a fresh conceptualization of reading purposes. She considers reading as a purpose-driven process and looks at reading comprehension skill from the point of view of an L2 learner with the aim of relating it to teaching the skill. She argues that it is this approach to the process that will adequately develop learners' reading skills which they need to further their education. Next she discusses a number of important issues that pertain to the concept of reading as a goal-directed endeavor. **Anna Michońska-Stadnik** notes that according to recent research findings, it is the left hemisphere that is engaged in remembering FL words while the actual use of them in communication is processed via the right hemisphere. She refers to vocabulary retention only and discusses the role of explicit metacognitive instruction in derivational morphology. She argues that in learning words the awareness of their structure is part of declarative knowledge and assumes that it should aid learners in memorizing them. This, however, has not been confirmed experimentally. **Mirosław Pawlak** argues that the effectiveness of form-focused instruction depends on the beliefs of learners and teachers concerning the ways formal instruction should be conducted. Unfortunately, it turns out that this is not always the case. His study of representative samples of advanced students and teachers of English revealed that the beliefs about various aspects of form-focused instruction which are held by the research subjects very

often differ. The findings have significant pedagogical implications and provide grounds for practical recommendations. **Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel** addresses the problems of social support that adolescent foreign language learners need and actually receive from others, which results in their SL (second language) learning achievements. She analyzes their mutual relationship in terms of gender as a mediating factor, as it has been empirically documented that it plays an important role in diminishing stress and raising adolescents' general wellbeing—in this respect females obtain more support than males. The author's own study validates earlier research to the extent that it proves that both genders receive equally high support from their parents, while, when correlated with achievement, the differences in favor of females are less significant. Teacher support turns out to be the lowest factor for both genders, and peer support proves to be a weak predictor of FL attainment. **Danuta Gabryś-Barker** deals with the construct of space as a socio-cultural component of language users' communicative competence, the functioning of which can differ across languages and can be attributed to their cultural backgrounds. Her article attempts to answer the question whether the concept reflected in the L1 mental lexicon overlaps with L2 or L3 lexicons. Her data come from investigating L1 Polish and L1 Portuguese trilingual language users of L2 English and L3 German, who performed association tasks in their L1s.

Part III, *Aspects of Foreign Language Instruction*, includes seven papers that are related to language learning in formal settings and are pedagogically oriented. The opening paper by **Zbigniew Możejko**, on standards and advancedness in foreign language education, presents the standards that are required of language students in assessing their language level as adequate for the language skills they have developed. This serves as a starting point for a discussion on the notion of advancedness in foreign language education and for an analysis of the role of standards in the educational systems in the USA and Europe. Furthermore, the paper investigates the role of two important documents: the National Standards in American Education, and the Common European Framework of Reference, in assisting the development of advanced language capacities. The paper concludes with a suggestion for preparing learners to reach advancedness. **Magdalena Szpotowicz** reports on a longitudinal study on the four-year-long process of FL English acquisition by young learners that took place in instructed contexts. She explores factors influencing early language learning in Poland. The study was carried out as part of a multinational, longitudinal research project ELLiE, the main aim of which was to explore and describe potential linguistic attainment in instructed contexts with little class time available for instruction. It also examined language policy implementation, key factors contributing to language achievement, and the linguistic and nonlinguistic effects of an early start in language learning. **Joanna Nijakowska** devotes her paper to problems related with dyslexia. She provides arguments in favor of implementing the multisensory structured learning (MSL) approach in teaching foreign languages to dyslexic learners. She regrets that language teachers are often unwilling to introduce new, yet positively verified,

approaches and methods in their teaching practice. This she attributes to their insufficient training and personal reluctance to get involved. This paper is meant to bridge the gap between research findings and actual practice in FL teaching to dyslexics. The author discusses both the principles of MSL (multisensory structured learning) and presents findings that have proven the effectiveness of this approach in teaching languages to dyslexic learners. **Liliana Piasecka** discusses the role of the literature in foreign language learning and teaching; she also argues for the usefulness of literary texts in developing communicative competence, intercultural competence, and both individual and social growth. Currently, the many-sided didactic value of integrated language and the literature teaching is conspicuously recognized. However, this approach and its implementation in the FL classroom requires that teachers should be properly and adequately trained with regard to what texts to use and how to use them. The relevant situation is discussed within the Polish school context and the benefits of teaching English with the use of literary texts are presented. **Jerzy Zybert** argues that learners of English should be taught interrogative structures right from the start. He provides appropriate arguments claiming that students' awareness of a particular incompetence incapacitates their otherwise relatively developed interactive abilities in English, which affects them emotionally and lowers their self-esteem. He concludes that teaching interrogatives should be of primary concern to English teachers. **Ewa Waniek-Klimczak** presents and discusses the results of an online survey of English pronunciation teaching practised in Europe. The European context serves as the background for looking into pronunciation teaching in Poland from the teachers' viewpoint. This allows for comparison of Polish teachers' practices with those used in other countries. The survey is intended to show that the quality of pronunciation teaching can be improved if the attitudes and practices of language teachers are investigated. **Teresa Siek-Piskozub** and **Aleksandra Jankowska** emphasize the significant role that teaching practice plays in preparing students for the foreign language teaching profession. Their suggestions and recommendations with regard to the adequate development of trainees are based on their studies, which have enabled them to look into the practicum from both the trainees' and the school-based mentor's point of view. This is followed by a discussion of expected foreign language teacher competence and the place of the practicum in competence development.

This volume has been prepared as a tribute to Professor Hanna Komorowska. She is a scholar well-known throughout Poland and the world in the field of applied linguistics, and it is in recognition of her achievements and her service to education that this volume has been put together. Her scholarly range is remarkable and made manifest in the impressive scope of the topics and themes addressed in her published work in didactics, pedagogy, psychology, foreign language teaching methodology, and language acquisition. The variety of issues discussed by the contributors to this volume reflects in a small way the richness of Professor Hanna Komorowska's professional and academic interests. In soliciting these articles and compiling this book, we wish to respect Professor Hanna Komorowska

not only as a distinguished international scholar but also as our friend, colleague, and mentor to generations of students and researchers.

The Editors

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Acknowledgments

We wish to express our thanks to Professor Maria Wysocka for her review of this volume.

Contents

Part I
Approaches to Language, Language Teaching and Learning

The 'Imperial' Life of Natural Languages

Stanisław Puppel

Abstract In the article, a view is proposed that any natural living language participates in the natural language global arena (NaLGA). Moreover, natural languages, viewed as embodied entities, demonstrate varied identities due to the interplay of the parameters of militancy, tradeoffs, utility, and display, being the constituents of the so-called Imperial Tetragon of Embodiment. It is claimed that present-day natural language diversity may be treated as a 'protective diversity jacket' which, on the one hand, secures the existing 'plurilinguistic landscape' and on the other, also serves as an indicator of humanity's rich alignment with the world. That is why the advancement of a gross process of natural language sustainability should, in the long run, secure the preservation of humanity's maximum cognitive-cultural-linguistic resources.

Habent sua fata linguae

1 Introductory Remarks

All living natural languages are invariably and inevitably placed within the Natural Language Global Arena (hence NaLGA) where they most naturally go into contact with each other and where they all compete and cooperate for the furthering of their existence via inter- and trans-linguistic communicator contacts. At present, it is estimated that the NaLGA may contain as many as about 6,900 living languages (see Grimes 2000; Lewis 2009), all differing by the general parameter of 'natural language robustness' (cf. Puppel 2007b). The said concept allows one to make an assumption that all living natural languages may be thought to form a

S. Puppel (✉)
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland
e-mail: spuppel@amu.edu.pl

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'plurilinguistic landscape', where the particular languages are characterized by a large variety of degrees of robustness, i.e. as ranging from the most robust to the least robust. In terms of the criterion of survivability, such a natural inequality obviously favours those languages which may be tagged 'the most robust natural language'. Moreover, such languages tend to demonstrate inertial participation in the life of the NaLGA via establishing some kind of dominance over other, less robust, natural languages in the course of language contact.

In what follows, natural languages are regarded as institutions, as forms of embodiment occurring on Earth, that is, as socially and culturally constructed entities with inherently distinct identities (Id) being the result of the interplay of the four parameters which constitute the so-called 'Imperial Tetragon of Embodiment' (hence ITE). The interplay underlines the occurrence of a multiplicity of embodied entities, that is, the various forms of embodiment encountered on Earth. The above parameters comprise the following: Militancy (M), Tradeoffs (T), Utility (U), and Display (D). As indicated above, they are assumed to characterize the dynamic (i.e. ever changing) identity of any institution including any natural language being used today (see Fig. nr 1). The postulated Imperial Tetragon of Embodiment (ITE, see Puppel 2009, for preliminary definitions of the four parameters; also Puppel 2011a) may be presented in the following way:

The said parameters are jointly responsible for allowing any natural language to claim its 'imperial' status, understood as an entity characterized by the highest values of the four parameters (M-T-U-D). More precisely, the concentration and implementation of the highest values of these parameters are assumed to allow any NL to proceed into the 'imperial' phase, that is, into a phase where its highest degree of overall fitness and dominance over other languages is demonstrated. Obviously, one can imagine that it is rather unlikely that in the NaLGA, all the NLs attain the imperial status vis–vis each other. What is more likely, however, is that the parameters are related to each other in such a way that a necessary and inevitable interplay among them results in the generation of a whole plethora of degrees of Natural Language Robustness (NLR) which can be generated on a dichotomous scale ranging from 'the most robust' (in this case it is English with about two billion users, both native and non-native ones, see e.g. Crystal 1997) to

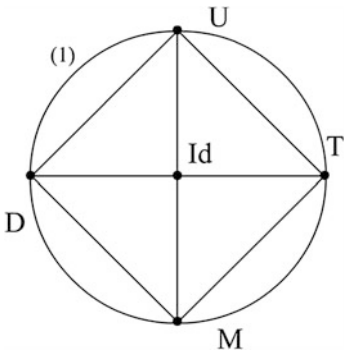

Fig. 1 The Imperial Tetragon of Embodiment (ITE)

'the least robust' natural language (at this moment it may be, for example, Ter Sami, an Eastern Sami language, spoken in the northeast of the Kola Peninsula, Russia, with only ten users reported as actively using it, see Lewis 2009, as shown in Fig. nr 2). Needless to say, these parameters contribute to the formation of different natural languages' changeable identities.

2 Natural Language Diversity as a Protective Diversity Jacket

The fact of there occurring so many natural languages in the present-day NaLGA is no doubt of great significance for the human race, for it somehow is responsible for humanity's collective cognitive-cultural-linguistic potential in dealing with the regionally diversified 'physical' complexities of the world as a foundation for the human habitat. In other words, the existing natural language diversity, so distinctly attested in Grimes (2000) and Lewis (2009), with different languages demonstrating diversified NLR, must be viewed as a very efficient and necessarily 'protective language diversity jacket' for humanity dispersed in various local habitats all over the globe and which is using such a diverse number of languages for the purpose of daily communicative practices. As a result, one may state that humanity has always been forced to 'align' with the Earth, that is, establish unique cognitive-semantic-cultural-linguistic relationships with the local biogeomorphological dynamic contexts ranging from the sub-arctic regions to the desert and savannah grassland to temperate farmland and tropical rainforest conditions (see e.g. Costall and Still 1987; Chapin et al. 1992; Ingold 1994; Hirsch and O'Hanlon 1995; Rayner 1997; Ingold 2000) in what may be called the humanity's 'overall adaptive process'.

The occurrence of this protective jacket, containing such a rich number of natural languages currently in use, both large (heavy) and small (light), while demonstrating greater or smaller degrees of NLR and necessary environmental alignments, but above all, regionally determined linguistic creativity (as emphasized by Whorf, Boas 1940; Sapir 1921; Fishman 1982; Pűtz and Verspoor 2000; Everett 2005; and Deutscher 2011), is a major warranty that humanity may continue to have at its disposal a well-functioning cognitive-cultural-linguistic assistance kit whose presence is necessary in dealing adequately with the said regionally diversified physical complexities of the world as human habitat. One would therefore venture to say that there occurs a direct relationship between NL diversity and humanity's cognitive-cultural-linguistic efficiency and overall linguistic fitness, best expressed by the infinitely variable parameter of NLR, in

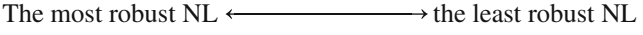

Fig. 2 Types of NLs with respect to the dominance of a particular parameter

dealing with the world's natural complexities to the extent that the following general statement may be offered:

> the thicker is the protective language diversity jacket and the bigger is the number of natural languages occurring in the NaLGA, the greater are humanity's overall cognitive-cultural-linguistic resources and the greater is the linguistic-communicative performance potential, and thus the greater and richer is humanity's alignment with the world.

A simple reversal of this interdependence allows one to expect that if the protective language diversity jacket is weakened or removed completely, the consequence may be envisaged that a possible (but, in reality, highly unlikely) formation of a 'mono-linguistic landscape' would ensue. Put simply, the absence of this protective jacket, with only one natural language roaming around as the total winner and as the only one being acquired as a first language, humanity's overall cognitive-cultural-linguistic capacity may also be drastically reduced.

That is why the development and maintenance of efficient NL protection-preservation programs, both on the global, regional, and local scales, in order to ensure the biggest possible number of NLs being operative in the NaLGA (see Puppel 2007b, 2011b) is most desirable and thus most welcome. It should also become obvious that a successful implementation of such programs, either through governmental agencies' activities (language planning) or individual actions of appropriately enlightened native communicators, determined to act as staunch defenders of their native (ethnic, local) languages, would, in the long run, secure the 'imperial' position of language as such and of the particular NLs considered as both the highest achievement and most robust marker of humanity, at least with respect to the following general domains:

- securing language inevitability (against other communicative modalities, e.g. the visual-tactile and olfactory ones, and other communication systems)
- securing NL diversification and the sustainability of the plurilinguistic landscape in the NaLGA
- securing NL adaptability to changing biogeomorphological conditions
- securing humanity's overall peak cognitive-cultural-linguistic performance potential thus showing locally determined alignment, that is, cognitive-cultural-linguistic 'domestication' of the various biogeomorphological environments.

3 Conclusion

As a conclusion of this brief essay, one may offer a quotation from Wilhelm von Humboldt's opus magnum (1836/1999) who may be regarded as a pioneer of the preservation of NL diversity, and who stated that:

> *There resides in every language a characteristic world-view. As the individual sound stands between man and the object, so the entire language steps in between him and the nature that operates, both inwardly and outwardly, upon him* (1999: 60)

One may therefore conclude at this point that the protective function of natural language diversity, as presented in the discussion above, especially through the occurrence of the protective diversity jacket, may be assumed to best represent the most elementary guise of the 'imperial' character of human language, both as a unique communication system and as a rich diversity of local languages, also as an embodied institution which Man has managed to erect and develop in the service of mediating between Man and Nature. Indeed, nothing should prevent us from abstaining from our getting involved in the gross process of NL diversity protection to assure the sustainability of maximum overall cognitive-cultural-linguistic resources.

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Research Traditions in Applied Linguistics

Anna Ewert

Abstract The relationship between linguistics and applied linguistics has been a long and arduous one. The present chapter aims to describe this relationship from the point of view of a Polish applied linguist. The introductory section demonstrates a need for precise definitions of the scope of applied linguistics and its relation to other disciplines with a view to providing for its future development. The sections that follow trace the history of applied linguistics, focusing on milestones in professional and scholarly development. The final section presents implications for applied linguistics research in Poland.

1 Introduction

Numerous authors have attempted to define the scope of applied linguistics (e.g. Corder 1973; Widdowson 1980; Brumfit 1995; Grabe 2002; Davies and Elder 2004; Li Wei 2007). This is understandable, bearing in mind that applied linguistics is a relatively young field of study in comparison to many other well-established academic disciplines. While the need to learn foreign languages has been appreciated even in antiquity, applied linguistics has a much shorter research tradition than, for example, astronomy or mathematics, spanning decades rather than centuries. Since the field is young, there is a need to define and redefine its identity while new theoretical developments and empirical findings accrue.

However, what appears to be applied linguists' constant search for identity cannot be explained by relatively brief temporal duration of scholarly effort alone. The very term applied linguistics appeared in a certain historical context that provided rationale for this particular wording. After decades of research in both

A. Ewert (✉)
Faculty of English Adam Mickiewicz University,
Poznań al.Niepodległosci 4 61-874 Poznań, Poland
e-mail: eanna@wa.amu.edu.pl

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linguistics and applied linguistics that context is no longer relevant and the term applied linguistics is becoming more confusing than explanatory. While there are still linguists who do applied research nowadays, many applied linguists no longer consider themselves to be linguists and there are others who do not see their work as applied science.

Since there is often little understanding outside the profession of what applied linguistics is, the questions of who we are, where we have come from, where we are or should be going are the essential ones. Answers to these questions not only define our identity. They also determine the standing and the future of the profession.

2 The Rise of a Profession

Modern foreign language teaching began in the second half of the 19th century, when economic and cultural changes led to increase in international trade and provided more travel opportunities, thus raising the awareness of foreign language knowledge as a personal asset. Two developments were crucial here. One of these was more widespread introduction of modern foreign language education to school curricula. On the other hand, according to Brown (1987), modern foreign language teaching began when visionaries such as Gouin and Berlitz created their innovative foreign language teaching methods. Although these methods were generally not available to school learners, they constituted a conscious, and very successful commercially in the case of Berlitz, attempt to improve the effectiveness of language teaching. However, Gouin and Berlitz were not alone. Dissatisfaction with the grammar-translation method prevalent at secondary schools led many teachers and philologists to publish their recommendations for foreign language teaching (e.g. Viëtor 1882; Sweet 1899; Jespersen 1904; cf. Howatt 1982, 1984).

The introduction of foreign language instruction to school curricula led to the rise of a profession and created a need for vocational training. At the turn of the century, in America, there were already a number of professional associations for foreign language teachers and there were modern language departments at a number of universities (Kayser 1916). In 1916 *The Modern Language Journal* was established as a scholarly journal of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations. The intention of the founders of both the journal and the federation was to raise the status of language teaching as an academic discipline and to create a forum for professional discussion of more than a local reach.

The impact of these early developments should not be underestimated. Berlitz schools, *The Modern Language Journal* and the federation exist until today, serving language learners, language teachers and researchers. What is relevant is that these early professionals considered themselves neither linguists nor philologists, they considered themselves modern language teachers. This tradition is maintained at universities in the English-speaking countries, where linguistics departments are separate from modern languages departments.

We would not call those early professionals applied linguists either. Linguistics at that time was mainly preoccupied with the study of the history of languages and, as such, had little to offer that could be in any sense applied. Gouin and Berlitz based their teaching recommendations either on their own learning experience or on the observation of others. De Saussure and the interest in synchronic studies were yet to come.

3 The Birth of Applied Linguistics

The advent of structuralism in linguistics created a potential for productive interaction between language teaching and linguistics. The first efforts to produce teaching materials based on structural comparison of two languages were undertaken by Czech authors in the 1920s (Fisiak 1984), but it took World War 2 for this potential to come to fruition. The United States' entry into World War 2 and the subsequent Cold War period created a need for effective foreign language instruction for military personnel. The first secret US Army foreign language school opened in 1941 (DLIFLC 2012), followed by numerous similar facilities. The military foreign language programmes set up new standards for foreign language teaching by creating what was then colloquially referred to as the Army method (Brown 1987) and later on as the audiolingual method. The audiolingual method, firmly rooted in two powerful theories of the time, behaviourism in psychology and structuralism in linguistics, was considered to be the first truly scientific language teaching method. Military funding allowed to engage leading American linguists of the time in the preparation of teaching materials. It was the linguist Leonard Bloomfield who introduced the concept of language habit (Bloomfield 1933), otherwise unknown to psychologists, on which this method rested. Taking this as the starting point, Robert Lado (1957) formulated the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, which stimulated research in contrastive linguistics with a view to applying the results of these studies to the practical end of preparing teaching materials.

While there were many precursors, pointing to both theoretical and practical aspects of the study of linguistics, the very term applied linguistics was probably officially used for the first time in the title of the *Language Learning* journal founded in 1948, which was subtitled as *A Journal of Applied Linguistics* until the 1970s (Guiora 2005). Discussions over what applied linguistics is and what its scope of enquiry is accompanied the field from its very beginning, although from its very birth the name has been predominantly used to mean language teaching. The researchers gathered around the new journal considered themselves to be linguists and their mission was to apply the findings of linguistics to solve problems in the real world.

Since its very inception, applied linguistics has been an interdisciplinary field of study. In the first volume of *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* van Teslaar (1963) examines the contribution to applied

linguistics from the following disciplines: general linguistics, acoustic, articulatory and instrumental phonetics, the psychology of perception, learning and personality, cultural anthropology, and audio-visual methodology.

However, disillusionment with the linguistic line of research was apparent by the late 1960s. At the Georgetown University Round Table on contrastive linguistics and its pedagogical implications Stockwell (1968) vehemently argued that contrastive studies are important for linguistics *per se*, at the same time denying applied linguistics the status of a separate research field:

> The relations between linguistic theory and language teaching are much more indirect than has sometimes been supposed—just as the relations between actual speech performance and the abstract characterization of grammatical structure are remote and indirect. If applied linguistics constitutes a field at all (and I am somewhat dubious that it does), the goal of the field must be to elucidate these exceedingly indirect and abstract relations.
>
> (Stockwell 1968: 12)

A response to Stockwell came during the same Round Table from Rivers (1968) who saw limited applicability of contrastive studies in language teaching. It has to be noticed that the argument presented by Rivers at that time was linguistic in nature, since she criticized contrastive studies for imposing an etic perspective on language teaching, in which selected structures are approached in isolation, and not emically, that is in the way in which they function in the second language system.

The argument between Stockwell and Rivers, cited by Fisiak (1984) as a mark of disillusionment with pedagogically oriented contrastive studies, was actually a conflict between a linguist, raised in the philological tradition, who was becoming fed up with the futility of doing research the results of which might or might not be applied by someone else, and an applied linguist, a modern language practitioner from Australia, who saw limited applicability of these linguistic analyses.

As applied linguists had by that time realized that linguistics will not be able to provide answers to all the questions they were asking, separation between linguistics and applied linguistics became imminent.

4 The Birth of SLA

By the early 1970s, under the influence of Chomsky's early work, applied linguists adopted what Cook (1993) retrospectively calls the independent grammars assumption. This assumption was shared by a number of theoretical proposals (Corder 1967, 1971; Nemser 1971; Selinker 1972) positing that a learner's language is a linguistic system in its own right and should be studied on its own, and not as a deviation from some perfect form of language. The term interlanguage, coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to this independent system, was soon adopted by other researchers.

It is generally agreed that the late 1960s marked the birth of a new field of study—second language acquisition research as another young academic discipline (Davies, Criper and Howatt 1984; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991; Cook 1993; Ellis 1994; Gass and Selinker 2008; Ortega 2009). As Cook (1993: 19) says: "The interlanguage concept provided SLA research with an identifiable field of study that belonged to no one else". SLA pioneers chose the language of the second language learner as their unique object of study, which is a distinguishing feature of an independent academic discipline.

However, the significance of this change in the focus of interest was not recognized until some years later. This happened for a number of reasons. First of all, the first generation of second language researchers, endorsing Chomsky's views on language and denouncing the behaviourist and structuralist paradigm of contrastive studies, were no different from the new generation of American linguists who made the cognitive revolution transform American linguistics in the 1970s. As Larsen-Freeman (2007: 775) recalls her experience of the 1970s: "Even in those early days, we believed we were witnessing the birth of a new field—one that did not see language as behavior, one that no longer ignored the mind, one that put cognitivism squarely at the forefront of its explanations". Thus, the innovation came from linguistics and was seen as part of revolution in linguistics.

Secondly, inasmuch as the new generation of researchers denounced the ideology behind the contrastive studies of the previous generation, just like the previous generation they saw their role as applied linguists in applying the findings of linguistics to real-world problems. This approach is probably best exemplified by Corder's (1973: 10) statement: "The applied linguist is a consumer, or user, not a producer, of theories".

The situation, as we see it in retrospect, was quite paradoxical: an autonomous field of study began to develop within what was considered to be an applied branch of another autonomous field.

5 Separation from Linguistics

In North America modern language teaching was strong as a profession and academic discipline already in the first half of the 20th century. The rise of structuralism and proliferation of contrastive studies, aiming at providing scientific foundations for language teaching, led to a redefinition of an already thriving field as applied linguistics. For many, applied linguistics became synonymous with modern foreign language teaching. Although it was quickly realized that the findings of linguistics are not directly applicable to language teaching, the connection between linguistics and applied linguistics continued to be strong. Prior to 1990 the American Association for Applied Linguistics held its annual meetings jointly with the Linguistic Society of America (AAAL 2012). After 1990 the two organizations went their own ways, as it became evident by then that linguists and applied linguists had entirely different research agendas. Angelis (2001, cited in

Davies and Elder 2004) states that after 1990 there was a "proliferation of language activities with minimal direct ties to linguistics".

The situation was quite different in other parts of the world. National and international associations of applied linguists, founded in the 1960s, did not define their aims through the lens of linguistics. The British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) defined its scope of interest as "the study of language use, language acquisition and language teaching and the fostering of interdisciplinary collaboration in this study" (BAAL 1997). According to Davies (Davies and Elder 2004), the British researchers made a deliberate attempt to establish applied linguistics as an autonomous field of study. Representative of this British tradition was Widdowson's (1979, 1980, 1984) call for autonomy of applied linguistics and independence from linguistic theories. In his view, linguistic models are inadequate for language teaching and applied linguists should construct models of their own. While Corder (1973) saw the relevance of linguistics in providing the applied linguist with detailed descriptions of language, Widdowson (1984) argues that linguistic models of language represent an analyst's perspective on language, and not language user's, because language users rarely engage in this kind of analytic activity in real life. However, on close inspection, Widdowson's (1984) critique of linguistics is a critique of a certain vision of linguistics. The kind of model of language he was calling for at that time would comprise, among others, Halliday's functionalism, Gricean pragmatics and Labovian sociolinguistics.

In his call for independence of applied linguistics, Widdowson (1980) introduced an important distinction between applied linguistics and linguistics applied. What Widdowson calls linguistics applied is, as a matter of fact, the old understanding of applied linguistics as applying the findings of linguistics to real-life problems. Applied linguistics proper, in this view, constructs its own theoretical models:

> For linguistics applied, therefore, the question of central concern is: how far can existing models of description in linguistics be used to resolve the practical problems of language use we are concerned with. For applied linguistics, the central question is: how can *relevant* models of language description be devised, what are the factors which will determine their effectiveness.
>
> (Widdowson 1980: 165)

Theoretical models of its own are one characteristic of a separate academic discipline. Another, and no less important one, is separate research questions. Davies and Elder (2004) describe the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics in the following way:

> While linguistics is primarily concerned with language in itself and with language problems is so far as they provide evidence for better language description or for teaching a linguistic theory, applied linguistics is interested in language problems for what they reveal about the role of language in people's daily lives and whether intervention is either possible or desirable.
>
> (Davies and Elder 2004: 11–12)

Davies and Elder (2004) also note that the distinction between linguistics applied and applied linguistics introduced by Widdowson (1980) is a fuzzy one,

with some areas of applied linguistics being highly theoretical and descriptive, while others are more practice-oriented. An example to illustrate this fuzziness can be taken from Grabe (2002) who, like numerous other sources, includes in the realm of applied linguistics language contact problems as well as language use problems such as, for example, dialects and registers. The problem here is that these research areas also belong respectively to contact linguistics and sociolinguistics, much of which is not applied in any sense of the word.

Li Wei (2007) goes even further, stating that while linguistics is predominantly concerned with language, applied linguistics is primarily concerned with the language user. Actually, his proposal places applied linguistics on a par with linguistics, as in this view applied linguistics becomes a different kind of linguistics with a different focus, different research agendas and methodologies. He calls this kind of linguistics a user-centred or user-friendly linguistics.

As a matter of fact, Li Wei's (2007) distinction between linguistics and user-friendly linguistics obliterates some of the problems induced by Widdowson's (1980) applied linguistics/linguistics applied perspective. In the example given above, research in contact linguistics or sociolinguistics can belong either to linguistics or to user-centred linguistics, depending on the perspective adopted by the researcher.

6 Conclusions and Implications

Although the term applied linguistics originated in the 1940s, what we mean by applied linguistics today had its origins about 100 years ago when modern foreign language teaching established itself as a profession with the first academic departments, professional associations and journals. When applied linguistics appeared on the scene in the 1940s, it embraced those earlier traditions and attainments. At the very same time applied linguistics was very strongly connected with a certain theoretical orientation in linguistics. This relationship was both a blessing and a curse. On one hand, the union attracted research funds that contributed to intensification of research effort and improvement of academic standards, but on the other, in the longer run, it turned out to be a troubled relationship. Disillusionment with this line of enquiry was evident on both sides already by the late 1960s, as the argument between Stockwell and Rivers discussed above demonstrates. The change of theoretical paradigms in linguistics that followed was particularly welcomed by a younger generation of researchers in applied linguistics who saw it as an opportunity for themselves. This change eventually led to the emergence of second language acquisition research as a more theoretically oriented field of applied linguistics. While second language research flourished, testing out new theories in linguistics, it became apparent that applied linguistics is not really an applied science in the way other sciences are applied to solve real world problems. By the early 1990s it became evident that linguistics and applied linguistics have entirely different research agendas.

The situation was quite different in Poland. The teaching of modern foreign languages was not a priority for the communist authorities. Most foreign language departments at Polish universities were closed down by 1952 (Fisiak 1983), to be gradually restored in the late 1950s and the 1960s. The Poznań Polish-English contrastive project, involving researchers from various departments in Poland, started in the 1960s (Fisiak 1973), but eventually it turned out to be more linguistically oriented than applied. In 1982 there were 2 professors and docents in English language teaching in Poland, as compared to 14 in English linguistics (Fisiak 1983). Foreign language teaching received more due attention in the 1990s, when numerous teacher training colleges opened throughout the country.

The above enumeration shows that Polish applied linguists have always been outnumbered by linguists in modern languages departments. While this fact in itself should have neither negative nor positive consequences, it seems that as a community of researchers we should work to increase visibility of research in applied linguistics and raise awareness of what the scope and aims of applied linguistics research are. As, once again, Stockwell and Rivers showed decades ago, the expectations of linguists and applied linguists might be completely different. Applied linguists seek to solve problems affecting people's lives, or provide knowledge that might help to solve these problems in the future. They focus on language users and not on language as an abstract entity. Applied linguists may contribute to linguistic theories sometimes, but they should not be expected to do so on a regular basis simply because they are not linguists and this is not their research agenda. In related fields of study, what seems to be an important problem to one researcher might be a trivial issue to another. Lack of awareness of these differences might affect decisions concerning funding and promotion.

Finally, as linguistics and applied linguistics are getting further and further apart, misunderstanding may result from the language they use. To quote Li Wei again:

> Each discipline develops its own jargon. Communication across disciplines may prove to be difficult since it requires the use of technical terms that are not well understood by colleagues in the other relevant disciplines. Even when the same terms are used, the intended meanings and connotations may be misinterpreted due to lack of a common background.
>
> (Li Wei 2008: 16)

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Foreign Language Didactics as a Human Science

Maria Dakowska

Abstract Various aspects of foreign language didactics as a discipline have been in focus of my interest: the field's characteristics as a relatively autonomous (as opposed to primarily interdisciplinary) academic endeavor in search of understanding; the field's constitution as a science as opposed to pre-science or language teaching methodology; the meaning of "normal science" at the time of questioning the cognitive power of sciences; and last, but not least, the field's properties as an empirical scientific discipline with pure and applied goals. Constraints resulting from the above considerations justify a bottom-up strategy of modeling the field's subject matter. In contrast to the influential linguistically-driven top-down strategy, this means targeting human beings who use language in verbal communication, i.e. act as producers and comprehenders of verbal messages in speech and writing (Balconi ed. 2010). The fact that the subject matter of foreign language didactics is constituted by human subjects involved in language use brings us to the main question of the article: What is the significance of this modeling strategy for the overall characterization of language use in foreign language didactics as a subfield of humanities. The article lists and discusses nineteen properties of language use in this decentered, humanly anchored perspective in clear contrast with the view of language as a formal system unfolding in time, influential in the earlier stages of foreign language research. The ensuing characteristics cluster around such more general issues as the whole-person involvement in verbal communication; life-span development of language use; the centrality of meaning and its constructive and evaluative nature. The nineteen features resulting from the bottom-up modeling strategy selected for the field of foreign language teaching provide further support for discriminating between the criteria of science in the hard or natural sciences and in the humanities.

M. Dakowska (✉)
University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: m.b.dakowska@uw.edu.pl

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1 The Question

The article focuses on the extent of modifications in our strategies of constructing the notion of language learning in the field of foreign language didactics in recent decades. The beginnings of this process are marked by linguistic influences on the field of second/foreign language learning and teaching with a monolithic notion of language as an abstract system of forms, abstract in the sense of disconnected from the human subject where language lives and abstract because disconnected from space and time. This powerful linguistic notion was combined with some psychological factors responsible for learning in general rather than language-specific learning. Human elements factored out in the synchronic notion of language were selectively reinserted as psychological or individual factors derived from psychology. Compatible with this notion was the underlying idea of second/foreign language acquisition/learning as the process of identifying target language grammar and unfolding as a series of target-like or non-target-like forms (More on these issues, see Dakowska 1993, 1996, 1997, 2000, 2003, 2010).

The next impulse for modifications in the notion of language learning was given by the classical and most often-quoted article on Interlanguage, in which Larry Selinker (1972) defined learner language as a natural language system, governed by its own laws and developing as certain interim forms en route from L1 to L2. The notion of interlanguage was propagated in countless studies and gave rise to a new discipline of second language acquisition research (SLAR). The subsequent step in the modifications was Krashen's introduction of the dichotomy of unconscious acquisition and conscious learning, which generated a wave of criticism and reactions leading to a recognition of the role of consciousness, attention and noticing in the field of SLAR, which concretized the notion of language learning even further. Moreover, cognitive research on language learning strategies and continued interest in individual differences as well as the impact of various ideas from cognitive psychology produced a still more specific conceptual map of factors relevant to the concept of language learning, bringing in such dichotomies as declarative-procedural knowledge, implicit-explicit learning, intentional-incidental learning, rule-based/data-driven learning, to name the most important ones (cf. Doughty and Long 2003).

This top-down trend to concretize the initially general notion of language learning derived from the abstract view of language as a system of forms brought it closer to the empirical concerns of the discipline investigating second/foreign language learning/acquisition. However, at this point, a fundamental question appears: are these reactive developments and conceptual dichotomies adequate enough to represent human beings involved in language use and learning in their sociocultural environment? In other words: can we assume that the human beings as implied in these representations really exist in the real world?

2 What is the Alternative?

It seems quite logical to claim that the field of foreign language learning and teaching would benefit considerably in terms of the verisimilitude, specificity and adequacy of its model representations by pursuing the opposite, bottom-up trend of idealization. As a result, its subject matter could be defined with reference to real human beings as the raw material for model construction to represent relevant aspects of language as anchored in, inalienable from, and used by the human subjects/agents for the humanly reasonable purposes in their sociocultural environment. In other words, the field's subject matter could be defined as the phenomenon of language use and learning in verbal communication, i.e. as a form of human interaction, as events in space and time. In this bottom-up idealization strategy, guidelines for selecting factors relevant for language learning could be derived from two significant sources:

1. from the phenomenon of verbal communication as a point of reference and a source of orientation for model representations, and
2. from various constraints on the subject matter derived from the field's constitution as a 'normal', relatively autonomous empirical discipline.

Such a reversal of the field's strategy of constructing the notion of language learning can no longer be regarded as a modification, but a fairly profound restructuring in the entire framework of the field. The questions to be addressed at this stage are:

1. What level of specificity for constructing the notion of language learning can be accomplished with this strategy? and
2. What are the consequences of this specificity for foreign language didactics as a relatively autonomous empirical discipline?

3 The Nature of Restructuring

In the humanities, the term "restructuring" is used with reference to changes which take place in the system under investigation which bring about its qualitatively new state. Talking about human development, McLaughlin (1990: 6) points out:

> (...) there appears to be agreement that not just any change constitutes restructuring. Restructuring is characterized by discontinuous, or qualitative, change as the child moves from stage to stage in development. Each new stage constitutes a new internal organization and not merely the addition of new structural element….restructuring can be seen as a process in which the components of a task are coordinated, integrated, or reorganized into new units, thereby allowing the procedure involving old components to be replaced by a more efficient procedure involving new components.

Restructuring seems to be an appropriate term to deal with the dynamics of efforts—which are of central importance to our field—of representing the complexity of language in the process of language learning and teaching as a network of factors, especially with view to entailing the mechanisms of transition which are called into play, in order to capture the discontinuity as well as new qualities in these modeling outcomes.

4 What Justifies Idealization?

The notion of 'normal' science is understood in a neutral, generic sense, as specialized coordinated human—intra- as well as inter-personal—cognitive and communicative processes targeted at some object of investigation which may, but does not have to, be a phenomenon in the empirical reality, in order to explore and explain it. This is in no conflict with the notion of 'normal science' used by Kuhn in his 1962 classic, which he referred to the state of science between paradigm shifts. The gratifications of science include satisfying our natural cognitive curiosity as well as enabling us to survive in the environment, and sometimes to influence, regulate, or even control it. In contrast to art, literary criticism, magic, or mysticism, scientific operations are recursive, selective, organized, orchestrated, and aimed at hypotheses to be verified or falsified by evidence/data and other reasoning processes. These processes are regulated, systematic, planned, goal-oriented, and incorporating feedback, as well as defined, explicit, formalized, specialized, elaborated, based on wide knowledge representations, communicable, and socially known. However, a 'normal' science framework is the structure and agenda of our research operations imposed on the intellectual space which can refer either to a purely mental/formal construct, i.e. a construct without a deliberate reference to a phenomenon in the empirical reality, or to a spatiotemporal occurrence, i.e. a phenomenon in its technical sense. As we link a distinct empirical domain with the framework of science and launch its requisite inquiry procedures, i.e. agenda in the sense of a goal-oriented hierarchical plan, we come up with an academic or scientific discipline in operation (Giere 1988, 1999, 2006; Giere ed. 1992). The essential attributes of the 'normal' science framework relevant to the problem in question are as follows:

1. a 'normal' science including the field of foreign language didactics accepts the following almost inseparable, yet indispensable values: academic identity, i.e. the awareness of its own distinct specificity residing in its subject matter, which enables it to stand out among other, equally 'normal' scientific disciplines as a relatively independent academic agent rather than an adjunct (sub-part) of some other field, and cognitive autonomy, i.e. the freedom to be guided by its own research concerns and goals, to make requisite choices and take responsibility for them, rather than be reactively preoccupied with research concerns of its neighbors;

2. it designates its domain, i.e. a phenomenon or an aspect thereof, in the empirical reality represented as its subject matter of enquiry; consequently, the discipline's identity, as well as the subsequent research procedures and/or quality criteria, result from the uniqueness of this subject matter being its 'private territory';
3. it sets an agenda, or program, with pure and applied goals, in which pure goals implement a series of generally accepted research steps and operations aimed at understanding the phenomenon under investigation, while the applied ones make use of this understanding to institute, elicit, reinstate, meliorate, regulate, control, facilitate, cultivate and otherwise enhance the phenomenon in question; this does not rule out the possibility that applied questions may initiate research at the pure level and vice versa;
4. the field's subject matter is determined by two important coordinates, generality and scope; the degree of generality may range from the most specific to the most abstract, even universal level, whereas the extent or scope refers to the natural or otherwise defined borders of the phenomenon under investigation;
5. the field fosters ongoing communication between the levels, bottom-up and top-down interactions, leading to mutual adjustments and modifications of theoretical explanations, empirical testing or modeling of the subject matter, as well as lateral interactions among the factors defined in the model of the subject matter; since the humanities share various elements of their subject matter and, consequently, some research concerns, various alliances and information trading can be justified, if not inevitable.

To be able to address the relevant phenomenon in the empirical reality the field of foreign language didactics cannot make use of the predominantly top-down flow of information, characteristic of the earlier stages of its development. Instead, it must direct its focus of attention to the occurrences/events in space and time, especially operations of language use performed by people in order to develop a model of its subject-matter by way of idealization, a quintessentially bottom-up representation. This focus on events in space and time is commensurate with the required degree of specificity for the field with aspirations to applications. Once the field investigates real processes, the resulting understanding of their regularities can be converted into applications to benefit the teaching of non-primary languages in the educational setting. In order to accomplish this goal, the field must explicitly and consistently define itself as empirical as opposed to formal, i.e. it must target phenomena in the empirical reality. In order to meet this criterion, it must incorporate spatiotemporal constraints on its subject matter representation to come up with an empirical system. Such a system categorizes language learning and teaching processes as located and performed by people involved in verbal communication (Dakowska 2003, 2010). Further orientation regarding the nature of these processes results from:

1. the nature of the human subjects as agents of verbal communication, i.e. living organisms trying to survive and satisfy their needs in their human ecosystem, in other words—in their sociocultural environment;
2. the nature of the human cognitive locus of communicative operations and processes, i.e. human information processing with its subsystems (perception, attention, memory, anticipation, retrospection, planning, monitoring, feedback, as well as controlled and automatic processes;
3. the nature of verbal communication, i.e. the interaction between the sender and the addressee by way of production and comprehension of verbal messages in speech and writing, in numerous specialized sociocultural varieties and domains of verbal communication in the real word;
4. the scope and nature of our reasoning processes used for learning about ourselves and the world and reflecting (generalizing) upon verbal communication, especially the language code;
5. the nature of language as the code of verbal communication, first and foremost, its distinct specificity among other information systems processed by the human being justifying a fair amount of cognitive autonomy of the whole discipline.

5 Foreign Language Didactics as a 'Normal' Academic Discipline

The main reason why the field of foreign language learning and teaching should become an academic discipline is that this seems to be a tangible route to sorting out its problems of identity and constitution in order to meet the expectations of the society at large, i.e. providing rational foundations for language teaching in the form of its own applications. The program of a 'normal' academic discipline can considerably reduce the level of uncertainty in dealing with various problems and aspects of defining the notion of foreign language use and learning.

Because the field is expected to develop applications, it must turn to language use and learning as a phenomenon in the real world, especially in order to define its unique perspective. The framework of a 'normal' academic discipline can make this focus comprehensive and specific enough so that the field can zero in on its own territory with the relevant aspect of the phenomenon represented as its subject matter to justify its academic identity and status as an empirical, essentially autonomous discipline. Such a program can enhance the field's internal articulation, especially the awareness of its levels of generality and methods of research, with prospects for social coordination of research activities, not to mention the field's autonomy inextricable from its healthy relationships with other fields. Its advantages include the following:

1. Since the field accepts its obligations to the society at large, the program enables the discipline to provide useful knowledge, i.e. knowledge specific

enough to be implemented in the classroom. The program of a 'normal' academic discipline can be seen as a promising option in contrast to various divergent ideas on how to go about foreign language teaching. This qualitative change would eliminate the unproductive power play with other fields in order to focus on the field-internal considerations.

2. The field's autonomy has been treated as the cognitive right to determine its own perspective of language learning. Since cognitive processes are inevitably constructive, this angle must be determined by the purpose at hand, deliberately selected with the use of relevant criteria. As a result, the program of a 'normal' academic discipline targeted at the phenomenon in question shows the route to its own identity, derived from the properties of the subject matter which make it stand out among other fields, in a way that is conducive to pure and applied research.
3. The program of a 'normal' academic discipline directs the field's focus onto its own niche in the real world to make sense of it, i.e. to explain it, which can be achieved by way of its cognitive interaction with the empirical phenomenon, including hypothesis testing as well as other empirical and theoretical procedures. It also carries various constraints, not available otherwise, helpful in targeting language learning as inseparable from the language learner, who is the locus of the relevant processes and the agent of the requisite operations and interactions in a typical human environment, social and cultural, so that the ensuing knowledge about language learning can be translated into language teaching. In a broad sense, foreign language teaching may be understood as a way of recreating language learning in exactly the same type of language learning agent as the one who has been the source of exploration and applicable knowledge to begin with.
4. Language learning is treated as a unitary concept rather than a sum of two components: language and learning, 'unitary' for having an underlying unit. The elementary notion in this unitary view underlying numerous facets of language is information, which takes increasingly compounded forms, associations and hierarchies in human cognition. This enables us to formulate a classical definition of the subject mater in which first a broad category (here: human information processing) is singled out, in which a specific difference is then found to make the object of the definition stand out from other such cases (here: language-specific forms of information in their different manifestations, as well as language-specific information processing). This is in contrast with conceptualizing foreign language learning as acquiring grammar, i.e. a self-contained system of forms, and focusing on language forms as the units of learning, with its stages of acquisition defined as serialization of forms.

6 Empirical Constraints in Modelling Language Learning as Language Use

My emphasis on the role of model representations is justified by the fact that each model outlines a unique problem space which affords its own type of exploration, i.e. sets of questions, data gathering, interpretations and predictions, and, by the same token, its own type of understanding. Constraints in the program of a 'normal' academic discipline are a welcome source of orientation and can be grouped as external and internal to the field.

1. The external constraints result from the relationship of the discipline with the society at large, e.g. its responsibility to provide knowledge applicable in language teaching, as well as academia, e.g. the need to protect its distinctiveness among other fields in the humanities, especially language and language learning disciplines. The most significant external constraint comes from the genesis of the discipline of foreign language learning and teaching. The field has been founded to rationalize—not so much to optimize, but to rationalize—foreign language teaching, in other words, to satisfy the social demand for practically useful knowledge, i.e. knowledge specific enough to be used in the foreign language classroom. The ultimate purpose for the discipline of foreign language learning and teaching is to satisfy this demand. Therefore, arguments that scientific research is justified solely by satisfying our cognitive curiosity, i.e. it does not have to produce applications, are not sufficient in this particular case. In the event of some difficulties or failure to come up with practically useful knowledge, the discipline in question cannot avoid the problem, but must, instead, redefine and restructure itself to approach it anew. The stages of pre-scientific or non-scientific developments in the field point to the necessity of (1) following the 'normal' academic discipline program as an orienting agenda which facilitates a coordination of research efforts and the field's full articulation with all the requisite levels and research goals and (2) choosing the empirical as opposed to the formal science format to guarantee that its tools and structure be targeted at, and sensitive to, the information input from the empirical reality.
2. The internal constraints reflect the type of discipline selected—empirical rather than formal—with its functionally specialized, yet interacting levels. This choice determines the source and nature of the model of language learning and its subsequent function inside the discipline.

The above steps commensurate with the constitution of a normal academic discipline lead to the following advantages for the field of foreign language didactics:

1. 'Demystifying language learning'—defining language learning as verbal communication specifies the whole process in terms of realistic categories of

language use in comprehension and production in speech and writing and as reasoning about it, thereby eliminating the 'hocus pocus' element in some of the conceptions about foreign language teaching resulting from imprecise definitions reflecting too general conceptual categories; this creates opportunities for a surge in professional knowledge in the field's numerous specific areas of expertise; the trademark of knowledge is that we can do something practical with it.

2. 'Humanization of the discipline'—by localizing language operations in the human agent foreign language didactics as a normal science targets the human being to represent him/her as a living organism with human cognitive resources substantively linking the field with the human, especially cognitive sciences while deconstructing language forms into an array of more specific categories, relevant from the point of view of language use by the learner.
3. 'Centralization of meaning'—categorizing language use as human communication in the sociocultural context makes our search for meaning and sense the ultimate teleology of human thought and action and the essence of human culture (Hewes 1995); in the normal science framework the notions of the learner as a semantic animal, verbal communication as the transmission of meaning and culture as a network of meanings are tightly integrated;
4. 'Incorporating the environment'—targeting verbal communication as the process of non-primary language learning means taking into account the whole-person involvement in verbal communication; as a result, the discipline of foreign language didactics recognizes the role of external/sociocultural and internal/mental environment in language use and learning, especially the employment of heterogeneous clues, not just linguistic information, in our search for meaning and sense in verbal communication.
5. 'Representing the dynamics of language learning'—by representing language use and learning as human communicative interaction the whole process is depicted as a complex open dynamic polymorphic system unfolding in space and time in contrast to the synchronic self-contained system of forms, be it target or non-target, serialized for the purpose of representing language learning, or in contrast to levels of static competence, be it linguistic or communicative.

7 Foreign Language Didactics as a Humanistic Discipline

Consciousness is a default setting in human cognitive activity (Aitkenhead and Slack 1987; Baars 1997; Baars and Gage eds. 2007; Gillet and McMillan 2001; Koch 2004; Thagard 2005). There is no reason in this framework to argue whether or not language learning is unconscious or subconscious because the processes and operations that have been mentioned in this connection run on our mental energy and take the form of cognitive work, be it in the focus of attention (therefore

available to our awareness) or its periphery, either in the realm of controlled or automatic processes, either as part of incidental or intentional (deliberate) learning, ranging from concentrated effortful study to just learning through observation and participation, including play (Anderson 1983; Barsalou 2009; Benjafield 1992; Eysenck and Keane 1995; Eysenck 2006). Learners are agents of verbal communication and learning in the sense that they are in charge of their own cognitive resources making decisions which tasks to approach and which to avoid, and how much sustained effort to invest in them, like in the concept of motivation. Their engagement in verbal communication and learning is possible only as a result of approaching the task, which can be understood as the decision to dispatch their attentional resources, i.e. cognitive energy and mobilize all subsystems of their information processing equipment (Anderson 1983, 1985; Carroll 1986; Lindsay and Norman 1991; Nęcka et al. 2006). There are a number of factors, not only linguistic, which play a considerable part in these decisions. They include intrinsic needs and motivation (is the communicative event interesting, informative, relevant?), assertiveness needed for interaction, or willingness to communicate on the side of the 'approach' factors, and anxiety, hostility, prejudice, low expectations about oneself on the side of the 'avoidance' factors (Hewes 1995; Jay 2002; Solso 1998; Sternberg 1996). Anxiety, to take an example, unproductively engages cognitive energy in irrelevant aspects of the activity and in this way blocks effective information processing and storage interfering with our performance in the communicative task at hand (Eysenck and Keane 1995; Eysenck 2006).

Only when the communicative task has been accepted, can the processes of communication and learning begin. Cognitive and communicative interactions take the form of energy exchanges between people as well as between people and other environmental stimuli. At the most fundamental level, they take the form of information processing and result both in mapping new information in our memory as well as changes in our existing mental representations, some of them fairly permanent (Anderson 1975; Matlin 1994). Information processing in our brain has metabolic as well as neural correlates (Baars and Gage eds. 2007), but from the point of view of foreign language didactics the most important area of intervention is human interaction in the sociocultural context, which should serve as the source of guidelines regarding the conditions and strategies of foreign language learning and teaching.

8 Conclusion

Since academic disciplines derive their identity as either formal or empirical, natural or otherwise, exact and hard or not so exact and hard, from the subject matter perceived as inert or animate matter, or even as human agents, the above considerations cast a shadow of doubt on the field of foreign language didactics ever matching the criteria of exact hard sciences. However, on a more optimistic note, this does not seem to be necessary and justified in view of the uniquely

Table 1 Properties of language use in communication as a human phenomenon in a bottom-up 'decentered' perspective developed in foreign language didactics

Property of language use	Description
1. Organismic, i.e. possible only in a living organism	Language use is a function of synaptic activities in the brain of a living human organism requiring metabolism to generate energy; in its most elementary sense, communication understood as mutual influence by energy discharges takes place at various orders of magnitude, even at the level of neuronal networks with the help of neurotransmitters
2. Unitary, i.e. possessing an underlying elementary unit	The unit of human cognitive functioning is information, which has its meaning, form and transmitting vehicle propelled by human energy; individual bits of information are structured into clusters and constellations of various complexity and elaboration, to form units of the code; these units are constituted by the users' ability to associate their meanings and forms and impose the forms upon some material vehicle or transmitter, e.g. sound wave, light wave, or texture; various advanced digital forms are possible for further recording and recoding of meaning into forms in production and forms into meanings in comprehension
3. Anthropocentric, i. e. humanly specific	Language is inseparable form the human being; language use is located in, therefore constrained as well as afforded by, the unique nature of human cognitive architecture, thought and action; this presupposes consciousness as default setting of HIP, as well as perception, attention, memory, planning, monitoring, the use of feedback, as well as creative and reasoning processes; in this perspective cognitive aspects of information processing are almost inseparable from the emotional aspects; human resources are limited and subject to fatigue, boredom, malnutrition, illness, etc
4. Other-oriented	Language use, our essential property as social animals, has its directionality within human networks: language use takes place in the context of human relationships, be it more permanent or purely transient; verbal communication and human relationships determine each other; human beings have sending and receiving mechanisms for verbal communication: our cognitive architecture (i.e. human brain) has a generating equipment for the construction and emission of humanly significant messages and a computing equipment for the registration and comprehension of humanly significant messages

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Property of language use	Description
5. Designated for trading meanings	The essence of human relationships is trading in meanings within human networks; human contacts/bonds by means of verbal communication involve shared attentional resources and mutual adjustments; while communicating, senders encode meanings into forms, whereas addressees decode forms into meanings; the most relevant context for the interpretation of meanings is individual and group culture
6. Goal-oriented and dirigible, i.e. (mostly) within human control	Language use is predominantly, though not entirely, an intentional form of other-oriented behaviour, i.e. it is within the person's cognitive control; goal-orientation involves selections from among options, planning, integration and feedback modifications; these properties make language use close to composing; exceptions can certainly be found in schematic language use
7. Involves the whole person	People are engaged in language use with their entire organisms, bodies and minds; language use strategically taps all the areas of human functioning: cognition, volition and emotions; at the same time, all our sensory modalities are employed in an integrated manner; senders and addressees recruit and interpret all the available, potentially relevant clues in the communicative act, not just the linguistic ones
8. Not fully predictable	Language use involves strategic, inferential, interpretive choices to compute not just surface, but deeper, often figurative meaning by subjects with individual levels of intelligence as well as individual and shared knowledge representations; even with their cooperative attitude in a communicative encounter the participants are bound to experience communication problems
9. Multipurpose, i.e. capable of serving all human needs	Language use permeates all areas of human life at the individual and group levels, it serves all human individual and sociocultural purposes, including basic survival and well-being as well as highly sophisticated ones, not to mention the cultural formatting of the young
10. Polymorphic (integrating various forms of representations)	Various forms of representations are used in coding and decoding meaning, they include conceptual, preverbal, and verbal forms as well as lingual, para- and non-lingual forms (body language)
11. Dynamic (flexible and growing)	Language use/learning is located in a state-changing system, i.e. in a living organism developing along the life span; important changes in the process of learning are driven by the subject's maturation and growing experience; endogenous as well as exogenous sources of change in knowledge representations interactively contribute to overall life-span development

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Property of language use	Description
12. Communicable (contagious); transmitted via verbal communication	Language code is learnable by new generations who reconstruct it in communicative processes via observation (and mapping/redescribing the environmental information), imitation/copying, interaction, practice and reasoning; this reconstruction is never 100 % exact, which marks cohort identity as well as drives language change in a diachronic perspective; precision in reconstructing the foreign language code in a formal setting is even more variable; the above processes do not necessarily take place at the level of our focal awareness
13. Strictly organized as well as productive	Language use is both highly productive as well as restricted by the language code; it can be viewed as an ordered system of transformations for coding and decoding meanings with the sole purpose of being understood and understanding the other person respectively; while the code is strictly organized and rule-governed, its combinatorial potential is imposing
14. Conventionalized (based on selection and agreement)	The vast, if not infinite, potential of the language code is somewhat reduced by various sociocultural norms and conventions which select only some, as opposed to all the potentially-available options of language use
15. Multi componential (operating on three states of the language matter)	Language use is best represented as a cycle of three mutually convertible, yet distinct subcomponents: distributed mental representational systems (knowledge), fluid integrated behavioural operations (skill), and fairly stable external linear products (discourse); each state of the matter has its distinctive specificity, not shared with other states; language learners are able—and can be taught—to convert knowledge into skill, skill into discourse, and vice versa with specialized forms of knowledge and practice
16. Hierarchically integrated in time	Language use in production requires complex hierarchically coordinated operations characteristic of skill which involve integration by subordination and synchronization by automatization; these operations select options from among vast knowledge representations and construct them into a linear message in the form of spoken or written discourse; comprehension requires reverse processing
17. Self-diversifying	Both in individuals as well as groups, language use can take a variety of forms ranging from primitive, elementary, and laconic, to highly developed, elaborate and specialized; likewise, functions of language use may be basic, simple and subordinate as well as refined, complex and dominating in various social situations

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Property of language use	Description
18. Personalized in use (allowing personal identification)	Language code has provisions for individuals to make an idiosyncratic use of its devices to the point of creativity, so that speakers may construct their own language style as a form of personal identification, i.e. an idiolect
19. Displaying individual differences in learning	Language learning depends on the individual ability of making fine (high fidelity) discriminations in information (sub)systems to identify and use elements of the code as well as the speed and accuracy of information processing; serious deficits in this regard can be illustrated by such cases as dyslexia; individual differences become more manifest in non-primary language learning

human complexity of its subject matter. Instead, more realistic criteria can be accepted for this human discipline exploring a highly decentered and complex nature of language use.

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Basic Dichotomies in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning: A Case of Formulaic Language

Romuald Gozdawa-Gołębiowski

Abstract This chapter argues for the recognition of a major dichotomy in foreign language teaching methodology, an opposition between epistemic and utilitarian patterns, concepts, beliefs and assumptions. The distinction is related to Byram's (2010) insightful division between educational and functional (utilitarian) factors in the domain of language-and-culture acquisition. Teaching and learning are shown to be driven forward either by epistemic goals (pursuit of knowledge, training of the faculties of the mind, focus on form and the underlying system) or by utilitarian goals (training for interaction, preparing learners for the socio-pragmatic pressure of on-line communication). The constant tug-of-war between the two polarities yields the commonly recognized teaching models, techniques and strategies. To conclude the first part of the chapter the purpose of foreign language education is reconsidered and modified to reflect the interplay between the epistemic and the utilitarian. In the second part the dichotomous approach is applied to the analysis of a specific language area—that of formulaic language. The challenge of teaching formulaicity follows from the inherently dual nature of formulaic language itself, with clearly identifiable epistemic and utilitarian foci. It is argued that language forms exhibit the same duality of purpose that characterizes language methodologies. In the long run, the proper understanding of the polarities involved might also bring about more counterbalanced teaching models which promote the development of language systems as a prerequisite for communication—the epistemic and the utilitarian combined.

1 Introduction

Let me begin by asking a seemingly trivial question: what is the purpose of foreign language learning? Surely, one might argue, the question itself provides the answer. Isn't *learning a language in order to know it* an overriding reason we

R. Gozdawa-Gołębiowski (✉)
University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: r.gozdawa@uw.edu.pl

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struggle with alien sounds and patterns in the classroom? Sadly, however, at least two key terms in the statement above are vague and imprecise. I am referring here to the concept of *knowing a language*. It is ironic that neither the substance of learning nor its very goal have been properly delimited.

In this chapter I'd like to suggest that recent advances in language teaching methodology, and in particular the growing awareness of the complex nature of language and linguistic interaction, have made it possible (indeed, necessary) to recognize a qualitatively different purpose of foreign language learning: to prepare the learner both for the linguistic and the socio-pragmatic challenge of communication. In so far as we willingly embrace that answer, the consequences are far from trivial. To begin with, the purpose of language learning is no longer "to learn a language", nor is the purpose of language teaching "to teach a language" in its entirety. The claim reflects an evolution in language teaching methodology which threatens (or is *promises* a better word?) to uproot the old patterns, routines and mindsets.

The best way to make sense of the qualitative and quantitative changes that the field of FLT is currently undergoing is to envisage a series of dichotomies, oppositions between *us* and *them*, between what can and what can't be done. In education in general, and language education in particular, there is a constant tug-of-war between proponents of the *epistemic* tradition and their *utilitarian* adversaries. Inevitably, the dichotomous view of the theory and practice of language teaching is an oversimplification and may well cut too many corners. It does, however, help identify major trends and it will help set the scene for what follows in the second part of the chapter, where the dichotomous approach is applied to the analysis of a specific language area—that of formulaic language. The challenge of teaching formulaicity is shown to follow from the inherently dual nature of formulaic language itself, with clearly identifiable epistemic and utilitarian foci.

2 The Dichotomies

Teaching and learning are driven forward by two goals: epistemic or utilitarian. This is akin to Byram's (2010) distinction between educational and utilitarian (functional). I find the term *epistemic* broader and more clearly in opposition to *utilitarian*, because numerous utilitarian goals may easily be categorised as educational. They may also operate in tandem. The epistemic tradition tends to be nomothetic, i.e., norm-providing, while the utilitarian option is usefully idiographic, in focusing on norm-dependent individuals.[1]

[1] The terms norm-providing, norm-developing and norm-dependent are used by Kachru (e.g. 1990) to characterise speakers coming from the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles respectively. The application of these terms in the context of idiographic/nomothetic modes of language education is my own idea.

The epistemic goal is the accumulation of knowledge, the utilitarian goal is the acquisition of skills. With reference to language teaching/learning this implies the difference between declarative and procedural knowledge, between knowing and doing, between knowing *that* and knowing *how*. The epistemic approach favours the view of grammar as product, the utilitarian approach is more compatible with grammar as process. As noted in Batstone (1994) the product approach is analytic, it adopts the building-blocks perspective, perceives language as structured (with patterns to be learnt), structure-dependent (in the sense of language use being rule-governed behaviour) and systematic (rules generalize beyond what they were originally intended to cover). Grammar as a formal framework is fixed and stable: no allowance is made for hypothesis testing and modification on the part of the learner and the final product is presented from the very beginning. Syntax is independent of the conceptual framework (i.e. it is self-contained).

Self-containedness (in the epistemic tradition) does not mean that grammar and meaning mind their own business and never interconnect. It does mean, however, that syntactic properties cannot (wholly) derive from meaning considerations (cf. for instance Newmeyer's (1998: 95–105) discussion of the borderline between generative and functional grammar). In this sense grammar as product is an SLA rendition of the generative (Chomskyan) autonomy hypothesis. The analytic approach to language learning is encouraged. The unstable character of approximative systems (learners' interlanguages) is acknowledged but it is also assumed that interlanguages can stabilize, hopefully without fossilizing, if a focus on form in teaching is preserved.

On the other hand, the process approach, espoused by the utilitarian camp believes in the dynamic recycling of linguistic material, it encourages deduction and the discovery of rules via a series of successive approximations. Focus on meaning, with the accompanying avoidance of form-focused activities, ensures harmonious interlanguage growth and promotes proceduralisation, i.e., a shift from declarative knowledge (conscious, explicit use) to procedural knowledge (sub-conscious, effortless use). As argued in Batstone (1994) to promote the shift from the declarative to the procedural, the teacher should set communicative, meaning-focused tasks. The learner, trying to cope with the pressures of on-line processing, reorganizes his knowledge giving preference to ready-made chunks, which can be activated quickly and efficiently. The ultimate goal of process teaching is for the learner to get his/her meaning across and to complete communicative tasks.

The epistemic focus on language as a system results in a strong preference for rule-based (i.e., top–down) sentence processing, with due attention paid to markers of textual cohesion and formal accuracy, as a reflection of an underlying competence. On the other hand, the utilitarian perception of language as a social structure prioritizes cultural awareness over linguistic development, bottom–up (lexically based) processing of messages and coherence over cohesion, as a way to ensure task completion.

Table 1 captures the basic findings which have emerged from the discussion so far.

Table 1 Two modes of language teaching/learning

Epistemic	Utilitarian
Training of the faculties of the mind	Training for interaction
Declarative knowledge	Procedural knowledge
Knowing that (facts)	Knowing how (skills)
Knowing	Doing
Grammar as product	Grammar as process
Focus on form	Focus on meaning
Linguistic structure	Social/cognitive structure
Grammatical accuracy	Conversational fluency
Mastering the system	Achieving communicative goals
Cohesion	Coherence
Signification	Value
Linguistic development	Moral and cultural development
Competence	Performance
Top–down processing	Bottom–up processing

The table summarizes, with inevitable distortions and oversimplifications, more than two centuries of continuing educational endeavors to acquaint learners with foreign languages (for an excellent overview of the commonly recognised teaching methods see Richards and Rogers 2001). From the advent of Grammar Translation (the Prussian method) which was predominantly epistemic in its focus on grammar rules, grammatical accuracy and on decontextualized translation aimed at increasing the morphosyntactic awareness of the learner, with every new approach to foreign language teaching the pendulum swung from the utilitarian end to the epistemic end of the pedagogical spectrum.

Characteristically, the evolution of the teaching scene led to the creation of more and more "impure" models, which were eclectic in their selection of features from both utilitarian and epistemic traditions. The epistemic orientation of the grammar translation method was replaced with strictly utilitarian, performance-based drills of the Audio-lingual method, and the dissatisfaction with mindless drills paved the way for the cognitive approach, which believed in the intentional patterning of meaningful drills (a utilitarian goal), as much as in the role of traditional grammar insights, and in certain aspects got remarkably close to Chomsky's ideas, e.g., in its recognition of language as rule-based behaviour. Communicative Language Teaching (incidentally, it has never developed into a coherent approach, despite the fact that many teachers and researchers alike refer to it as the Communicative Approach) is predominantly utilitarian with its focus on meaning, communication and the recognition of the social foundations of language use but it acknowledges the importance of the grammatical system. Communicatively oriented grammar books feature exercises which promote the stable *product* view of morphosyntax.

3 The Lexical Approach and the Epistemic Paradigm

Even the allegedly anti-Chomskyan Lexical Approach of Lewis (1993, 2002), clearly a mainstream utilitarian construct, has an epistemic flavour. It is worthwhile at this stage to examine some of the arguments Lewis puts forward against the generative model (and thus against the epistemic paradigm) in some detail, as they seem representative of a more general line of thinking in the anti-generative camp. Since my major preoccupation in this chapter is to show the eclectic nature of teaching methods, the question of whether a purely utilitarian lexical orientation is possible does become a relevant issue.

Lewis essentially advances three claims against the epistemic approach. The first concerns Chomsky's insistence on idealisations about language. Lewis (1993: 58–59) observes that no homogenous speech communities exist, there is no way to define perfect English, and consequently objective linguistic norms are non-definable. It is just as likely that our rules need to be questioned rather than the exceptions ignored (*ibid*: 70–71) *ergo* Chomsky's competence model is faulty. Please note, however, that the unavailability of perfect English in no way implies that objective norms don't exist. Chomsky's theory of grammar deals with the subconscious rules that every native speaker has (or to be more precise, with our representations of them)—there is no idealisation here, all competence variations need to be parameterized and accounted for. In fact, the essence of idealisation is to make that task possible by abstracting away from the effects of performance errors on our mental knowledge of the system (e.g. tiredness, attention lapses, drunkenness, false starts, etc.). Explaining successful language use is the ultimate goal of "Chomskyan linguistics", as it seeks to develop an interrelated theory of language structure, language acquisition and language use, in itself an impressive epistemic task. Of the three, a theory of language structure is logically prior—one needs to know what language is, before attempting to construct theories about its acquisition and use.

The second criticism is levelled against the treatment of errors in the epistemic tradition. The requirement of grammatical accuracy dictates that errors should be recognised for what they really are (systematic deviations from the norm) and preventive measures should be taken to help the learner avoid making errors. Needless to say, this stands in stark contrast to the utilitarian *laissez-faire* policy of allowing non-native speakers to "experiment with language", just as native speakers "are not restricted to former uses" (Lewis 1993: 60). That argument is somewhat misguided, though. To begin with, experimenting with language means playing around with the already familiar rules—ignorance is not a virtue, mistakes are no poetry. Secondly, there is an unexpected catch here: of the two categories (epistemic vs. utilitarian) it is the former which is more tolerant of errors! That is so, because the epistemic tradition defines an error with reference to a norm. What counts as the relevant norm, however, can only be determined with reference to a particular discourse situation. When Corder (1971: 153) argues that interlanguages (his idiosyncratic dialects) are essentially error-free, he refers to that relative

concept of a norm. An L2er systematically producing questions along the lines of "*Do you be happy*?" moves an invariant question word up front in interrogative constructions, which makes the rule incompatible with the target English norm, but that is not an issue here. *Do you be happy* is grammatical with respect to the learner's interlanguage norms. Thus, the epistemic approach offers more insight—it recognizes the usefulness of sentences which violate target norms and attempts to explain the discrepancy between the target norm and the interlanguage norm, while the utilitarian approach tolerates them as long as there is no danger of their leading to a communication breakdown.

Lewis (1993: 62–63) makes one more claim, which—if true—could seriously undermine the logic behind the epistemic perception of language learning: there is no evidence, he says, that explicit knowledge helps performance, as it is difficult to imagine how such empirical evidence could be established; even if a learner claims it helps, introspection may simply be wrong. The criticism is unfounded, evidence for the role of explicit knowledge comes from studies which measure the effectiveness of pedagogical intervention, i.e., overt tuition. It is enough to recall Pienemann's (1987) study on the effects of formal instruction on natural second language acquisition, Long's (1983) research, which concluded that instruction is beneficial even for adults in acquisition-poor environments. Ellis's (1990) evidence for improved accuracy in planned production, although not in spontaneous speech, and Doughty's (1991) experiment on the effect of L2 instruction on the teaching of relative clauses, where she reports the instructed groups to have improved twice as much as the control (uninstructed) group. These research results were available before the publication of Lewis's first book (Lewis 1993). Many studies about the role of metalinguistic knowledge have appeared since then, including Sharwood Smith's (2004) promising model. To conclude, there is no reason to reject explicit knowledge as a possible factor shaping L2 competence and the growth of interlanguage skills.

4 Communicative Language Teaching and the Epistemic Paradigm

Let us briefly review other arguments against the epistemic stance, as formulated by the proponents of the narrowly conceived communicative (=utilitarian) view of language. It has been fashionable recently to focus on meaning in communicative language teaching, playing down the contribution of the morphosyntactic competence (*form*) in language use. The two most popular arguments have been listed here under (a) and (b).

(a) Children negotiate meaning from the start of the acquisition process, they ignore system corrections.
(b) Communicative impact of meaning-bearing elements (e.g. lexis) is dramatic and instantaneous, grammar has little impact on the message.

As for argument (a), no one questions the primacy of meaning for communicative purposes. But native children get plenty of help with word meanings, since meanings/senses of individual lexical items can only be arrived at via discriminative learning and the process of narrowing down the range of possible referents or interpretations would not be possible without a constant flow of extra information provided by the caretakers, not to mention the genetic guidance in the generative model. There is no external help (no caretaker's guidance) available to help them develop the system (cf. the No-Negative-Evidence Hypothesis). There are other factors as well which work to the advantage of the child in his L1. These factors include motivation, the number of contact hours, lack of another linguistic system to fall back upon and to interfere with the L1, low affective filter, peer pressure. None of these favour the adult L2er. Therefore, to compensate for the lack of the mechanisms which promote L1 growth, external guidance becomes indispensable in foreign language learning (e.g. overt grammar tuition, awareness activities, error correction).

Let us now briefly consider argument (b) above. The communicative impact of lexis is dramatic but there is an obvious limit to what native speakers can communicate without system elements—to ignore the system is to deny the very basis of language. Excessive reliance on lexical clues leads to the fossilization of system elements, which may enable the learner to perform admirably on a wide range of routine everyday tasks, but in no sense corresponds to the idea of *knowing* a language. By way of illustration, examine the sample below, produced by a Polish learner of French at a B1-level *Matura*[2] exam (the data comes from the training materials made available by the Central Examination Board in Warsaw). The learner is to write an e-mail to a friend explaining about his illness and asking for help with some daily chores.

Je ne sorti pas dans la maison. Je tres mal les dents. Est-ce que tu as une jour pendant le week-end pour moi. Quelle heure tu vient dans moi?

Little grammar is in evidence here, even fewer traces of formulaic language. Yet, the text remains largely comprehensible, as demonstrated by the fact that the proposed score for the text is three points out of five (60 %) for successfully getting the meaning across. Clearly, the author of the message did not have sufficient grammatical resources to guide him in the writing process, so he used the only approach available to him, that of relying on key lexical elements. The resulting lexical script for the first two sentences looks as follows: *je - ne - sortir - maison / je - mal - dents*.

It is this lexical skeleton that enables the reader to grasp the message in the absence of grammatical markers. The correct temporal reference and modality can only be deduced from the remaining context and from the instruction provided in Polish for the task. At the production stage the author spiced the key lexical items

[2] *Matura* is a school-leaving examination offered every year to all graduates of Polish higher secondary schools and organized by the Warsaw-based Central Examination Board. Some subjects, including foreign languages, are offered at two levels of difficulty: B1 and B2, as defined by the CEFR.

with occasional inflectional markers or a function word, to yield forms such as *sorti* and *dans*. These, however, make little sense in the context and should best be disregarded.

Clearly, the learner has achieved the utilitarian goal of completing the task (getting the message across). As for his linguistic competence (an epistemic objective), a lot still remains to be done.

5 Expanding the Two-Mode Paradigm

As this discussion indicates, modern approaches to foreign language teaching can be best comprehended, if the building blocks constituting each and every one of these approaches are divided into two categories or *modes*: the epistemic mode, whose main objective is to train the faculties of the mind and the utilitarian mode which aims at training for interaction. All other properties, secondary goals and pedagogic instantiations follow from and depend on those overriding main objectives. The two modes remain in complementary distribution in the sense that together they define the foreign language teaching/learning scene, with each element assigned either to one or the other category. This means that in the simplest case the diagram in (1) predicts the existence of two and only two *pure* (uncontaminated) competing models of foreign language teaching: one of those shows an epistemic orientation (the Grammar Translation Method), the other one draws upon utilitarian insights (the Audio-lingual Method). Other methods necessarily become eclectic—they have to combine elements from both paradigms.

The prediction that most teaching methods are eclectic in nature is borne out by the facts: the profile of contemporary learners has changed recently for various geopolitical reasons and it seems that present-day L2ers won't settle for less than at least a modicum of creativity coupled with a degree of communicative efficiency, while the sophistication of methodologies guarantees that both the social and intellectual needs of the learners will be attended to. Perhaps this is the source of "disciplined eclecticism" or "method synergistics" of Rogers and Richards (2001: 4) or Kumaravadivelu's (2003) "postmethod pedagogy".

With the onset of globalization, the recent move in language teaching methodologies has been towards embracing the utilitarian goals pertaining to cross-cultural awareness. In this context it is enough to recall the concept of language users as *acteurs sociaux*, first introduced in the CEFR, and defended at length in Byram's writings, recently in Byram (2010). It soon becomes apparent, though, that the social dimension of language use transgresses the utilitarian boundaries, because of its nomothetic roots: a successful *acteur social* is a norm-accepting user. The reverse can be attested, too—Byram (2010: 319) suggests the *gebildete*

Mensch,[3] a prototypically epistemic construct and a product of the neohumanist understanding of *Bildung* or formation. Even if the utilitarian entanglements of the *gebildete Mensch* as an *acteur social* are ignored, the epistemic *Bildung* still relates directly to the utilitarian realm by promoting "at the very least, the ability to analyze, discriminate, and reflect on oneself and on the society into which one has grown and into which one has been led or »educated«" (*ibid*.).

Die Bildung for social action takes up most of the socio-pragmatic dimension of our communicative competence. It also encroaches on the domain traditionally reserved for linguistic competence. As succinctly observed by Byram (1997: 41–42), the success of NS/NNS (native speaker vs. non-native speaker) interaction cannot be measured in terms of grammatical accuracy but in terms of the effective exchange of information (good news for the proponents of task-based teaching and of numerous communicatively oriented paradigms) and as a way to establish and maintain human relationships (this leads directly to rethinking the role of formulaic language in communication, a topic I will return to in the second part of this chapter). Language learning then becomes tantamount to "learning the meanings of a specific social group" (*ibid*: 39).

Consequently, Byram (*ibid*: 48) proposes to reduce the traditional domain of linguistic competence, as laid down in van Ek's writings ("the ability to produce and interpret meaningful utterances which are formed in accordance with the rules of the language concerned") to "the ability to apply knowledge of the rules of a standard version of the language to produce and interpret spoken and written language". Unsurprisingly, meaningfulness has been removed from linguistic competence and is now part of sociolinguistic competence. This model is close, though in all probability, unintentionally so, to the standard generative model of communication, as best illustrated by the iceberg metaphor—the underwater part is the subconscious linguistic competence responsible for deriving sentence meanings (morphosyntactic processes generate slots to be filled by lexical items with specific dictionary meanings, adding up to yield the meaning of the whole sentence), the part of the iceberg protruding above the level of water represents pragmatic (non-linguistic) competence, which kicks in right after sentence meaning has been established and acts upon it, adjusting it to the discourse needs of the interlocutors, thereby deriving speaker meanings. And so, in both models linguistic competence is perceived as a strictly nomothetic component, the input for pragmatic (socio-cultural) competence.

With the linguistic dimension back in place, we can illustrate the main points of the discussion by means of Table 2.

The inherent duality of patterning, to borrow Hockett's term, evident in the analysis of all major educational concepts in the first part of this paper enables the re-evaluation of the purpose of foreign language education. Recall that according to

[3] A minor spelling convention should perhaps be mentioned: I conform here and throughout the text to the rules of weak and strong declension of German adjectives in noun phrases with the definite/indefinite/zero article. Hence the distinction between the *gebildete Mensch* and a *gebildeter Mensch*. Byram uses the form *gebildeter* in every context.

Table 2 Capturing the essence of the epistemic/utilitarian dichotomy

The epistemic mode		The utilitarian mode
Cognizance	*Bildung*	Social action
Learner	*Gebildeter Mensch*	Acteur social

the tentative definition adopted in the introduction the purpose of language learning is communication or some form of communicative competence. Apart from the relative vagueness of the very term communicative competence, it begs the question of why native-like competence is an illusory final state for most FL learners and what specific factors contribute to the growth of communicative competence.

The dichotomies referred to in (1) and (2) above make the concept of communication more precise, incorporating the three environments relevant to language use: cognitive, formative and social. Let me then propose a modified definition of the purpose of language teaching: the purpose of foreign language education is to provide the lexico-grammatical framework and the modes of interaction for the learner to act as a *gebildeter acteur social*.

This is a lot to demand: the degree of *Bildung*, of social acceptability, of linguistic sophistication will vary from learner to learner, not least because perfect *gebildete acteurs sociaux* are not easy to find among native speakers of any natural language. The revised definition also has the extra advantage of identifying two major problem areas for foreign users trying to emulate native speaker models in communication: the linguistic challenge and the socio-cultural challenge. At the same time it points to the dual nature of language phenomena—the epistemic (governed by grammar rules) and the utilitarian (driven by social norms and conventions).

6 A Test Case: Exploring the Dual Nature of Formulaicity

In the second part of this paper, I'd like to focus on one area of linguistic behaviour where the dual-purpose approach seems to be the key to successful interpretation and use, an area that has been frequently misunderstood and misrepresented in the literature and teaching manuals: that of formulaic language. In order to make sense of phraseology in general, one must begin by appreciating the dual nature of language chunks. The duality manifests itself at the level of representation (parts or indivisible wholes), use (rule-governed or socially constrained), recall (by key words or as complex units), pedagogic treatment (with or without decomposition) and function (linguistic or extra-linguistic). Formulae are dual by nature—functionally nomothetic AND utilitarian, compositionally based on grammar rules AND dependent on social norms, pedagogically synthetic AND analytic. Just as light for physicists exhibits the characteristics of waves AND of particles, formulae serve the *gebildete Mensch* and the *acteur social* in radically different ways, adding to the confusion surrounding chunks.

Ever since Sinclair (1991) suggested two possible strategies for handling longer chunks of linguistic material, known as the *open choice principle* (a slot-and-filler model, with slots to be filled from a lexicon that obeys only local constraints) and the *idiom principle*, which instructs the user to treat multi-word sequences (Sinclair's *semi-preconstructed phrases*) as single segments, and Pawley and Syder published their seminal paper on the paradoxes of native-like production and comprehension, the existence of chunks, strong word partnerships has been widely acknowledged. What has been debated is the unpredictable character of the allowed combinations: in English *hair* can be *thick* but not *dense*, while *fog* can be both, in French *hair* and *fog* can both be *épais*, in Polish *hair* and *fog* can only be *dense* but never *thick*, English *welcome* is *warm* but not *hot*, while Polish and French *welcome* can be both. Until recently Poles never washed their hair, they made do with washing their heads; the recent attack of English-language commercials on Polish television has brought about a noticeable formulaic change in this respect, especially among the younger generations.

6.1 The Structure of the Mental Lexicon: Words or Chunks?

The first challenge is to memorize the correct words that go into a formula, say *dense fog* versus *thick hair*, rather than the other way round. Memorization guarantees that we will always get the desired sequences right, where "right" is not about the semantics of the expression in the nomothetic/epistemic sense, but about the preferences of the speech community—a major utilitarian factor. That also blows the native lexicon out of all proportions, as mental lexicon now becomes a hugely redundant repository of simple and complex items. Even our simplified example above demonstrates that redundancy clearly—the lexicon needs to store three items, where generative streamlined elegance calls for two. This reshaping of the mental lexicon, espoused by all researchers in the field of formulaicity, for instance Wray (2002, 2008) or Skehan (1998), is only natural given the dual purpose of language teaching: as an account of creativity and rule-based behaviour, lexical items are stored redundantly, and so *thick* and *hair* have to be available for rule-driven assemblage in the analytic mode (e.g., when talking about your uncle's thick wallet and thin hair), but *thick hair* appears as a single unit available for holistic processing. This has far-reaching consequences for language pedagogy with respect to the hotly debated issue of whether or not to decompose chunks.

To appreciate the debate over decomposition one needs to start with the two, largely exclusive, mechanisms underlying the processing of messages: the analytic (rule-based) mode and the holistic (formula-based) mode. The former is about putting an expression together on a word-by-word basis (or morpheme by morpheme) by means of morphosyntactic rules, while the latter allows the user to access ready-made wholes stored in memory (Wray 2002: 14–15). Analytic processing becomes an account of linguistic creativity and productivity. Holistic

processing, on the other hand, helps with idiomaticity, naturalness and explains Pawley and Syder's (1983) paradoxes of nativelike language selection and fluency.

6.2 The Linguistic Challenge

Foreign language users find formulaicity to be a big challenge. Multiword sequences present linguistic problems (the epistemic perspective) and socio-cultural problems (the utilitarian perspective). To overcome the linguistic problems (incorrect selection of lexical items) two opposing approaches have been suggested in the literature: to discourage decomposition and to encourage the student to retain newly learned sequences as complete chunks or to promote decomposition as a way to better retention and increased awareness of the grammatical regularities involved. Wray (2002: 212) argues against decomposition: "words do not *go* together, having first been apart, but rather, *belong* together, and do not necessarily need separating" (her emphasis), Lewis (1993: 193, 195) on the other hand, proposes pedagogical chunking ("identifying constituent bits within the whole") as an important component of language learning. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992: 27–29) concur, pointing out that decomposed formulaic sequences help the learner to derive relevant grammatical rules.

In the light of the assumptions made in this chapter the synthesis-analysis (or composition–decomposition) dilemma is not an either–or issue. Each represents a different mode of learning, each is necessary, given the dual nature of formulaic language. In other words, the learner should be trained to chunk formulaic sequences AND to reassemble chunks. To the best of my knowledge there is only major source which makes an appeal for learners to be engaged in cycles of analysis and synthesis—Skehan's (1998) account. Here is the relevant quote:

> (…) if meaning primacy and communicational pressure make for exemplar-based learning, it is important that there should be continual pressure on learners to analyse the linguistic units they are using, so they can access this same material as a rule-based system. Equally, it is important that when material does become available as such a system, learners should engage in the complementary process of synthesizing such language, so that it will then become available in exemplar, memory-based form as well.
>
> (Skehan 1998: 91)

The other difficulty that formulaic language poses, as mentioned above, has to do with the socio-cultural norms which constrain the use of polyword items.

6.3 The Social Challenge

It has been suggested (Kuiper and Tan Gek Lin 1989) that the complexity of the cultural information which is coded in formulae will effectively prevent a foreign language user from becoming truly bicultural after early childhood, making it

impossible, therefore, for anyone to become a native speaker of a second language after this time even if they sound as though they are. To take Kuiper and Lin's example, the sentence frame *X is old enough to be your father* counts as a formula to be only used in relative privacy between close family or acquaintances, in one specific type of situation: a young woman is involved, or about to get involved, in a relationship with an older man, and an older female wants to talk her out of it. There is a deeper cultural message here: young women should not get involved with older men, sex between father and daughter is taboo, older female relatives are responsible for advising younger women. Native speakers or, more appropriately, native culture users, recognise this set of assumptions and they also recognise that there is no formula *X is old enough to be your mother*. Needless to say, the latter sequence is perfectly grammatical and may in fact have been uttered on numerous occasions but does not trigger the same set of associations and cultural connotations as the *old enough to be your father* version. Such unexpected gaps in the paradigm testify to the idiosyncratic character of formulaic expressions in their social (utilitarian, non-linguistic) aspect. The gaps are frequently dictated by the lack or social irrelevance of a specific concept. Thus, there are no linguistic reasons to explain the contrast between the acceptable sequence *his widow* and the pragmatically ill-formed *her widower*.[4] With the social context changing, the relevant linguistic change may also take place. This is the case with the Polish equivalents of *widow* and *widower*. Before the tragic crash of the Polish presidential plane at Smolensk, the form *wdowiec po X* (widower of X) was practically unheard of, whereas *wdowa po X* (widow of X) was common. However, with the intensive news coverage of the traumatic crash-related events, both forms had to be used to avoid awkward circumlocutions.

6.4 The Advantages of Using Formulaic Language

The popularity of chunks in the native use is staggering. Erman and Warren (2010) estimate that nearly 60 % of spoken English discourse could be formulaic, Pawley and Syder (1983: 213) put the number at "several hundreds of thousands", for an ordinary adult native speaker, Shaoul and Westbury (2011: 172) report that the Google Web1T Database consisting of approximately one trillion word tokens lists 944 million formulaic sequences of 2–5 words.

This extra load is bound to become a huge burden for the human brain, so the advantages of formulaic language must considerably outweigh the possible disadvantages. Wray (2002: 93–97) suggests that the main psychological advantage of formulaic language is that of saving time both for content planning (thereby

[4] There is an obvious morphological correlate of that culturally-driven distinction. The word *widower* is derivationally exceptional in that the masculine version is formed on the basis of the feminine (widow → widower). Typically, base forms are masculine (actor → actress, lion → lioness).

aiding the speaker's production) and for sentence processing (aiding the hearer's comprehension). To illustrate, suppose that our team won the match and the guests lost. You may report that result as in (a).

(a) We won the match and the Italians lost, which was really surprising.

That sentence is built in accordance with the rules of English morphosyntax, it is grammatically accurate and reflects the view of grammar as product; in short, is the embodiment of the epistemic (here: analytic) view of language processing. Characteristically, it is also unidiomatic. Contrast (a) with (b) below.

(b) We pulled off a surprise victory against the Italian team.

The advantage of (b) over (a) doesn't merely lie in its being idiomatic (formulaic). This is where the psychological advantages begin. The whole sequence "pull off a (surprise) victory" is stored and accessed as a single unit, saving precious processing time. The speaker starts on "We pulled…" and the rest of the sequence takes care of itself, freeing his attentional resources to plan ahead. Having been exposed to the first two words of (b) the hearer knows that we are the winners, even if the rest of the utterance gets distorted by background noises. Moreover, the speaker knows that by using formulaic language he is in better control of the conversation and increases the hearer's chances of getting the message right. All of these suit the speaker's ultimate purpose: manipulating the interlocutor and promoting his own, the speaker's, interests. Therefore, the speaker gains as a social player, in the best utilitarian fashion, by establishing a degree of control over the discourse and the interlocutor.

Putting it briefly, we are looking at a cause-and-effect chain: manipulation of text → manipulation of others → promotion of self. This is the secret of formulaic language, what Wray (2002: 100–101) calls "a linguistic solution to a non-linguistic problem", an interplay of the epistemic with the utilitarian.

6.5 Formulae in an L2

Formulaic language favours native speakers, it is a birthright advantage. For epistemic reasons (complexity and unpredictability of form) and for utilitarian reasons (socio-cultural entanglements) L2 users fail to reach nativelike formulaic competence. Importantly enough, neither the epistemic purpose of knowing many formulae (stabilizing linguistic competence) nor the utilitarian purpose (manipulation of others/promotion of self) are relevant for an L2 user. He stands to gain more by displaying his limited socio-cultural and lexico-grammatical competence—native speakers tend to be well disposed towards foreigners struggling with the subtleties of an alien tongue and are more forgiving for cultural blunders. In a NNS/NNS context limited formulaic resources are also an advantage, as idiom-rich speech more often than not will lead to a conversation breakdown.

I am not advocating here that we should give up on teaching formulaic language in the L2 classroom. We should try, however, to pursue realistic goals. Language teaching methodology has long recognised that grammatical correctness (a nomothetic goal) is subservient to communicative efficiency and task completion (utilitarian objectives). Yet, grammatical accuracy is easier to achieve than formulaic naturalness, whereas formula-rich discourse is not a necessary prerequisite for a successful achievement of a communicative task. It might help, of course, but—then—so might grammatical accuracy.

And so, here, as elsewhere, a key to success seems to be the right combination of epistemic and utilitarian concerns.

7 Concluding Remarks

What I hope to have shown in this paper is an approach to foreign language teaching based on the recognition of polarity as a driving force behind methodological evolution. The epistemic/utilitarian dichotomy triggers a number of important oppositions that may usefully be employed to describe and understand the current language teaching scene. I have applied the dual-mode approach to the analysis of formulaic language, a notoriously difficult area in L2 research and practice. The difficulty arises precisely because language forms show the same duality of purpose that characterizes language methodologies. This calls for the rethinking of the reasons for teaching formulaic language and the techniques employed for teaching them. In the long run, the proper understanding of the polarities involved might also bring about more counterbalanced teaching models which would value the development of language systems as a prerequisite for communication—the epistemic and the utilitarian combined.

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The Post-Process Era in Composition Studies and the Linguistic Turn of the 20th Century

Jan Zalewski

Abstract In order to present the post-process era in composition as part of the general phenomenon known as the linguistic turn of the 20th century rather than as only the social turn in composition, in this chapter I point to some epistemological developments in composition studies, developments that underlie and define the process and post-process eras in composition as distinguishable rather than distinct periods in the history of the discipline. I apply the term *linguistic turn* specifically to the epistemological evolution that has taken place in composition studies and present post-process as a phase of this evolutionary process. Accordingly, I try to pinpoint some crucial changes in the ways writing as meaning making was explained and so to uncover the important epistemological developments that may serve as evidence of the linguistic turn taking place in composition studies, with the post-process era seen as the consequence of a series of such epistemological shifts.

1 Introduction

In his introduction to the special issue of the *Journal of Second Language Writing* (*JSLW*) on the post-process approach to L2 writing instruction and research, Atkinson (2003: 11) made the point that our "interest in the concept of 'post-process'… [should not be] in terms of a basic 'paradigm shift,' but rather in expanding and broadening the domain of L2 writing—in research as much as in teaching." More recently, when commenting on Cumming's (1998: 61) statement that "writing is text, is composing, and is social construction," Leki (2010: 100) incidentally confirms the validity of Atkinson's point by observing that

J. Zalewski (✉)
Opole University, Opole, Poland
e-mail: JanZalewski@interia.pl

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Cumming's synchronic statement is also true in the diachronic sense: "Modern L2 writing instruction and research have gradually broadened their perspective by shifting focus from texts, to processes (i.e. composing), to disciplinary and sociopolitical contexts (i.e. social construction)." An example of such broadening of research interests among the contributions to the special issue of *JSLW* on post-process was Matsuda's (2003) essay on the discursive construction of process and post-process in the field of composition studies, a topic directly relevant to the epistemic perspective on the process/post-process distinction I would like to take in this chapter. As Matsuda (2003: 66) explains, his goal is "to call attention to the ways in which terms like process and post-process contribute to the discursive construction of reality within a site of intellectual practice." His argument is based on the general claim that our choice of specific terms locks us into seeing things in terms of specific oppositions (like understanding *process* in opposition to *product* in the history of composition, as Matsuda demonstrates), with such oppositions necessarily highlighting some and hiding other aspects of the phenomena we are attempting to understand.

2 Post-Process: The Linguistic Versus the Social Turn

Atkinson (2003) traces the term *post-process* to Trimbur (1994), who links it to what is generally called the *social turn* in composition studies. I would like to point out that since post-process is seen/constructed in opposition to process, and process in opposition to product, in order to define post-process Trimbur (1994) and most others in composition opted for the term *social turn* rather than for what in the humanities, social sciences, and philosophy had already been commonly called the *linguistic turn* of the 20th century, a term which was popularized by Rorty's (1967) anthology. My point is that in defining post-process, Trimbur (1994) had the choice between alternative terms, between calling it either the *social turn* or *linguistic turn*, and his choice must have been motivated by among others contextual considerations such as the oppositions between post-process: process: product. Obviously, the terms *social turn* and *linguistic turn* are not synonymous but highlight different aspects of the transition from structuralism to poststructuralism, and modernism to postmodernism. As Atkinson (2003) observes, there are four components in Trimbur's (1994) definition of post-process, namely, (a) the social, (b) the post-cognitivist, (c) literacy as ideology, and (d) composition as cultural practice. The first two components (i.e. the social and the post-cognitivist) are highlighted by and so can be easily subsumed under the notion of the social turn of the 20th century, which was a reaction against the structuralist tendency to reduce human behavior to generalized/idealized units and formalized systems of their oppositions—of which the development of phonology in the first half of the 20th century may be a good illustration. A mark of the advent of post-cognitivism was the recognition (e.g. the recognition by Day et al. 1985: 33) of a fact "so obvious that it has become virtually transparent," namely, that

cognition "takes place within a social milieu." As for the other two components of post-process in Trimbur's (1994) definition, (i.e. literacy as ideology, and composition as cultural practice), they are highlighted by and can be subsumed under the notion of the linguistic turn of the 20th century, which foregrounds a sociology of knowledge in which language occupies the central position and whereby literacy becomes inseparable from a culture-specific value system (i.e. ideology). As in the case of the social turn, the linguistic turn also calls for attention to what has been hidden from our view: This time it is particularly the ideological transparency of language (i.e. the fact that naming/signifying practices of a discourse community instill a particular system of values). Since the process approach was a reaction against viewing and teaching writing as a linguistic product, that is, as no more than a collection of idealized and prescriptively taught forms, it seems only natural that the post-process era in composition could not be aptly described as a linguistic turn—the term would have been potentially misleading because of its association with product.

In composition studies in the early 1990s, it was James Berlin who in the context of his epistemic rhetoric used the term *linguistic turn*, following Fredric Jameson (see Berlin 2003: xvii). Obviously, post-process is not a return to a language-oriented approach in the sense of a product-oriented approach to writing, and so the affinity between *language* and *product* must have been a reason against using the notion of the linguistic turn in characterizing post-process. However, the term *linguistic turn* highlights the role of language in the social construction of reality, that is, in human knowledge-making (Berger and Luckman 1966). The linguistic turn of the 20th century can be seen as the general intellectual climate of that time that contributed to the return of rhetoric in its epistemic function and thus supported the emergence of composition studies as a new academic discipline in the last decades of the 20th century. As Berlin 2003: xvii) explains, "the linguistic turn… can be seen as an effort to recover the tools of rhetoric in discussing the material effects of language in the conduct of human affairs." In this chapter, I apply the term *linguistic turn* specifically to the epistemological evolution that has taken place in composition studies and argue for construing post-process as a phase of this evolutionary process. For this end, I intend to present some key developments in the continuous epistemological change observable in composition studies, an evolutionary change that underlies and defines the process and post-process eras as distinguishable rather than distinct periods in the history of the discipline. In view of prototype theory, how we draw the line between such social historical categories as process and post-process is a matter of some communal consensus about which of their properties should be highlighted and seen as defining. Negotiating such consensus is what builds a community (cf. Harris 1989).

One of the defining characteristics of the process approach in composition theory, research, and instruction was that it redefined writing (in the sense of composing) as a linguistic activity aimed at the making of meaning. As such, writing started to be seen as indeed inseparable from knowledge-making, and as representing a specific and special type thereof. These developments led to

questioning the view that writing is no more than finding language for pre-existing and language-independent knowledge. In view of this observation, the process movement in composition can be seen as participating in what is generally called the linguistic turn of the 20th century. Indeed, different intellectual movements can be grouped under the notion of the linguistic turn, but included among their major progenitors were typically such philosophers as Ferdinand de Saussure or Ludwig Wittgenstein. In the humanities and social sciences, the linguistic turn is linked with the traditions of structuralism and poststructuralism, and its hallmark is the recognition of the fundamental role of language in structuring human consciousness/cognition. Language is ultimately equated with human conceptualization so that linguistic expressions are not seen as just labels for independently existing concepts but instead they structure concepts. Thus, it is claimed that whatever is outside of language is by definition unstructured and so hardly conceivable for us, that is, nothing really comes to exist for us and enters into our shared human (thus social) reality apart from language. As cognitive linguists explain (e.g. Langacker 1987), language always imposes a viewpoint and, as de Saussure (1986) says (albeit in a more restricted sense), "it is the viewpoint adopted which creates the object." Thus, contrary to what our common sense tells us today, language is said to *constitute* rather than *describe* reality. Our language tells us what exists, what has value, what is possible, and so is the carrier of our ideology (Therborn 1980).

Seeing the linguistic activity of writing/composing as meaning making, the process movement in composition restored invention to rhetoric, a discipline reduced to matters of arrangement and style when modern science became the major knowledge-maker of our times. As Berlin (2003: 14) explains,

> One of the supreme conquests of the Enlightenment has been to efface the unique work of language in carrying out the ideological projects of the new dominant group. This victory has been accomplished by… insisting… that signs can and must become neutral transmitters of externally verifiable truths—truths, that is, existing separate from language. This is the correspondence theory of truth, the notion that signs are arbitrary stand-ins for the things they represent…. This theory insists that the signifying practices of the dominant class and its supporting intellectuals are identical with this purely representative language and that all other practices are to be rejected as deceptions. A central part of this effort was the dismissal of rhetoric [in its epistemic function] by declaring the study of signifying practices and their effects on meaning a worthless undertaking.

The linguistic turn in composition studies means the comeback of rhetoric as the study of the ways in which language works to carry out the ideological projects of its users.

In the next section of this chapter, I will point to what appear to be the most crucial changes in the ways of explaining meaning making in the process of writing. In this way, I intend to trace an epistemological evolution in composition studies. By looking at how publications in the field talked about writing as meaning making, I mean to uncover the important epistemological developments that amount to the linguistic turn in composition, with the post-process era being the consequence of a series of such epistemological shifts. As noted above, the

point that writing is meaning making was not highlighted in Atkinson's (2003) account of post-process. Most probably, for composition professionals, this fact about writing is "so obvious that it has become virtually transparent" (to use the words quoted above from Day et al. 1985: 33). As I have attempted to explain, the point gets hidden in Atkinson's account because of the overall characterization of post-process in terms of the social rather than linguistic turn. Though it is not highlighted, writing as meaning making permeates Atkinson's (2003: 10) explanation of writing as "a human activity which reaches into all other areas of human endeavor… in a way that casts doubt on conventional boundaries between individual and society, language and action, the cognitive and the social."

3 The Linguistic Turn in Composition: Key Developments

Even a cursory glance at publications in composition studies since the 1960s will reveal the prevalence of two metaphors for talking about invention of knowledge in composing: One explains invention in terms of *discovery* and the other in terms of *construction*. These two metaphors are not necessarily mutually exclusive and obviously lend themselves to a variety of interpretations (cf. Rohman 1965; Flower and Hayes 1980a). For example, if it is said that in writing we only find new language for pre-existing knowledge, then new meanings may be said to be discovered in old ideas, or the knowledge may be said to be reconstructed with each new use. Knowledge discovery may alternatively involve extracting useful information from data assembled in writing by such processes as organizing, categorizing, systematically exploring, drawing inferences, etc. The point is that the users of the discovery and construction metaphors oftentimes did not bother to expound their meanings. However, the meanings that the metaphors carried for them must have corresponded with the views on invention dominant in their communities. Berlin (1982, 1988) was among the first composition theorists who can be credited with explaining the philosophical underpinnings of the two metaphors. By the early 1980s, a number of publications had appeared trying to sort out the existing writing pedagogies (e.g. Berlin 1982; Bizzell 1982; Fulkerson 1979; Knoblauch 1980; Woods 1981). All of them were calls for greater awareness on the part of writing teachers about what it was that they were teaching. These calls were uttered by researchers and theorists who themselves were also teachers responsible for writing instruction. Thus, the calls were a sign of the newly emerging community of writing professionals who saw the need to state their underlying philosophies and who in doing so had their own agenda which, in the words of one of them, was to endorse "the most intelligent and most practical [pedagogical] alternative available" (Berlin 1982: 766). Thus, the calls for greater awareness of the philosophical underpinnings of writing instruction may also be seen as a sign of a struggle for dominance among the competing camps in composition. Following Berlin's (1982) explanation, the metaphor of knowledge discovery can be associated with expressivists in particular and the metaphor

of knowledge construction with cognitivists, the communities of expressivists and cognitivists representing the two major camps in the process movement (cf. Faigley 1986).

In order to take an evolutionary perspective on epistemology in composition studies, it will be convenient to extend what Berlin (1982) called *new/epistemic rhetoric* to cover all the major views of composing that developed in reaction to the traditional product-oriented composition instruction and its underlying rhetoric, commonly referred to as *current-traditional rhetoric* (Young 1978). In so extending the term *new/epistemic* to cover all the major new views of composing appearing since the beginning of the Process Revolution (Hairston 1982), I intend to stress the fact that these views are epistemic in the sense that they bring back and centralize invention in composing. However, the expressive and cognitive views of composing as an epistemic process differ from each other as well as from the social epistemic views and it is my aim to outline the evolutionary process of epistemological change associated with rhetoric coming back in its epistemic function, a process culminating in the development of social epistemic rhetoric, which is most readily identifiable with the linguistic turn of the 20th century.

The major reason for the revolution against traditional composition instruction was that current-traditional rhetoric excluded invention, that is, it did not provide for the teaching of strategies for generating and developing ideas as well as analytic and synthetic skills necessary for effective thinking. The origin of current-traditional rhetoric, as far as its epistemological stance is concerned, can be ultimately located in the scientific logic of Locke (cf. Berlin 1982; Berlin and Inkster 1980). Empirical science with its inductive experimental methodology is seen as the only source of objective truth and knowledge. The domain of rhetoric is accordingly limited to finding appropriate language to communicate this objective knowledge, which is discovered through the scientific method. Such knowledge is of an objective reality which is independent of the writer, audience, and language.

The process revolution, with its slogan of teaching the writing process, and not the written product, was a reaction against the text-centered practices of the current-traditional approach and so against the teacher acting solely as a final judge of the finished student paper and not helping with its development, which is where instruction is needed. Rohman and Wlecke's (1964) study of the effects of pre-writing activities on writing performance was one of the crucial studies that helped overturn the current-traditional paradigm, preparing the way for bringing rhetorical invention back into writing instruction and for research on composing processes. Rohman and Wlecke (1964) argued that teachers must stimulate their students' thinking before writing by engaging them in pre-writing activities (such as writing journals, constructing analogies, and meditating). As Faigley (1986: 529) has observed, Rohman and Wlecke (1964) "revived certain Romantic notions about composing… [as their] definition of 'good writing' includes the essential qualities of Romantic expressivism—integrity, spontaneity, and originality." Representatives of this Neo-Romantic view of composing are typically referred to as expressivists. They may be seen as precursors of the new/epistemic rhetoric since they changed their position on rhetorical invention, namely, they abandoned

the Romantic idea of invention as inspiration and came to the view that invention was teachable. However, expressivists take a Platonic perspective on invention (cf. LeFevre 1987) as expressivism shares some key epistemological assumptions with Platonic rhetoric (Berlin 1982), most importantly, seeing knowledge as absolute and objective in the sense that it is knowledge of a reality which is independent of the writer/knower, audience, and language. In this respect, it is a view of knowledge resembling that of current-traditional rhetoric. However, the Neo-Platonic epistemology of expressivism differs fundamentally from the positivist epistemology of current-traditional rhetoric because it does not seek genuine knowledge in the sensory experience of material reality (as the scientific method does with its inductive experimentation). For expressivists (as Neo-Platonists), sensory experience is an unreliable source of true knowledge because material reality undergoes constant change. Accordingly, truth is not given in sense impressions but is the domain of the intellect, which means that knowledge is discovered through internal apprehension.

For expressivists, the purpose in writing is therefore self-expression, self-discovery, and self-actualization of the unconscious mind. In contrast to current-traditional rhetoric, the primary purpose of expressivist rhetoric is not to communicate knowledge in the best language. Essentially, the purpose is not to make it possible *for an individual to be understood*. This is because language, as rooted in the world of flux, expressivists would say, is inadequate to the task of communicating knowledge, an impossible task in this view. The purpose of expressivist rhetoric is instead to make it possible *for an individual to understand*. The important difference is that *understanding* is seen as an individual act of the self assimilating the world into experience (cf. Rohman 1965), while *being understood* (*by others*) is a social relation. Expressivists take the Platonic perspective on true knowledge as lying innate within an individual. Interaction in language with others can only produce an approximation at knowledge. Composing in language is accordingly seen as a preliminary exercise that can lead to ultimate attainment of knowledge. It is true that for such language-based exercise to lead to true knowledge, expressivists urge interaction with others while writing. However, this interaction is meant mostly as safeguard against error, that is, others can tell us if our writing rings true, authentic, and sincere. There is an irreconcilable difference here between the inner, individual, absolute and so asocial nature of true knowledge and the inadequacy of the social tool used for its discovery, which is language. There is a similar problem in the Platonic system of invention. As LeFevre (1987: 44) observes, "Plato's view of the individual as knowledge seeker is paradoxical: it may be seen as both asocial and social." Although Plato sees true knowledge as innate (as an attribute of the immortal soul), he also admits of another source of knowledge, namely, the Socratic dialogue as a way of knowing by interacting with others. While expressivists similarly see a place for interaction with others in the process of discovering knowledge in writing, composing is for them essentially a process of coming to understand (one's experiences, beliefs, and values) rather than a process of interacting with others and trying to be understood. Composing as interaction and communication with an audience is stressed by the

other camp in composition studies—the cognitivists. Cognitivists' stress on audience foretells an important epistemological shift in composition studies.

Expressivism can be seen as the first step in the evolutionary process of epistemological change which constitutes the linguistic turn in composition studies. Expressivists started this evolutionary process because they saw invention as teachable and made its teaching central to composition instruction. As Rohman (1965: 107) argued, "Students must learn the structure of thinking that leads to writing since there is no other 'content' to writing apart from the dynamics of conceptualizing." As we could see however, expressivism viewed language as inadequate to the task of knowledge discovery. The linguistic turn of the 20th century became possible because modern epistemology had discredited the existence of absolute, objective truth, whose existence was still endorsed by expressivists. Thus, by restoring the epistemic function to rhetoric, expressivists are only the initiators of the process of epistemological evolution which has led to the linguistic turn in composition studies. The next crucial step in this evolutionary process came with cognitive research on composing. It was not expressivist scholarship but the cognitive research that helped to demystify the structure of thinking processes in writing. Cognitivists like Emig (1971) brought "researcher modes of inquiry" (North 1987: 135–313) to composition studies, most notably, the case-study methodology and think-aloud protocols to investigate writing processes. The cognitive line of research on composing was largely a reaction against the model of the composing process put forward by Rohman and Wlecke (1964), a linear view of writing as a sequence of three stages: pre-writing, writing, re-writing. Emig (1971) provided evidence for the recursive nature of the writing process. Flower and Hayes (1980b: 32) called the traditional view of writing "the inspiration paradigm." This Romantic myth of inspiration claims that writers just know what they want to say. According to this belief, "a writer sits patiently waiting for delivery and the decent of the muse" (Flower and Hayes 1980b: 32). However, as Flower and Hayes (1981: 40) explain,

> Myths of inspiration to the contrary, writers do not simply receive ideas but… they draw on a set of mental operations or *heuristics*. These mental procedures, such as memory search, planning, and defining goals and subgoals, have been found to occur when people solve problems as diverse as deciding on a chess move or doing a painting…. [also] writing is a problem-solving activity.

Cognitive research on writing as problem solving indeed revolutionized writing pedagogy making it possible to teach writing by raising students' awareness of the key elements of the process, most notably, planning in writing which involves defining *a rhetorical problem*, including the exigence, audience, and goals (Flower and Hayes 1980a). The construction of a rhetorical situation is seen as a crucial element of the composing process as it guides later generation of conceptual content (cf. Scardamalia and Bereiter 1987). This means that construction of conceptual content in writing is relative to purpose and audience. This is the turning point in the whole epistemological evolution that I am tracing here: Namely, cognitivists start to see meaning making in composing as in fact an

intersubjective act of communicating with an audience. Flower (1981) makes this point clear enough, claiming that viewing composing as expressing yourself is not enough because in writing you are addressing an audience. In this way, meaning making becomes crucially dependent on the writer-audience relation. Thus, what meanings are produced, that is, what knowledge is made, is seen as dependent on these two elements of the composing process. The far-reaching consequence of this development was that knowledge could no longer be seen in absolute terms. If one were to choose a caesural point marking the rise of social epistemic rhetoric, this development in cognitive rhetoric would be most significant as it ultimately leads to the negation of absolute objective truth.

In the early cognitive period, the notion of *audience*, as well as the broader notion of *rhetorical situation*, was given an objectivist interpretation (e.g. Bitzer 1968). This is because cognitivism derives from the positivist neutrality of science tradition originating in Locke and Hume. Central to the cognitivist tradition is the notion of *mental representation* which carries with it a strong epistemological commitment to the existence of an objective reality understood as pregiven and independent of our cognition. However, cognitivists (their research on color vision providing a good example, e.g. see Varela et al. 1991: 157–171) came to question their positivist epistemological assumptions, namely, that what we come to know is a pregiven ready-made world which is independent of the knower. As Varela et al. (1991) argue, the knower and the world, like the chicken and the egg, specify each other in a continuous process of interdependent becoming. A similar epistemological evolution can be observed in cognitive research on composing. As I just noticed, a notion central to cognitive rhetoric such as *audience* was initially understood in objectivist terms. The concept was borrowed from the ancient rhetorical tradition, where rhetoric meant the art of speaking and the notion of audience as listeners addressed by the rhetor was unproblematic and had a straightforward objectivist interpretation. When revived by cognitivists and transferred into modern composition, it turned out to be by all means problematic: What kind of entity was the audience addressed by the wrier? In the early 1980s, cognitivists started talking of not just *audience addressed* by the writer but also of *audience invoked* by the writer (Ede and Lunsford 1984). Audience invoked is very much a creation of the writer, and they both make up a discourse community. The discourse community specifies the writer by imposing all sorts of conventions, and the writer specifies the discourse community by continually modifying the conventions. Thus, we are dealing here with a dialectical process whose participants specify one another and are interdependent, that is, none exist fully independent of the others. In the same way, when writers come to consider their rhetorical situations, none of the components turn out to be pregiven and so have an objective existence independent of one another. All of the elements of the epistemic composing process, namely, the writer/knower, the audience/discourse community, what they take to exist and to be real are all interdependent social constructs, none existing apart from language, which is the view of social epistemic rhetoric (Berlin 2003). As defined by Berlin 2003), social epistemic rhetoric epitomizes the linguistic turn of the 20th century. It is a study of

both production and reception of texts, that is, of our signifying knowledge-making practices, their social and historical situatedness, and it acknowledges its own situatedness.

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Part II
Dimensions of Awareness in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

A Double Life of Texts: English as a Lingua Franca in a Polish–Ukrainian Intercultural Project

Anna Niżegorodcew

Abstract This paper presents the intercultural reader *Developing Intercultural Competence through English*: *Focus on Ukrainian and Polish Cultures* (in short DICE) (Niżegorodcew, Bystrov and Kleban 2011) as the outcome of a joint project of two Departments of English Studies: the English Studies Department at the Jagiellonian University in Krakow, Poland, and the English Philology Department at the Precarpathian University in Ivano-Frankivsk, Ukraine, and its implementation in class in Ukraine and in Poland. The authors and editors' intentions are confronted with the interpretation of some of the texts and tasks by Ukrainian and Polish students. A striking difference has been observed between Polish and Ukrainian perception of the English language. The English language is perceived by Polish students as a language for international communication, while for Ukrainian students there is a strong link between the English language and target cultures. The conclusion of the paper is that the mere use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) is not sufficient for the students to assume the position of intercultural mediators or to build up a community of ELF users. In using an intercultural reader, the teachers and students have to critically assess the authors' intentions and their own text implementation in class, which results in a *double* life of the texts—their various uses and interpretations by teachers and students in different educational contexts.

1 Introduction

A *double life* of texts refers to the role of the texts included in the intercultural reader *Developing Intercultural Competence through English*: *Focus on Ukrainian and Polish Cultures* (in short DICE) (Niżegorodcew et al. 2011) and to their uses

A. Niżegorodcew (✉)
Jagiellonian University, Krakow, Poland
e-mail: annanizegorodcew@gmail.com

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in class by Polish and Ukrainian teachers and students.[1] The intercultural reader *Developing Intercultural Competence through English* (Niżegorodcew et al. 2011) is the outcome of a joint project of two Departments of English Studies: the English Studies Department at the Jagiellonian University in Krakow, Poland, and the English Philology Department at the Precarpathian University in Ivano-Frankivsk, Ukraine.[2] The intended readers of the book are students of English, in particular those interested in Ukrainian and Polish cultures.

The authors and editors of the volume at first aimed only at the development of their students' communicative competence in English as a language for international communication, that is, English as a lingua franca (ELF), later they focused primarily on raising their students' intercultural awareness through the use of the reader including texts with tasks on Ukrainian and Polish cultures. It has been noted by the reviewer of the book that "among the mass of books on intercultural communication, DICE distinguishes itself by three features: unusual format combining the work of both scholars and students, the focus on intracultural approach and practical designation" (Aleksandrowicz-Pędich 2011).

At the stage of the conceptualisation, writing and compiling of the texts which have been finally included in the book, an assumption underlying it was that the Polish and Ukrainian students of English who will be using the published texts will treat them as sources of intercultural knowledge, which will raise their awareness of the other culture and, consequently, will make them more open and tolerant. It was believed that reading about Polish and Ukrainian cultures in English as a language for international communication (ELF) would make Ukrainian and Polish students not only more knowledgeable about inter and intracultural matters but also would raise their cultural awareness and sensitivity.

Our formula for the selection of text formats was open-ended. It was decided that our volume should include some more theoretical introductory chapters in order to give the prospective readers a background knowledge in Part 1. *Theory and Application,* among them my chapter *English as a Lingua Franca in intercultural communication,* and an intercultural knowledge combined with practice in Part 2. *Practice*: *Readings* and *Projects.* Both staff members of the English Philology Department of the Precarpathian University and a group of MA students of the Applied Linguistics Section of the English Department at the Jagiellonian University participated in the process of text composing, compiling and writing.

It was decided by the editors that considering a turbulent Ukrainian-Polish past history and present political situation, it would be unwise to present topics in

[1] I draw on some ideas expressed in my conference presentations and forthcoming publications referring to the DICE Project (Niżegorodcew 2011b, c, d, 2012a, b).

[2] The contents of the DICE reader are included in the Appendix.

which Polish and Ukrainian perspectives would be very different.[3] We agreed that the DICE reader should not include texts that were nationally biased and that they should present their authors' special interests rather than a wide spectrum of problems facing contemporary Ukraine and Poland. However, "the choice of topics indicates […] Ukrainian inclination to focus on the characteristic and attractive aspects of their own culture and Polish on the problematic and difficult" (Aleksandrowicz-Pędich 2011).

The selected topics include among others: Ukrainian folk tales juxtaposed with literary postmodernism, Ukrainian customs and traditions compared with modern life styles and challenges in introducing changes in education and Ukrainian gender role stereotypes and challenges of migration into and out of Ukraine. As regards the *Projects*, the Ukrainian MA students formulated challenging questions and the Jagiellonian University MA students who tried to answer them at first did not realize that the topics they embarked upon were extremely delicate and could be approached from different perspectives (e.g. attitudes to different religions and ethnicities in Poland). In the process of the editing of the texts, the students introduced some modifications into their controversial or biased opinions on religious tolerance, anti-Semitism and academic dishonesty.

2 The Role of the Intercultural DICE Reader: the Authors' Intentions

Dr. E. Bandura in Chap. 3 (Bandura 2011: 47) refers to *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*: *Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (2001), which "proposes that foreign language teaching should involve preparing the learner 'to fulfill the role of cultural intermediary between one's own culture and the foreign culture and to deal effectively with intercultural misunderstanding and conflict situations' (ibid:104). The document lists intercultural skills, such as 'the ability to bring the culture of origin and the foreign culture into relation with each other', 'willingness to relativise one's own cultural viewpoint and cultural value-system', as well as 'willingness and ability to distance oneself from conventional attitudes to cultural difference' (Bandura ibid).

According to Prof. J. Mikułowski-Pomorski's model (2007), communication, including written communication, has a level of the messages, a level of interaction and a level of a community. It can be speculated that on the level of the messages, the authors of the texts included in the DICE reader wished to present

[3] I am grateful to Prof. Hanna Komorowska for the comments she made at a preliminary stage of the DICE Project on the absence in the DICE reader of references to the history of Ukrainian-Polish conflicts, in particular to the Wolyn massacre of 1943. I accept her opinion that the truth about the Ukrainian crimes should be revealed by historians and presented to the public in Poland and Ukraine. However, I believe that the decision of the DICE reader editors not to include texts which would touch on those conflicts and crimes was justified.

aspects of Ukrainian and Polish cultures through English. They translated messages from their native languages into English, and through the translated messages, they intended to develop their students' intercultural skills, such as those listed in the Council of Europe document.

On the level of interaction, it can be assumed that by including particular texts in the DICE reader, the authors informed the readers that they wished to communicate something of relevance to them (cf. Sperber and Wilson 1995). In order for the readers to understand the messages in the way the authors wanted them to be understood, the readers had to perceive the authors' intentions. In the DICE reader, the authors provided assistance for the readers in the form of numerous questions and tasks, which were to guide the readers through the texts according to the authors' intentions. However, it should be noted that the use of questions and tasks could be affected by the readers' studying habits. For instance, if students were not accustomed to making references to the sources, even if they were assigned particular texts, in their answers they expressed their general opinions on a given subject rather than opinions in answer to the assigned questions based on the texts.

Finally, on the level of a community, working with intercultural texts may have led to the building up of a community of practice, identifying oneself with the messages and getting to know more about the culture of the texts. According to E. Wenger (1998), non-native speakers engaged in common tasks may form *communities of practice* if they are mutually engaged in an activity with other members of the community, if they consider the endeavour relevant to all members of the community and if their language skills are adequate to share the meanings with other members of the community (Young 2009).

While using English as a lingua franca, Polish and Ukrainian authors and students could co-construct their social identities as *users of ELF* because English as the common language for teachers and students in English Departments in Poland and Ukraine was their language of academic communication. The authors described in English their own cultures to students from another country, and the students were supposed to acquire in English a knowledge about that culture. The choice of English as an international language could also make the selected aspects of own national cultures not only better known but also more detached. A critical attitude towards one's own culture joined with an analysis and comparison of one's own and other cultures could lead to a raised awareness of cultural diversity and tolerance of other cultures.

Thus, according to the three level model of communication (Mikułowski-Pomorski ibid), communication between representatives of Ukrainian and Polish cultures through English involved:

1. Messages referring to national cultures (included in the Part 2 texts).
2. Students' interpretation of the authors' intentions (guided by the tasks and questions).
3. A possibility of building up a community of international/intercultural authors and students on the basis of some common values and efforts that were considered to be of relevance to them.

The authors' intentions were assessed through direct talks and e-mail exchanges of the editors with the authors and with one another. The final shape of the texts and tasks was the outcome a long process of negotiation, in which the authors grew more and more aware of their future readers, their knowledge and values.

However, in order to develop 'the ability to bring the culture of origin and the foreign culture into relation with each other', 'willingness to relativise one's own cultural viewpoint and cultural value-system' as well as 'willingness and ability to distance oneself from conventional attitudes to cultural difference' (Bandura ibid), both Polish and Ukrainian authors should have identified not only with their national cultures and their conceptualisations translated from Ukrainian or Polish into English, but also with more general ideas and concepts which might embrace both cultures.

Such ideas and concepts are present in the DICE reader mainly in Part 1, e.g. my Chap. 2 introduces the readers to English as a lingua franca in intercultural communication (Niżegorodcew 2011a). In Part 2 in the Tasks accompanying the texts on Ukrainian and Polish cultures, the authors address directly the readers from other cultures, asking them to compare aspects of their cultures with Ukrainian and Polish ones. For instance, the Ukrainian DICE authors are particularly proud of their folklore, ancient rites, traditions and the values they embody. Ukrainian folklore is perceived as a source of social and cultural values. Consequently, they intend to raise foreign students' awareness of their traditions and cultural diversity through the following tasks (Niżegorodcew et al. 2011):

> Task 1: Ukrainian students have compiled the following list of social and cultural values celebrated in Ukrainian folklore. Which of them are celebrated in the folklore of your nation? < Material wealth, love of nature, self-sacrifice, life, wisdom, kindness and empathy, protection of young and old ones, family, respect for others, sense of duty>
>
> Task 2: Certain universal features of folk tales migrate around the world, even if the tales themselves do not. Ukrainian students suggest that some of these universal features are the conflicts between kindness and hardheartedness and between honesty and cheating. Continue this list using examples of folk tales in your culture.
>
> (from Chapter Five)
>
> Task 3: Provide examples of works of art that have been inspired by traditional rites and ancient beliefs in your culture. Below you can find some examples of works of art inspired by Ukrainian rites and beliefs.
>
> <The Eve of Ivan Kupala (6th July) is the only time of the year when the ferns are believed to bloom. In the story of the writer Nikolai Gogol 'The Eve of Ivan Kupala', a young man finds a fabulous fern-flower but he is cursed by it. On the Eve of Ivan Kupala, when the moon is full and spirits roam the earth, Ukrainian witches celebrate their 'sabbath'. This idea inspired the composer Modest Musorgsky to compose his opera 'A Night on the Bare Mountain'.>
>
> (from Chapter Six)

The next section focuses on the implementation of the DICE reader in the first year after its publication in three English Departments, two in Ukraine and one in Poland.

3 The Students' Uses of the Texts: An Analysis of the Results of DICE Implementation in Ukraine and in Poland in 2011/12

The DICE reader was used in class in the first year after its publication in Ukraine by three Ukrainian teachers[4] and in Poland by me. The idea of an open format of the reader was also applied in its implementation in class. We introduced Intercultural Communication based on DICE as an optional part of our courses with graduate students of English Studies.[5] The courses were conducted in the second semester of the academic year 2011/12.

3.1 Aims of Intercultural Communication Courses Based on DICE

Generally, the courses had two aims, first, to compare the role of English as a foreign language and a lingua franca in Poland and in Ukraine, and secondly, to conduct student-centred research projects and to compare their results in Poland and in Ukraine. Before the course, I had suggested to Prof. O. Misechko to focus primarily on the role of English in Ukraine in order to be able to compare her results with mine, Dr. O. Kulchytska and Ms. L. Ikalyuk used the DICE reader according to their own and their students' needs and preferences, with an understanding that they might compare Polish *Projects* and their outcomes with similar projects conducted by Ukrainian students.

3.2 The Subjects

The numbers of the student subjects were varied: Dr. O. Kulchytska and her student assistants conducted a research study based on Chap. 13 from DICE on a

[4] I would like to thank Dr. Olga Kulchytska (and her students R. Gotsuliak, O. Kosmii, I. Pyskiv, O. Popel and O. Fediuk) and Ms. Lesya Ikalyuk, co-authors of DICE, who used the reader in class at the Precarpathian University in Ivano-Frankivsk, as well as Prof. Olga Misechko, who used DICE at the Zhytomyr State University in Zhytomyr, for their co-operation and sharing their class outcomes.

[5] In Zhytomyr, the course was conducted with students from the Department of Philology and Journalism.

group of 69 subjects, Ms. L. Ikalyuk introduced Chaps. 10, 12 and 13 to about 40 students. Prof. O. Misechko's subjects were 25 students. My subjects were two small groups of about 20 students.

3.3 The Data

The data obtained from the Ukrainian teachers are in the form of reports on their courses, accompanied by research results (Ivano-Frankivsk) and students' essays (Zhytomyr). Prof. O. Misechko has also prepared a paper following her course to be presented at an international conference of teachers of English in France (Misechko and Plotnytska 2012). My data are based on my graduate students' essays (Niżegorodcew 2012a, b).

3.4 Action Research

Both the Ukrainian teachers and I conducted what can be described as Action Research although the Intercultural Communication courses did not include all the stages of the Action Research Cycle (cf. Nunan 1992). First of all, our aim, that is, raising our students' intercultural awareness, was clearly specified and the teaching materials, that is, texts with tasks, were provided by the DICE reader. Consequently, the stages of investigating and defining teaching problems were omitted. For instance, I assumed on the basis of the optional character of the course, the description of which was available to the students, that the students who had joined it were interested in intercultural matters, in particular in Ukrainian and Polish cultures, and willing to develop their intercultural competence. As far as the other Action Research stages are concerned, the reading of the texts and answering the tasks could be treated as intervention and the teachers' reports on them as evaluation.

3.5 Polish Students' Essays

I presented in Niżegorodcew (2012a) the results of a small scale study based on my students' essays. The study aimed, firstly, at discovering if the students were familiar with the concept of *English as a lingua franca* and how they treated the role of English in the contemporary world. Secondly, students were to reflect on their attitude towards the English language, whether they considered it as a language endangering other languages and their users' identities or if they treated English only as a language of opportunity and its acquisition as a desired goal. The study also aimed at discovering what was the students' level of aspirations in

studying English, if they attempted to achieve native speaker proficiency or if they were satisfied with advanced non-native proficiency.

Let me quote here some conclusions of the study: "English is viewed by the majority of the students as a language of opportunity and success in various ways of professional and private lives. On the whole, the students are concerned about their own desired native speaker proficiency in English since native speaker proficiency would boost their self-confidence and enable them to achieve success in their future careers, including the teaching profession. Likewise they do not notice any negative aspects of using English as a global language, except for a few students who seem to perceive negative sides of the omnipresence of English. Probably, they are the students who prefer to be recognized as non-native speakers out of solidarity with other non-native speakers. Generally speaking, Polish students seem to be very positive towards English language teaching and use in Poland. In all probability, they treat ELF as part of civilizational changes they perceive in the contemporary world, first of all due to Internet technology. The facility with which people are able communicate across the globe is strengthened by a shared language, which most frequently is English. Additionally, both Polish educational policy as well as their parents and society at large have persuaded them that English is the most useful language to study. Thus, in the eyes of young Polish people ELF is definitely an asset rather than a threat" (Niżegorodcew ibid).

3.6 Ukrainian Students' Essays

The essays that were assigned to the Ukrainian students in Zhytomyr had a general theme: "How can English as a lingua franca help me as a student, as a teacher and as a person in inter- and intracultural communication"? Such a topic presupposed that Ukrainian students treated English as a lingua franca. An analysis of the essays shows that, on the contrary, English in Ukraine is not considered primarily as a language for international and intercultural communication but rather as *languaculture* (cf. Agar 1994; Risager 2006), that is, the language connected with target cultures. The Ukrainian students, similarly to Polish students, demonstrate very positive attitudes towards English language teaching and learning. They do not notice any negative aspects of teaching and using English in Ukraine.

According to Misechko and Plotnytska (2012), their students did not treat English as a lingua franca because they had very few opportunities to use it in this function in Ukraine and abroad. Additionally, they were not willing to communicate in English with foreigners, both directly and online, due to their lack of self-confidence and behavioural stereotypes. Ukrainian ELT course books were also perceived as very traditional in presenting only target cultures and the English language as only the native language of the citizens of Great Britain and the United States. The authors concluded that they perceived "lack of awareness on the part of the [Ukrainian EFL] teachers of the necessity to develop among the learners of English understanding of its role as a lingua franca" (Misechko and Plotnytska ibid).

Interestingly, the Ukrainian students mention reading English authors' books in original as one of the reasons why they study English. But they also realize that in order to get a prestigious job, they must speak English. The same refers to business contexts. Additionally, emigration to an English speaking country is treated as motivation to study English by a few of the Ukrainian students.

The Russian language is referred to a few times by the Ukrainian students as their second (or even first) language but they never call it a lingua franca, for instance, comparing its use in Ukraine with using English as a lingua franca. It seems that the bilingual situation in Ukraine (using both the Ukrainian and Russian languages in different contexts and regions of the country) is so delicate and politically loaded that it is impossible at the moment to research it as a socio-cultural and sociolinguistic issue.

3.7 *Academic Dishonesty*: *The Ukrainian Students' Project in Answer to the Polish Students' Project*

The Ukrainian students (from Ivano-Frankivsk) conducted their research studies following the design described in Chaps. 10, 12 and 13. Based on the data I have received from the teachers (Kulchytska 2012 and Ikalyuk 2012), it was Chap. 13 and the Polish study on academic dishonesty that had specially drawn the Ukrainian students' attention. The results of two other surveys following Chap. 10—attitudes towards minorities in Ukraine, and Chap. 12–Ukrainian standards of politeness (reported by L. Ikalyuk) were less clearly presented and involved fewer student subjects. In consequence, in the following I present only the Ukrainian study on academic dishonesty in comparison with the Polish data.

Over 90 % of the Ukrainian respondents and more than half of the Polish respondents admitted that they had cheated in tests and exams. The main reason both groups gave for their behaviour was their desire to pass tests and exams while being overloaded with studying. The Ukrainian students analysed the timetables and agreed that the number of tests and exams was excessive and what they demanded was the memorisation of the study subjects. The students also expressed the opinion that "the most effective method of fighting academic cheating is giving tasks that involve analysis and creativity" (Kulchytska 2012). On the other hand, both Polish and Ukrainian students believed that cheating was a serious academic and social problem.

Some views were quoted in the report (ibid) from individual comments of the Ukrainian students, such as:

> Everyone agrees that cheating and corruption destroy [the] society. People discuss these problems, complain to one another [but] they are afraid of changes, [they] are used to such a way of life, they go in circles. The problem of cheating knows no borders. The fact that representatives of two universities from two European countries do such a project is the first step to positive changes. I believe we should work on some more projects like that.

> I'd like to thank the Polish researchers for attracting attention to the problem [of academic dishonesty]. Discussing it is the first step to its solving.

Opinions on raising general awareness about moral, social and professional consequences of cheating and plagiarism were expressed in Chap. 13 by Polish and international students (Stinnissen et al. 2011). Interestingly, the question of plagiarism as the infringement of copyright, apart from being a moral issue, is nonexistent in the Ukrainian survey results. It seems as if Ukrainian students' awareness of the issue of plagiarism was different from Polish students' awareness. It may be due to the leniency of Ukrainian copyright laws in general.

One of the reports is concluded—"we had a vivid and sometimes even heated discussion, which proves that the issues covered by the Jagiellonian University MA students in the DICE book are interesting for the Ukrainian students" (Ikalyuk 2012).

3.8 Quotes From Polish Students' Evaluation of the DICE Reader Implementation in Class

> The [DICE] book served as an incentive for further enquiries, comparisons and discussion. Thanks to them we have the possibility to become more aware of our own culture […] it definitely broadened my knowledge and sensitised me to certain issues.

> The fact that the book is written in English made me even more interested in the content of it. I really like the idea of sharing the language, the medium.

> EFL learners are very often faced with a challenge of talking about their L1 culture using L2 […] [DICE] offered me a great opportunity to discover my own culture and the Ukrainian culture from the perspective of the international language.

> [In the future this course should] involve cooperation with Ukrainians […] students should be able to communicate with their peers […] they should do something together […] together seek solutions to some problems.

4 Conclusion

Comparing Polish and Ukrainian students' attitudes towards English, it can be easily observed that they have different first-hand experiences as far as speaking with English language users is concerned. While Polish students (especially in a big university city) benefit by constant opportunities of using English at home and have numerous opportunities to use English abroad (Erasmus visits, holiday visits, working in EU countries), Ukrainian students have very few such opportunities at

home and abroad. Additionally, they are self-conscious whenever they have an opportunity to use English and concerned about their low English proficiency.

English is perceived by both Polish and Ukrainian students as a language of opportunity and success. This opportunity is more concrete and realistic in Polish students' views (working, travelling, meeting people) and more theoretical, imagined or unusual in Ukrainian opinions, such as, "maybe once in the future I will have a chance to go abroad and English can help me to make my journey more effective and interesting".

There is, however, a striking difference between Polish and Ukrainian perception of the English language. The English language is perceived by Polish students, first of all, as a language for international communication, while for Ukrainian students there is still a very strong link between the English language and target cultures. But for both Polish and Ukrainian students, proficiency in English means obtaining a better position in the future.

One of the DICE reader innovations were students' projects. Not all of them were equally interesting for Ukrainian teachers and students. It was the study on academic cheating at a Polish university which was most interesting and thought provoking for Ukrainian students. Both similarities and differences were observed between Polish and Ukrainian attitudes towards academic dishonesty.

As regards readings on Ukrainian culture, class discussions showed considerable interest of the Polish students in Ukrainian culture. However, the texts did not result in much discussion on Ukrainian matters, rather they encouraged the students to develop their own presentations on aspects of Polish culture.

After having published the DICE reader, I realized that the mere use of English as a lingua franca is not sufficient for the students to assume the position of intercultural mediators or to build up a community of ELF users. In using an intercultural reader we have to critically assess the authors' intentions and text implementation in class, resulting in a *double* life of the texts—their various uses and interpretations by teachers and students in different educational contexts.

Appendix

Developing Intercultural Competence through English: Focus on Ukrainian and Polish cultures
Edited by Anna Niżegorodcew, Yakiv Bystrov and Marcin Kleban. Jagiellonian University Press 2011.

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Reading as a Purpose-Driven Process: Taking an L2 Reader Perspective

Halina Chodkiewicz

Abstract Nowadays, there is a growing need to elucidate the conceptualization of reading purposes in order to incorporate them effectively in L2 reading-focused instruction. This can be linked to changing views on reading competence and its development, as well as further advances in understanding text processing and reading comprehension. This chapter sets out to address selected issues worth exploring so as to rethink the theoretical principles underlying the systematic implementation of reading tasks in L2 classrooms. It is argued that only approaching reading as a purpose-driven process can ensure a balanced development of readers' competence indispensable for their future use in both educational and out-of-school environments. First, some general ways of defining reading purposes in L2 settings will be analyzed. Then, a more universally defined concept of reading purpose developed with reference to reading models will be examined, with the emphasis put on the landscape reading model which assigns reading purpose a focal role. Selected research findings which demostrated that reading purpose is a source of variability in reading performance outcomes in native language contexts will be commented on. Also, a tight and intricate relationship between reading goals and strategic reader behaviour will be analyzed. Finally, the extent to which the recently provided guidelines for L2 instruction can be matched with the changing perspective in conceptualizing reading as a goal-directed activity will be discussed.

1 Introduction

Despite remarkable advances in theory and research into L2 reading and refinements in instructional practice, the numerous debates in the field make it clear that the search for a better understanding of what reading stands for has not been over.

H. Chodkiewicz (✉)
Maria Curie-Sklodowska University, Lublin, Poland
e-mail: hachod@hektor.umcs.lublin.pl

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Furthermore, to gain some general definition of reading one has to consider different perspectives when referring to it as a **process, skill/ability/competence** or **an act/behavior** or **social practice** with some degree of **comprehension** as its outcome. Interestingly, as early as in 1971 Hochberg and Brooks described reading as "a very general term, covering a wide range of behaviors, involving **diverse purposes** and skills" (p. 305), thus underscoring the fact that reading takes a form of skills-based behaviour, demonstrated through a variety of activities, directed by some goals—purposes which need to be accomplished. Likewise, Smith (1994) singled out the features of reading, describing it as **purposeful, selective, anticipatory** and based on **comprehension.** Many years later Grabe and Stoller (2002) also subscribe to the view that reading is to be primarily recognized as **a purposeful activity,** involving different combinations of **skills** and **strategies**. Simultaneously, they disprove of too narrow definitions of reading that treat it barely as the ability to process the written text in order to interpret meaning, without due recognition of many other variables, including cognitive and knowledge bases in reading, the learner's language proficiency or time-constraints.

Some more elaborate explanations of L1 and L2 reading have been inspired by reading models that synthesized researchers' knowledge of reading components and mechanisms universally implemented across languages. New concepts, constructs and theories helpful in understanding reading as an interactive process and in establishing implications for reading instruction have been put forward. A fairly condensed picture of changing views on reading over the last half a century emerges from Fox and Alexander's (2009) taxonomy consisting of three universal models of text processing: **Extraction-Assembly, Constructive-Integrative, and Transitional Extensions,** described on the basis of the four criteria: views of the text, typical texts used for instruction, the reader's activity and the reading product with reference to both L1 and L2 contexts. Designing universal reading models did not eliminate some L2 researchers' conviction that a separate model is necessary to account for the specificity of L2 reading. After long years of research, Bernhardt (1991, 2005, 2010) has developed a compensatory model of L2 reading, underpinned by the premise that the reader can compensate for his/her deficits in some knowledge sources by benefiting from other sources. With the two factors being well-researched and thoroughly explained so far, that of L1 literacy (also covering the beliefs about the purposes of reading (Bernhardt 2005: 140) and L2 language knowledge, Bernhardt leaves the third factor—50 % as unexplained variance. Following her thinking, McNeil (2012) extends Bernhardt's model by suggesting two other factors he believes can be accounted for on the basis of the available research data. Adding background knowledge and strategic knowledge (metacognition) to supplement the explanation of L2 reading comprehension not only enriches our understanding of the reading process and its development, but also considerably reduces the amount of unexplained variance in the reading process (e.g. reader engagement, motivation, interest).

Without adhering to metaphorical models of reading, yet considering important theoretical and research issues, some reading specialists have managed to provide more insight into the interpretation of reading ability and text processing. Koda

(2005), for instance, believes that reading can be defined more thoroughly by further investigation of the three following perspectives: **cognitive, developmental and functional** ones. A similar reasoning underpins the view adopted by Alexander and The Disciplined Reading and Learning Research Laboratory (2012: 261), who posit that the characteristics of reading and reading competence should be described as follows:

- **it is multidimensional**—combines cognitive, motivational, neurophysiological, and sociocontextual factors;
- **it unfolds developmentally**—changes across lifespan, with continuous interaction between learning to read and reading to learn;
- **it is goal-directed and intentional**—includes the intentions and purposes with which every reader comes to the text, reciprocal meaning-making between reader and author and the underlying complexity of knowledge and knowing.

Adopting each of these perspectives makes it necessary to consider a number of problems related to theory, research and practice, as well as suggesting some ideas for broader organization of scholarship in the area. It is also clear that although L2 reading competence and its attainment has its specificity, developing the ability to read is an instructional objective followed across languages all over the world, and many universal features of reading can be identified. Last but not least, the fact that it is goal-directed, intentional and naturally linked to knowledge acquisition is not to be ignored in any learning/teaching context.

2 Defining Global Reasons for Reading with Reference to L2 Instruction

As already pointed out, the goal-directness of reading has been a focus of interest of some L2 reading specialists. Scholars have become increasingly aware of the need to establish appropriate purposes for in-class reading activities, among others, thanks to Communicative Language Teaching; reading tasks were to be designed so as to approximate authentic uses of reading. Yet, despite promoting such a well-informed instructional solution, many classroom procedures tended to rely on some kind of general 'learning to read' practice or just 'practicing reading'. In Ediger's opinion (2006: 308), this stems from the difficulty in implementing the features of authentic use of reading in regular classroom conditions. The typical classroom reading sessions cannot provide learners with conducive conditions for: choosing and synthesizing information from multiple sources, identifying and disregarding parts of the text found irrelevant while reading, rereading some portions of the text, not to mention giving them an opportunity to take decisions whether to read a selected text at all. College students participating in the study by Lorch et al. (1993), for example, concluded that school-assigned reading and reading by personal choice were different activities with different cognitive demands.

Constructing L2 reading tasks so that they help achieve real-life communicative purposes is also advocated by Wallace (1992). She discusses three basic 'personal reasons for reading', that is **reading for survival**, **reading for learning** and **reading for pleasure**. In urban contexts one finds it indispensable to take advantage of the information provided by notices, signs, instructions, etc., which often requires some behavioural response, frequently an immediate one; this demonstrates the pragmatic function of language and its illocutionary force. Reading to learn helps both L1 and L2 learners to expand their general world knowledge, as well as to verify their present knowledge. Reading for pleasure, on the other hand, means reading for its own sake, and it plays a role in improving one's reading fluency.

Knutson (1997) notes that communicative purposes in reading tasks can be followed by readers either explicitly or implicitly, and that some purposes evolve when while-reading difficulties have to be responded to. She also observes that in FL classrooms it is the reader or instructor who establishes the purpose, and this results in the readers "having a reason to read and approaching a text with a particular goal in mind whether that goal involves learning or entertainment" (49). Generally, Knutson (1997) recommends adopting two paths of reading competence development, namely **in-depth academic reading for information or insight** vs. **reading narrative, fiction for entertainment,** which she finds is closely connected with different genres that serve as reading material, and hence different reasons for reading.

The implementation of L2/FL reading activities for a range of academic purposes has been given special consideration by Grabe and Stoller (2002) and Grabe (2009). The latter publication presents a revised set of reading categories:

- reading to search for information (scanning and skimming);
- reading for quick understanding (skimming);
- reading to learn;
- reading to integrate information;
- reading to evaluate, critique, and use information;
- reading for general comprehension (fluent, done for extended periods, often for interest or entertainment) (Grabe 2009: 8).

While the three major purposes of reading: scanning, skimming and reading for general information have traditionally constituted the core of L2 reading practice, mainstream EFL literature has often failed to distinguish the remaining categories. The value of **reading to learn** lies in the fact that the reader focuses on processing information important for some task or future reference. That is why the information in the text has to be closely integrated to the reader's background knowledge and successfully organized into a coherent frame, possibly with the help of the author's intended rhetorical structure of the text. The recall and reproduction of information relationships of the original text can then be regarded as a form of assessment (Enright et al. 2000; Grabe 2009; Trites and McGroarty 2005).

Since the 1970s the approach to L1 and L2 reading instruction has been changing under the influence of the worldwide interest in 'functional reading'.

Many innovative classroom activities have been introduced to help students understand course book texts in such subject areas as history, physics or mathematics. In educational environments in the USA or in Canada, which are characterized by considerable linguistic and cultural diversity, the specific needs of ELL readers were to be satisfied with the help of special course types integrating content and language development (e.g. content-based ESL courses, sheltered content courses). In Poland and other European countries a multitude of programmes labeled Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) have been developed in recent years (Coyle 2007; Komorowska 2010; Skehan and Wesche 2002). These programmes have brought about increased interest in reading for learning as a fundamental factor in domain knowledge acquisition, that is in reading to learn/study.

3 Reader Goals and Reading Models

As mentioned above, over the last decades L2/FL teachers have remained under the impact of theoretical considerations grounded in numerous reading models, although few of them addressed goal-directness as a feature of the reading process. Many ideas expressed by best known L2 reading specialists (e.g. Koda 2005; Hudson 2007; Grabe 2009; Bernhardt 2010) manifest clear links to the **construction-integrative reading model** created by Kintsch (1998, 2005), whose theory of text processing developed into a general theory of cognition. Even though the model does not deal with the purposefulness of reading, it leaves some space for the activation of reader strategies, whose inherent feature is goal-directness. The model maintains that comprehension takes place at the four levels: **the surface code, the propositional textbase** (meaning of the text), **the situation model** (content of the text referring to the real world) and **text genres**. Text perception and comprehension processes are based on spreading activation network, and in the case of a comprehension failure readers' strategies residing in their memory provide some repair (Kintsch 2005).

Another **constructionist theoretical framework,** provided by Graesser et al. (1997), has been found evolutionary in its nature and treated as an extension of the conceptualization of text processing developed by a group of discourse psychologists associated with W. Kintsch. The model includes two major components: **pragmatic principles** and **psychological mechanisms** whose operation determines the final outcome of a reading event. While the pragmatic component ensures successful communication between readers and writers, the cognitive component is responsible for the multilevel meaning representations readers arrive at. Implementing pragmatic principles means drawing on a range of rules that help the agents of communication avoid misunderstanding and comprehension violation (e.g. monitoring common ground and mutual knowledge, distinguishing given and new, signaling important information, avoiding contradictions). The cognitive component covers, among others, knowledge structures, spreading activation of

nodes in knowledge network, memory stores, discourse focus, explanations and **reader goals**. Reader goals thus play a vital role in both comprehension and memory.

In discussing psychological mechanisms in text comprehension Graesser et al. (1997) refer to the ideas expounded by constructionist theory that showed particular interest in elucidating the construction of knowledge-based inferences by readers who are building situational models of narrative texts (Graesser et al. 1994). The main principle followed is that of **search (or effort) after meaning,** and is based on three assumptions discussed below, the first one entailing the goals set by readers.

1. **The reader goal assumption**—the reader constructs a meaning representation to address his/her goals at a deep level of processing (semantic and referential level).
2. **The coherence assumption—**the reader ensures that a meaning representation is coherent at both local and global levels; structures and processes that organize clauses or their sequences are organised into higher order chunks.
3. **The explanation assumption**—the reader attempts to explain why actions, events, and states are mentioned in the text to achieve coherence in understanding on the basis of naive theories of psychological and physical causality (Graesser et al. 1994: 371–372).

Of importance is the fact that the reader's activity starts off with setting goals to be followed while being involved both in lower and higher-order processing of the text.

In view of the interest in reading strategies Graesser (2007) revives the significance of the three assumptions put forward by the constructionist model referring to **reader goals**, **coherence** and **explanation,** and claims they are fundamental strategies used by readers. In order to comprehend a text readers attend to its content differently depending on their goals. What is more, while building a coherent meaning of the text, they repair any gaps that appear, and offer reinterpretations of text meaning if needed. In search of meaning they also establish causal relationships between events and obtain necessary explanations by answering 'why' questions, rather than 'how' and 'when' ones.

A model in which goal-directedness has been assigned a central role in explaining the reading process is **the Landscape Model** (Linderholm et al. 2004; Tzeng et al. 2005). The model maintains that readers realize their purposes on the way to achieving a chosen standard of coherence, that is a certain degree of text comprehension. As a result of adjusting the reading process to reader goals, concepts and information involved in reading become more readily available to readers than other text elements and the goals are activated in a fluctuating manner. Generally, the model posits that the higher the standard of coherence aimed at, the richer the conceptual network attained by an individual reader.

It has to be noted, however, that despite acknowledging the focal role of the purpose/goals in the process of reading, the impact of other factors that determine how a given text is processed and their interactive links are not to be undermined,

that is those of background knowledge, the difficulty of a text, reader strategies as well as fatigue or distractions. The way background knowledge functions in reading has for many year been the subject of heated debate that has led to the reinterpretation of its role in general reading comprehension. It has been proved empirically that it constitutes a vital source for detecting inconsistencies in the text as well as generating inferences, with the latter simultaneously dependent on reader purposes (Linderholm et al. 2004; van den Broek et al. 2001, 2005). In the case of L2, particularly at the lower levels of L2 proficiency, background knowledge has been reported to have the potential for compensating for L2 language deficiencies. L2 readers typically work towards two goals: those of understanding a particular text and enhancing the command of a second language and reading competence (Bernhardt 2005, 2010; McNeil 2012). But the information readers use is not to be understood as confronting new input and background knowledge retrieved from semantic memory; intertextual information and information reinstated in form of new inferences also contribute to the final reading outcome. All information types are activated in an automatic or strategic way and strategy use is intricately connected with reader goals (Linderholm et al. 2004).

4 Reading for Different Purposes: Insights from Research Findings in L1

Reading for different purposes, which is an issue of practical importance to L2 classroom teachers and an interesting point of inquiry, is not an area that has been well investigated so far. The greatest problem stems from the fact that L2 reading activities are characterized by so many different contexts, text types, tasks, levels of learners' proficiency, languages taught and other variables that carrying out systematic research is problematic. The only research study discussed in the relevant literature dealing with L2 settings by Horiba (2000) investigated the performance of Japanese readers, who proved not to be so responsive to reading purposes as native speakers of English. On the other hand, some empirical studies involving L1 college students have helped to deepen insights into the role played by purpose in reading, and provide support to the Landscape Model of Reading. Reading purposes (reading for study vs. for entertainment) have been demonstrated to evoke different inferences, affect the text's recall, and thus generally influence the effectiveness of reading, both interindividualy and intraindividually. Readers' goals have also been found to modify their strategic behaviour.

Navarez et al. (1999), who focused on the effect of the two purposes—reading for study vs. entertainment on comprehending narrative and expository texts found that whereas reading purpose did not affect the level of comprehension, it influenced the think-aloud process the subjects got involved in. The readers who read expository texts with a study purpose repeated the text, acknowledged a lack of background knowledge, and evaluated the text content more often than those reading with an entertainment purpose. Reading narrative texts, on the other hand,

brought about more explanations, predictions and attempts at understanding clausal relationships. The researchers concluded that the reading purpose affects the kind of inferences readers generate, which is also partially determined by reader strategic behaviour.

A strong impact of reader goals on inference generation (think-aloud procedure) and memory (free recall) for expository texts read by college students for study or entertainment purposes was also reported by van Broek et al. (2001). While reading for study purposes the readers produced more explanatory and predictive inferences helpful in coherence building, whereas reading for entertainment meant producing more associations and evaluations conducive to better memorization. The researchers found that inference generation is partly strategic in its nature and that the standard of coherence readers aim to achieve is the mediating variable between reading purpose and the inferences drawn with the final goal of text meaning to be remembered.

The issue of the extent to which low- and high-working memory capacity readers alter cognitive processes and strategies in accordance with the reason for reading (study vs. entertainment) was taken up by Linderholm and van den Broek (2002). Whereas reading for entertainment produced the same pattern of text processing and recall for all the students who adjusted their behaviour to fit the reading purpose, reading for study proved to be less efficient for low-working memory capacity readers. They tended to reread the text instead of monitoring it (using a metacognitive strategy), but recalled less; they made fewer metacognitive comments and generated fewer predictive inferences. The researchers concluded that low-working memory capability learners may experience some problems in adjusting their cognitive processing to reading goals due to the inability to use metacognitive strategies appropriately; hence, for example, the inefficiently used strategy of repeating the text should make the reader look for more effective metacognitive strategies, like monitoring.

The investigation of differences in text processing as a consequence of low- and high-working memory capacity of readers and reading purposes was continued by Linderholm et al. (2008), who examined how cognitive and metacognitive processing patterns alternated as a function of the subjects' working-memory capacity and reading for study vs. entertainment. They found that in the case of reading for entertainment, a relatively simple purpose, both low- and high-memory capacity readers had the same reading times. However, while reading for study, low-memory capacity readers read more slowly, which did not mean better recall. High-working memory capacity readers had a clear advantage over them as they were able to do all the purpose-oriented tasks at the same speed, engage successfully in the complex processes of reading for study and maximize their recall.

In a review of college reading for a variety of purposes, Linderholm (2006) underlined the importance of the interaction between reading purposes, cognitive processing of texts, reader strategies and the amount of text recalled, adding that many other factors such as text difficulty and students' motivations are in interplay in achieving the standards of coherence readers plan to meet. The researcher also sums up several practical applications of the empirical findings of the relevant studies:

- students have to be aware of the fact that to meet specific goals in reading one has to alter the way of reading;
- learners have to develop strategies to help them arrive at text comprehension and long-term memorization;
- strategies such as skimming for main points or definitions of terms are not as effective as connections with prior knowledge, explanations, generating cause-and-effect questions;
- less-skilled readers need to be helped by being provided with an explanation of instructional goals and orienting clues;
- less-skilled readers get a false sense of good comprehension when rereading/reviewing a book, however, they may lack understanding of strategies that enhance reading for study purposes, such as paraphrasing, making inferences, monitoring comprehension, summarizing and monitoring accuracy.

5 Setting Goals for Reading: a Defining Characteristic of Strategic Behaviour

Although research within a plethora of L1 and L2 reading contexts has provided significant proof that the use of effective strategies by readers leads to the improvement of comprehension, that does not mean that a final evidence-based typology of reading has been established and that that the purpose dimension in reading has been given due concern. As already stated, establishing a purpose for a reading activity is inherently connected with the implementation of strategies readers find most suitable to embark on. What is more, the readers need to decide not only what strategies to choose, but also when, where and how to use them. Since one of the earliest attempts at classifying major reading strategies was made (Olshavsky 1977), many other studies (mostly based on think-aloud and introspection/retrospection procedures) have proposed a range of reading strategy typologies. It is worth considering in more detail some views that have acknowledged the presence of a strong bond between strategy use and reading purposes and underscored its significance for enhancing instructional procedures in both L1 and L2 contexts.

It in noteworthy that the feature of goal-directness is deeply rooted in the conceptualization of a reading strategy itself. The competencies of a strategic reader are typically defined as actions exploited by readers both globally and locally, with a view to achieving their goals and monitoring the efficiency of the reading process and its outcomes. Reader competencies are in constant interplay with text and task properties, and affect ultimate gains in reading comprehension (Janzen 2001; Koda 2005). In explaining the difference between skill and strategy, Afflerbach et al. (2008) state that while reading skills mean automatic and efficient actions used with no awareness and control, strategies, by contrast, are goal-directed and require readers' full awareness and deliberate control. Such a view

implies that all reading activities are accompanied by goals and is expressed by the researchers in the following way:

> Control and working toward a goal characterize the strategic reader who selects a particular path to a reading goal (i.e., a specific means to a desired end). Awareness helps the reader select an intended path, the means to the goal, and the processes used to achieve the goal, including volitional control […] that prevents distractions and preserves commitment to the goal (Afflerbach et al. 2008: 368).

Afflerbach et al. (2008) underscored the fact that a strategic reader has the capacity to examine the strategies used so as to monitor their effectiveness, as well as to revise both goals and means. Flexibility and adaptability is therefore a fundamental characteristic of strategic reader behaviour. Some researchers (e.g. Pressley and Afflerbach 1995; Afflerbach 2000; Mokhtari and Reichard 2002) subscribe to the view that strategically engaged readers arrive at the meaning of the text through constructively responsive reading, that is a transaction between the reader and the text.

To promote L1/L2 students' self-confidence in managing their reading and learning, Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) and Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) created a self-report survey of reading strategies (for L1 and L2 respectively). The goal of adopting the inventory is two-fold: (1) to increase students' awareness of the concepts of reading and learning from text, as well as of their responsibility of monitoring learning and promoting motivation, and (2) to investigate the impact of strategy training on students' text comprehension in conditions varying in terms of reading purpose, text length, difficulty, structure and topic familiarity. As can be seen, the concept of reading purpose is dominant for the survey; it appears in the form: "I have a purpose in mind when I read" at the first place in a list of global strategies—intentional, carefully planned for monitoring/managing learning (Mokhtari and Reichard 2002: 252).

An interesting taxonomy categorizing reading strategies was designed by Ediger (2006). Although the highest level of the hierarchy of reading strategies is occupied by the traditionally recognized metacognitive, cognitive and affective strategy types, they are further filled by subsets of categories that give a fairly systematic view of L2 reader strategic behaviour. Thus metacognitive strategies are classified into: purpose-oriented strategies, comprehension-monitoring strategies, and strategies that focus on learning from reading, and cognitive strategies entail: interacting with author and text, handling unknown words, and but also involving different ways of reading and the reader's prior knowledge. Giving priority to the goal-directed nature of the reading process, the researcher describes how a selected purpose can be accomplished in a reading task when accompanied by other strategies whose role is not only to assist the reader in achieving their reading goals but also to help them improve text comprehension. The strategies which are labeled **purpose-oriented strategies** align with different aspects of the reading process:

- planning what to do next, steps to take;
- reminding oneself about the purpose for reading;

- evaluating information in terms of whether it leads to one's purpose;
- deciding whether a text is relevant to one's purpose;
- comparing information from one text with that of another;
- reflecting on how well objectives were met;
- evaluating the quality of a text;
- checking the time one has available (Ediger 2006: 305).

The set of the strategies compiled by Ediger (2006) clearly points to processes/actions the reader is expected to engage in while proceeding through the text, and to the fact that they are executed in an intentional way. What matters then is not only a successful operation of a strategy through time but also its accomplishment.

'Setting reading purpose' also appears in Hudson's (2007: 107–108) typology of comprehension strategies traditionally subdivided into pre-, while- and post-reading strategy types. Readers set a purpose for reading in the pre-reading phase, after they have established a good physical environment. More importance is given to establishing reading goals by the reader by Grabe (2009), who contends that it is the goals set for the task that direct the reader in text processing, yet the reader is able to reset them when reading output does not match them. He also firmly states that readers "read selectively according to goals" (2009: 228).

A comprehensive approach to the typology of reading strategies in L1 developed on a sound theoretical and empirical basis, general enough to be accepted by L2 reading specialists, was offered by McNamara et al. (2007). They designed the 4-pronged comprehension strategy framework with its central part called Monitoring Comprehension and Reading Strategies that consists of 4 prongs organizing a range of reading strategies. Below are the main strategy types enumerated with examples of some strategies they comprise.

1. Strategies to Prepare to Read—setting and recognizing goals for reading;
2. Strategies to Interpret Words, Sentences, and Ideas in the Text—text-focused strategies, marking and annotating, bridging inferences and close reading helpful in constructing a coherent text base;
3. Strategies to Go Beyond the Text—activating prior knowledge;
4. Strategies to Organize, Restructure, and Synthesize the Text—using selected information from the text (McNamara et al. 2007: 467).

McNamara et al. (2007) do not accept the view that particular strategies are directly attached to one stage of reading, in contrast to e.g. Hudson's opinion, but they assume that they are employed at multiple stages of reading. They also treat learning and remembering some information from the text as the basic purpose of reading; readers get involved in constant monitoring of the coherence of their mental representation of the text and update the relevant information. Strategies are used consciously with a reader specific purpose in their minds, and as the researchers claim "defining a goal before reading can serve as a benchmark for judging whether the reader's standards for comprehension are satisfied. Having a specific purpose can guide understanding by providing a means to signal when comprehension and reader goals are misaligned" (McNamara et al. 2007: 472).

To recapitulate, it has to acknowledged that while all reader strategic activity is goal-directed, readers perform particular tasks both in authentic and non-authentic contexts with some aims in mind. Therefore, effective reading is to be perceived as the interface between reader goals and strategic behaviour adaptable to readers' needs and diverse contexts. Setting reading purposes has an influence on how reading progresses: it determines, among others, how selective readers are, which portions of content they concentrate on, what degree of comprehension level they aim at, and how they monitor the reading process. Numerous other variables, such as the nature of the text read, the reader's pre-existing knowledge (in particular topic knowledge), as well as one's comprehension abilities will also influence what the specific reader purposes will be and are how flexibly they will be shifted. Setting reading purposes does not mean establishing the optimal type of purposes but the ones successfully adjusted to different texts and situations.

6 Defining Reader Goals and L2/FL Context: in Search of Practical Solutions

As follows from the argumentation presented so far, no sound instructional approach to the development of L2 reading competence can underestimate the importance of recognizing the purposeful and intentional nature of reading. However, while in real-life language use outside the language classroom, readers' goals are primarily communicative and self-generated, in formal educational settings they are shaped by the course book writer and the practicing teacher (RAND 2002). It is worth having a look at what major paths have been delineated by L2 reading teachers in search of describing and following reading purposes in classroom instruction.

Since the 1930's up till now, the dichotomy between **intensive** and **extensive reading** seems to have been a dominating organization of reading-focused practice for many EFL classrooms. In practice, the general distinction lies in a careful study of a text—reading for quality vs. reading longer, mainly simplified texts, generally outside school—for quantity, but also with the learners' satisfaction and enjoyment (Nation 2009; Dakowska 2005; Hedgcock and Ferris 2009). The resulting roles of the teacher are that of a role model, carefully monitoring students' work in intensive reading vs. no clearly planned assistance in readers' work in extensive reading.

The potential of pleasure reading underlined by extensive reading was reconsidered by Krashen's 'Reading Hypothesis' (accompanying his Comprehensible Input Hypothesis), which maintains that comprehensible input for language acquisition is provided when a reader understands the text he/she reads. (Krashen 1989, 1991). Krashen acknowledged the criterion of the appropriacy of the reading text for a particular learner group in terms of both language and content, and thought that the familiarity of the topic enhanced the effectiveness of the reading

process. **Reading for pleasure** accompanied by interest was also found to lead to vocabulary expansion and developing new form-meaning connections.

The beneficial effect of extensive reading is generally assumed to arise from learners' freedom in choosing what to read, for how long and at what pace. Done outside school, it serves general comprehension with no attention paid to detail, is checked by readers themselves, and the amount of follow-up activities required is limited (e.g. Day and Bamford 1998; Aebersold and Field 1997; Hedgcock and Ferris 2009). Though a highly recommended form of reading, extensive reading has raised some concerns. One of them was the provision of materials—the use of reading texts within readers' competence, typically simplified ones contrasted with authentic materials recommended by CLT advocates (Aebersold and Field 1997; Day and Bamford 1998). Another issue concerned establishing a reading purpose. In extensive reading learners typically make their tasks purposeful independently of their teachers as they choose texts of their interest and read them **for pleasure, general comprehension or information** (Day and Bamford 1998). As noted by Horst (2009), the element of pleasurable reading, has wrongly suggested to some specialists that extensive reading should play only an adjunct role in reading instruction. Research studies, however, have provided evidence that extensive reading has a definite potential for language acquisition, in particular for incidental vocabulary acquisition and an increase in lexical access speed. Finally, some concerns were voiced as to the lack of follow up activities, which were responded to with the recommendation that summaries, book reports or discussions in response to the text read outside the classroom be introduced (Aebersold and Field 1997).

In contrast to extensive reading, intensive reading practice is taken for granted as a typical provision of reading instruction in L2/FL settings (Hedgcock and Ferris 2009; Nation 2009). This means that a set of basic principles for organizing a reading-focused lesson are formulated to ensure the successful development of learners' reading skills. Hedgcock and Ferris (2009: 162), for example, define the goals in intensive reading as follows: "The overall purpose of an intensive reading lesson is **only secondarily the comprehension of text content**—the overriding goal is to build students' skills and strategies for reading authentic texts beyond the reading classroom". Such a statement sounds odd and outdated at a time when the majority of researchers and teachers would feel annoyed by seeing the importance of achieving text comprehension and some learning as an outcome of reading activity undervalued, and when the benefits of exploiting authentic texts and their communicative function have been commonly approved of.

Novel and persuasive argumentation for considering purpose as a determining factor in text processing was presented by Carver (1992, 1997, 2000), who conceptualized reading as functioning through five gears called respectively: scanning (1), skimming (2), rauding (3), learning (4), and memorizing (5), activated depending on the purpose of a particular reading task. Koda (2005) calls it a **functional perspective** as the goals that are realized while reading are assumed to determine the cognitive complexity of text processing, which increases the higher the gear goes. Searching some information in a text is one of the simplest operations performed by the reader primarily at the lexical level, whereas learning and

memorizing, a common result of reading, require the use of higher-order cognitive abilities and conceptual processing. Grabe and Staller (2002: 12) point out that it is Gear 3, that is the rauding process, that is representative of 'normal reading', an ordinary reading of texts/materials encountered in our daily lives, such as a newspaper, a novel or a memo at a workplace, which are relatively easy to comprehend. As for Carver's scanning and skimming as the first two types of reading on the gear scale, for years they have been a component of EFL reading practice. Of importance, however, is his contention that reading also requires memorization and learning, especially when the text is conceptually difficult and contains many unknown words. As shown above, the present day discussion on reading, including CBI/CLIL approaches has made it obvious that the fundamental role of reading as a source of knowledge acquisition needs to be fully recognized in all instructional contexts.

A principled, well-informed analysis of the text to be exploited in EFL reading instruction, that is fully in accord with most recent views on the development of reading competence, was provided by Dakowska in 2005. The researcher assumes that each reading passage needs to be analyzed in terms of its two potentials: **the communicative potential** and **the learning potential**. On the one hand, the students have to be provided with activities that enable them to practice with a real context and purpose in mind, answering questions on the text's communicative situation (the writer, his/her intentions and the addressee), topic, genre, rhetorical devices, relate them to their experience and offer some response. On the other hand, the activities will concern learning factual/cultural information from the text, lexical items connected with a particular topic domain, component parts of the text, their organization, linguistic exponents, and argumentation, as well as retention of the material (Dakowska 2005: 199). This kind of text analysis implemented by means of a range of classroom activities duly underlines the communicative and cognitive aspects of the reading process.

Although the discussion on the place of intensive and extensive reading in L2 contexts continues, recently attention has mostly been paid to the commonly accepted way of organizing reading lessons along the lines of the pre, while- and post-reading stages. As remarked by Dakowska (2005: 209), this "seems to be a quite appropriate in view of the nature of reading and the language learners' special needs". A number of issues raised in this paper so far have made it clear that this approach is generally given support to. Bearing in mind, however, the importance of setting reading goals, it should undoubtedly be recognized that it is the pre-reading phase that will be assigned a profound role in starting off the reading process; hence a diversity of strategies recommended to introduce the reading task (Grabe and Stoller 2002; Dakowska 2005; Hudson 2007, Alexander and The Disciplined Reading and Learning Research Laboratory 2012). McNamara et al. (2007) adds that "explicit overarching goals" established for reading serve as the teacher's criteria for comprehension and learning while monitoring the progress of the task.

7 Concluding Remarks

In view of the problems raised in this chapter focusing on the purpose-driven nature of reading competence, it has to be stressed that in order to attain effective instructional procedures L2/FL language instructors have to be responsive to recent insights into the understanding of reading competence and the paths of its development provided in the area of both L1 and L2 theory, research and practice. Teachers should be able to better understand which reading purposes are to be established for their learners, but also to monitor the impact of these purposes on text processing and on the likelihood of gaining the anticipated outcomes. L2 specialists have to be fully aware to what extent the learners can accomplish the target reading tasks successfully and how beneficial they can be in terms of the development of reading and language competence as well as knowledge acquisition. Needless to say, in order for L2 teachers to make professional decisions concerning reading issues, they also have to adopt an adequate theoretical framework for a critical evaluation of a diversity of reading-oriented classroom practices.

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Awareness of Derivational Morphology and its Influence on Vocabulary Retention

Anna Michońska-Stadnik

Abstract Recent brain imaging studies (e.g. Paradis 2009) have confirmed that remembering foreign language words seems to be subserved by the left brain hemisphere, in contrast to the ability to make use of L2 vocabulary in real communication, which appears to be processed in the right hemisphere and represents the learner's procedural knowledge. Consequently, acquisition of lexical items and their remembering are not the same processes since acquisition comprises both receptive and productive vocabulary usage. This chapter concentrates on vocabulary retention only. Its aim is to look at the role of explicit metacognitive instruction in derivational morphology in remembering English vocabulary. Since the awareness of word structure represents declarative knowledge, it may be assumed that it could be helpful in memorizing lexical items, which is the process subserved by the same type of knowledge. What is more, understanding word derivation engages more complex cognitive processing than just listing English words and their translations. Thus, there seems to be more chance for the learners to remember vocabulary better, as the use of memory and cognitive strategies had been long ago proved effective in the language learning process (Oxford 1990). The learners from the experimental group (18–19 years old high school students) were explicitly taught affixes, their meaning, and what parts of speech they form. Students were engaged in tasks that allowed for word manipulation and developed their analytical abilities. In the control group derivational morphology was not introduced. After the treatment, both groups took part in a vocabulary test. Regrettably, data analysis revealed no significant differences in vocabulary retention between the groups.

A. Michońska-Stadnik (✉)
University of Wrocław, Wrocław, Poland
e-mail: michsta@uni.wroc.pl

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1 Introduction

There exists an assumption about vocabulary in a foreign language which many teachers take for granted: after a word's meaning has been mastered by the learner, all other aspects of word knowledge will follow in due course. However, it is not always true. As Schmitt (2000) puts it, when we deal with more complex vocabulary items, it is probably worth to introduce as much information about an item as possible, because in a formal teaching environment the chances of encountering this item in natural discourse are scarce. Instruction in derivational morphology seems to create an opportunity for the learner to obtain such additional information about lexical items, and thus enhance their retention.

This type of instruction does not seem to be appreciated at the beginning stages of foreign language learning as it may be too complex in itself. Taking into consideration the fact that in Polish education system foreign language instruction starts at the age of seven or even earlier, the beginners are not cognitively prepared to approach any type of derivational analysis. However, at more advanced stages of language learning, students tend to be more creative and may even become interested in word derivation. They have already reached cognitive maturity and may start to demonstrate some authentic enthusiasm for metalinguistic knowledge in order to systematize information they possess about lexis. In other words, it may be profitable for the learners to know and identify morphological patterns which underlie a given set of words in a language in order to enrich their existing mental lexicon.

The purpose of the research reported on in this chapter was to establish whether explicit instruction in derivational morphology was more effective in vocabulary retention than other teaching techniques (translation, matching synonyms, matching definitions) with a group of intermediate learners at the age of 18/19. The chapter consists of five parts. Introduction constitutes part one. Part two will be devoted to the concept of vocabulary learning and teaching in a foreign language. Part three will develop the notion of word formation and derivational morphology, whereas part four will cover the description of the research, including research questions, methodology, instruments, group characteristics, and finally, the results of the research. Conclusions will constitute the last part of this paper, part five. The chapter is based on student research (Dykta 2011) carried out for the purpose of completing the M.A. thesis, written under the supervision of the author of this article.

2 Vocabulary and its Processing in a Foreign Language

Paradis (2004: 110) presents four different approaches which tackle the issue of language representations in the brain of a bilingual person: *the extended system hypothesis, the dual system hypothesis, the tripartite hypothesis,* and *the subsystems hypothesis.* The extended system hypothesis holds that there is no difference in the representation of languages in the brain. Both languages are supposed to be

stored and activated in the same places and similar mental processes occur when an individual intends to make use of one language or another. The dual system hypothesis, on the other hand, claims that languages are represented differently and function as independent systems. The tripartite hypothesis maintains that those items which are identical in both languages share the same neural representations, and those which are different have separate representations. Therefore, the mental lexicon, according to the tripartite hypothesis, consists of three parts: the common part for languages, the L1 part, and the foreign language part. Finally, the subsystems hypothesis asserts that "bilinguals have two subsets of neural connections for each language which operate within one cognitive system, that is, the language system" (Paradis 2004: 110).

Regardless of the adopted approach, there exist parallel cognitive processes in a bilingual brain, which allow for the choice of appropriate vocabulary in a given context. Paradis (ibid.) claims that these cognitive processes which operate in monolinguals are sufficient to guide individuals in their selection of words, pronunciation and syntax in the foreign language. Apparently, these processes are believed to be universal, according to the cognitive linguistics. Similarly, in both L1 and L2 a clear distinction has to be made between vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary use. The former represents declarative knowledge and the latter–procedural knowledge. In other words, remembering lexical items in any language an individual knows is essentially different from the ability to use them in real-life communication. Combining words into meaningful sentences in order to express intended messages appears to be much more complex than reciting them from memory or being able to recognize them in a spoken or written text. The ability to communicate in a foreign language is therefore attained, as both teachers and learners know perfectly well, as the result of prolonged practice, unlike the ability to recite lists of words from memory, which can be attained in minutes.

Hence, we observe the distinction into receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. This division, however, seems to be oversimplified because it treats vocabulary attainment in terms of straightforward dichotomy. Instead, Gass and Selinker (2008) propose a continuum, with clearly defined initial and final stages. The initial stage stands for recognition, and the final one for production, where production refers to a fairly advanced stage of development, with the ability to use appropriate collocations and idioms. Receptive vocabulary is frequently confused with passive vocabulary. In fact, receptive lexicon is not passive at all. In listening or reading, active comprehension processes take place, involving not only word recognition but also the ability to perceive its function within a meaningful syntactic pattern. It is difficult, though, to establish a point in time when receptive vocabulary may reach the productive status. According to Schmitt and McCarthy (1998), a word might be known productively in some contexts but not in others.

Another issue to be tackled is the organization of word knowledge. Thornbury (2002) proposes that the way vocabulary is stored may resemble a sort of web or network, organized in a highly intricate manner, where all items are interconnected. It is neither a list of lexical items nor a random accumulation of words. The learners' mistakes that can be observed reveal quite a lot about how this network is

assembled. For instance, if two words with similar pronunciation are confused, we may assume that they are somehow stored together in our mental lexicon. On the other hand, if two words of similar meaning are confused, we may suppose that our mental lexicon is arranged semantically. In fact, both ways of organization seem to exist parallel to each other. Thornbury (ibid.) claims, however, that brain appears to work faster when it searches for words with the use of meaning-based lexicon than with the use of form-based lexicon. Still, he believes that both systems cooperate because mistakes of similar sound involve words of the same class, e.g. *kitchen/chicken, alligator/allegory*. Obviously, vocabulary system is connected with other areas of cognition, such as memory and general knowledge of the world, thus the activation of one lexical item may trigger the retrieval of other multiple connections, which may lead to more efficient communication and more sophisticated interaction.

There are certain obligatory aspects of word knowledge, as summarized by Ur (2006) and Nation (2001). First of all, it is necessary to know the form of a word. The form involves both the pronunciation of a given word, as used in its spoken form, and the spelling of a word, as it is used in its written form. Second, it is crucial to know the meaning of a word. This implies knowing the meaning of its different forms, as well as knowing concepts and referents of a word in associations. Last but not least is the aspect of word use. It concerns grammatical functions, collocations and constraints on the use of a word, including, for example, its register. As it can be seen, the knowledge of a word is a fairly complex notion, by no means associated only with its equivalent in the learner's mother tongue.

As the last issue in this part of the chapter which is devoted to vocabulary in the foreign language, it seems to be necessary to mention the factors affecting word learnability. The first factor is word pronunciation, which may be more or less complex. For Polish learners of English the most difficult words will be those which require long and short vowels and completely different stress pattern (Sobkowiak 2001). Polish learners will not have problems with all kinds of English consonant clusters as their mother tongue contains a lot of more complex ones. The next factor is learning the correct spelling. The extent to which the sound-spelling correspondence occurs may either hinder or facilitate learning (Schmitt and McCarthy 1998). Even though there are some patterns in the pronunciation of many English words, there are also many irregularities. A written form of an English word may give hardly any clues as to how it should be pronounced. Additionally, the same letter might be pronounced in a different manner, depending on the preceding or the following sounds in a particular word.

The other factors affecting word learnability are: length and complexity of a word, synformic similarity, grammatical complexity, and semantic features of words, which include arbitrariness, specificity, register restrictions, and idiomaticity. In English the most frequent words are short ones, usually consisting of one or two syllables. The longer the word the less frequent it is. Thus, long words are rare to encounter in real-life everyday English, and they are more difficult to learn (Thornbury 2002). According to Laufer (1997), lexical forms which are similar both in sound pattern and in spelling are referred to as synforms. They usually belong to

the same word class, have the same number of syllables and the same stress pattern. They seem to be a group of words which are the most difficult to assimilate by foreign language learners of English. Good examples of synforms are: *adopt/adapt; industrial/industrious; collaborate/cooperate; peace/piece; prize/price.*

It is frequently argued that some parts of speech are easier to remember than others. Nouns are regarded as the easiest, whereas adverbs are viewed as the most difficult. What is more, in the English language verbs may occur in different forms, depending on their tense, and these morphological alterations may make verbs more difficult than, for example, nouns which are mostly encountered in different contexts in the nominative case (Schmitt and McCarthy 1998). The nature of these morphological alterations will be referred to in the next part of this chapter.

As far as the semantic features of words are concerned, learners tend to confuse lexical items which overlap semantically, and those which have multiple meanings. What is more, abstract words pose more problems than specific words, and they are difficult to absorb. Register restrictions seem to hinder vocabulary learning as well. Non-native speakers of any language confuse different registers very frequently. In order to avoid misunderstandings and not to sound offensive, they use words which are neutral, safe, and fit a wide range of contexts. This strategy results in the learners' discourse being evaluated as extremely general and even simplistic.

Idioms in a foreign language are more troublesome than expressions with transparent meaning. They are usually seen as the biggest obstacle in learning foreign language vocabulary. It is the lack of the appropriate use of idioms that usually allows to distinguish a foreigner from a native speaker even though the former may have acquired an almost native-like pronunciation. Generally, idioms constitute a heavy and complex learning load, regardless of whether there exist their equivalents in the learners' first language or not.

It seems to be inevitable that learners' need to control their vocabulary learning process increases with time, as they progress to more advanced stages of language development. Therefore, it might be advisable to incorporate some vocabulary learning strategies in order to facilitate achieving mastery in lexical attainment. An example of this type of instruction is analyzing word parts, which will be elaborated on in the next section.

3 Some Remarks on Morphology, Derivations, and the Teaching of Affixes

If learners are able to decompose a given lexical item into morphemes, then their capability of recognizing meaning is enhanced and the subsequent production facilitated. Still, the learner has to know which morphemes can and which cannot be put together to create meaningful items. It is not that simple, though. The presence of the multiplicity of meanings together with the absence of regularities which would underlie the morphological patterns of words, contribute to greater difficulty in learning foreign language vocabulary.

Word is defined as the smallest free form in a given language. In written discourse it is relatively easy to identify because it is bounded by spaces when printed. It is important to make a distinction between a word and a lexeme. In any language there are more words than lexemes (Bauer 2006: 9). For example, *cook, cooking, cooked* and *cooks* are all different word-forms but they constitute one lexeme. Morphemes, on the other hand, are units smaller than words.

Morpheme is the smallest word component and simultaneously it constitutes the smallest syntactic unit. Its capacity is broad since it conveys meaning and carries grammatical information. Consequently, words are divided broadly into two groups: simple and complex. A simple word is not subject to further subdivisions but complex words may consist of at least two components. O'Grady and de Guzman (1997: 134) present the following set of examples to illustrate the complexity of some English words:

One morpheme: *hunt, act, man*
Two morphemes: *hunt-er, act-ive, gentle-man*
Three morphemes: *hunt-er-s, act-iv-ate, gentle-man-ly*
More than three: *re-act-iva-te, gentle-man-li-ness*.

There exists also a division within morphemes themselves. If a morpheme can constitute a word on its own, it is called a *free morpheme*, if it cannot—it is a *bound morpheme*. Thus *boy* is a free morpheme, whereas *–s* as in *boys* is a bound morpheme. Morphemes can be pronounced in a different way and may have different orthographic forms, e.g. in words like *cats, dogs, judges* the same morpheme *–s* is pronounced differently and there also appears *–es* in the last word's graphic representation. These are called *allomorphs* of the same plural morpheme in English.

Free morphemes usually constitute the *root* of a word in English to which various *affixes* can be added. The *base* of a given word might be its root at the same time, but not necessarily. For instance, in some cases the base is something larger than the root. A good example here is the word *blacken*, which consists of the root *black* and affix *–en.* However, when we create the word *blackened*, it is *blacken* that remains the base for the affix *-ed*, not *black.*

Taking into account the outlined morphological processes, two operations—*derivation* and *compounding* deserve particular attention due to the fact that they play a key role in word formation. Compounding means combining different lexical categories in order to form a larger unit, e.g. *bus stop* (two nouns), *blueberry* (adjective and noun), *outhouse* (preposition and noun). The components can exist as independent lexemes in other contexts (O'Grady and de Guzman 1997: 143–144). By derivation, a word of a different meaning is formed in comparison to the meaning of its base. This is done by means of *affixation*.

Affixation is a basic morphological operation, and three main groups of affixes can be distinguished: *prefixes, suffixes* and *infixes.* Prefixes are attached in front of the base, whereas suffixes appear at the end, and infixes – in the middle of it. For the purpose of this research only prefixes and suffixes will be dealt with. Derived lexical items are independent forms and have separate entries in the mental dictionaries of language users. There is one more subdivision of affixes, which

accordingly fall into two categories: *inflectional* and *derivational*. Inflectional affixes change the form of the word within the same lexeme, whereas derivational affixes are those which form new lexemes out of bases. Bauer (2006: 14) gives an example of the word *recreates*. This word-form can be subdivided into the prefix –*re*, the root *create*, and the suffix –*s*. The prefix forms the new lexeme *recreate* from its root, whereas the suffix –*s* produces only yet another word-form of the newly created lexeme. Thus –*re* is derivational, whereas –*s* is inflectional.

Due to its inherent complexity, the whole system of affixes in English is particularly difficult to teach. Foreign language teachers, however, are frequently unaware of these difficulties, and assume that when a word-form is once taught, its derivations will take care of themselves. Unfortunately, in most cases it does not happen. That is why it seems valuable to teach word class and morphology explicitly. It is especially important in the case of lower frequency words because they are difficult to encounter in spoken and written discourse and thus their various derivations may be unfamiliar to the students.

As far as teaching morphology is concerned, Thornbury (2002) proposes two approaches. The first one in called *a rule-based approach*, and it consists in presenting some morphological regularities prior to memorizing a lexical item. According to this approach, words can be arranged in line with the manner in which they were formed, and groupings of words correspond to the forms of affixes. A drawback of this approach is that not all regularities are applicable to all contexts; an undeniable asset of this approach is that equipping learners with the knowledge of the meanings of different affixes facilitates the process of their unlocking unknown meanings of new words encountered in written or spoken texts.

The other approach to teaching word morphology is called *item learning*. Here, learning complex words resembles learning simple words; both are treated in the same way and usually memorized as separate items, regardless of their complexity. No rules about the structure of the given word are introduced.

As far as explicit morphological instruction is concerned, Bauer and Nation (1993) invented their own ranking of affixes and they propose a number of principles which may appear useful in teaching. The following are some of their observations:

- The most regular and frequent derivational affixes are: *-able, -er, -less, -ly, -ness, -th, -y, non-*, and *un-*.
- Each derivative should be treated as a separate lexical item.
- There are classical English roots and affixes which show high frequency and thus should be taught explicitly, e.g. *ab-, ad-, com-, de-, dis-, ex-, sub-*.

4 Research Report

The main objective of the research was to establish the relationship between the presence or absence of explicit instruction in derivational morphology and learners' success in vocabulary retention in English as a foreign language. The following research questions were asked:

1. Are there any differences in vocabulary retention between learners to whom derivational morphology is introduced and learners who do not receive such instruction?
2. Which group of learners remembers vocabulary better?
3. What is the learners' attitude towards explicit instruction in derivational morphology?

4.1 Research procedure

The research group consisted of 30 learners altogether, who were divided into two equal subgroups—experimental and control. They were at the upper-intermediate level of English and attended the last grade of a senior secondary school in the city of Wrocław, Poland. The research design was primarily quasi experimental because there was no random group assignment. Thus, the independent variable of the research was the presence or absence of explicit instruction in morphology. The experimental group received such type of instruction whereas the control group did not. The dependent variable of the research was the level of vocabulary retention as measured by a vocabulary test consisting of 30 items. The questionnaire, which was administered in the experimental group after the treatment to collect students' opinions about the explicit instruction in morphology, constituted the qualitative element of the research. As the primary design of the study was experimental, two hypotheses, null and alternative, were formulated:

H_0 There is no significant relationship between introducing derivational morphology and learners' success in remembering vocabulary
H_1 There exists a significant relationship between introducing derivational morphology and learners' success in remembering vocabulary.

Three instruments were used to collect the data for the research: vocabulary pretest, vocabulary posttest and the questionnaire. The pretest, which was conducted before the experiment, was given to both control and experimental group in order to check if the subjects knew some of the vocabulary items to be presented during the treatment. The pretest consisted of a translation task, where the learners were asked to translate 130 English words into Polish. All words contained affixes, e.g. *environmental, overprotective, improper, disintegration, miscarriage, reconsider, unfaithful, rejuvenate,* and the like. From among the vocabulary items which were not understood by the subjects, the researcher selected eighty to be taught during the treatment, which lasted for ten lessons. The teacher introduced eight vocabulary items during one lesson to each group, however, the teaching techniques varied. The experimental group was explicitly taught affixes, together with their meaning and what parts of speech they form. The learners were engaged in tasks that allowed for manipulation and developed their analytical

abilities. The treatment involved, among others, presentation of affixes, as well as such techniques as gap filling, matching affixes to the base, deciding on the part of speech, categorizing affixes and bases, guessing at meanings of words, multiple choice tasks, error correction activities and translation. The control group was instructed in a traditional way, that is, taught vocabulary by means of various activities which did not draw the subjects' attention to the word components but treated complex words as single lexical items. The treatment used such techniques as translation, matching synonyms, matching Polish and English equivalents as well as filling in the gaps with the new words. It is important to mention that the researcher was not the groups' teacher. After the treatment the subjects were requested to solve the posttest and the experimental group completed the questionnaire.

In the posttest the subjects were required to supply the missing words in the sentences and fill in the gaps with English translations of the given Polish words. Obviously, the posttest was the same in both groups. The questionnaire, distributed in the experimental group, comprised three Likert-scale questions and provided space for the learners to give their own comments and opinions on the vocabulary instruction techniques. The questions were as follows:

1. Did you like the way new vocabulary was taught in the last ten lessons? Why?
2. Do you think this new technique was useful in enhancing vocabulary retention? Why?
3. Would you like to have the new vocabulary taught in this way at school? Why?

4.2 Research Results

After the posttest had been done by the students from both groups, the results were counted and analyzed. In a 30-point test nobody received the maximum score and the highest number of points was 29. In the experimental group the minimum score was 12 and in the control group the lowest score was four points. Even though the range was quite different in both groups, the mean scores were comparable. This is shown in Table 1.

As it can be seen above, the standard deviation value for the posttest in the control group is slightly higher than in the experimental group. This is presumably due to the greater discrepancy in the test results. As it was already indicated, the mean scores did not differ significantly, which was confirmed by the results of the T test. The observed value is lower than the critical value, which renders the null hypothesis true. Consequently, the alternative hypothesis must be rejected.

The questionnaire, which constituted the qualitative element of the research, aimed at providing insights into the learners' judgments concerning the type of instruction. Generally, explaining morphology was positively evaluated by students from the experimental group−92 % marked this type of instruction as at least quite interesting. This opinion referred to question number one. In answer to

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the post test in experimental and control group

Mean control group	Mean experimental group	SD control group	SD experimental group	T observed	T critical
20.66	21.06	7.06	5.86	0.68	2.160

question number two 55 % of students estimated explicit morphological instruction as quite effective in remembering vocabulary. However, quite a significant percentage (34 %) gave the answer "don't know". Finally, most of the respondents claimed that they would like to be taught foreign language words in that way in the future (about 60 %).

4.3 Data Analysis

As it was already indicated in the previous part of this research report, the results of statistical calculations supported the null hypothesis. In other words, it may be safely stated that there is no significant difference between the control and experimental group in remembering lexical items in English. In answer to the research question number one it must be asserted that explicit instruction in derivational morphology given to this particular group of students does not result in more effective remembering of English vocabulary as confirmed by a written test. This result is quite disappointing because one might expect students at more advanced level of cognitive development to benefit more from a fairly systematized and analytic type of vocabulary presentation. Consequently, even though the experimental group appeared to obtain slightly better results in a final vocabulary test, the difference seems to be too small to be of any significance. This statement, in fact, answers the second research question.

Students offered some interesting comments as regards explicit instruction in their answers to the three questions included in the survey. For example, explicit instruction in derivational morphology was described as "a little boring but good", "a bit strange but I liked it", "it's ok when you get used to it", and "an interesting way to learn new vocabulary". As far as the second question is concerned, students were less enthusiastic about the usefulness of this technique for remembering lexical items. A few of their comments express doubts concerning its effectiveness. However, the general feeling was positive. Here are some examples:

"I cannot say if it will help me in the future"; "I think it is an effective technique but not for everybody"; "Effective but not because of the grade but for my motivation—I really want to learn vocabulary for the test!". To the third question which asked the participants if they would like to learn vocabulary in such a way in the future, they justified their answers in the following way: "Yes, but together with a different technique, otherwise it will be boring"; "Yes, this is a very good method"; "No, I don't think so. I am confused about all these suffixes and it only makes matters worse"; "Good. Finally I managed to systematize my

knowledge". Some of the students also indicated that they found out a lot about English language during the treatment, and they admitted that until then they were used to learning words by heart without any attempt to analyze the learning material. Additionally, the technique of explicit instruction appeared to be quite challenging, especially for students with a more holistic learning style.

5 Conclusions

The final section of the chapter looks at some limitations of the research and offers a few comments as regards the obtained results. The findings proved that the null hypothesis had to be accepted, which indicated no existing relationship between the type of vocabulary instruction and the effectiveness of remembering new words in English. This result, even though it may be disappointing for the researcher, indicates equal value of different vocabulary presentation techniques in a class of upper-intermediate learners. On the other hand, positive opinions about introducing derivational morphology, expressed in learners' answers to the questionnaire may encourage teachers to make use of this technique in the future. The more foreign language vocabulary we learn, the more complicated it actually becomes, and thus learners need to work out their own strategies that would help them to organize vocabulary in their bilingual lexicon.

The kind of instruction introduced in the experimental group, even though it did not prove to be especially successful, served at least as a means to an end because, owing to the fact that English morphology is a complicated phenomenon, it should be gradually introduced to second language learners anyway. Thus, the treatment may pay off in the long run as learners could be encouraged to experiment with learning words as complex items not as single ones, which could be specially beneficial for students with more analytic learning style.

As for the drawbacks of the study, one needs to mention the small size of the research group and the limited scope of the questionnaire administered to the experimental group after the treatment. The size of the group was determined by the school conditions and the researcher had no authority to change that situation. It would have been possible to engage another teacher with another group of students in the research but it is hard to say whether the results of the research could then be comparable in both groups. The questionnaire, on the other hand, could have been prepared in a different way. Regrettably, it did not offer a list of the techniques and activities accompanying the treatment in the course of the research, whose attractiveness and usefulness would have been assessed by the participants. The researcher would then obtain a detailed register of activities and find out what particular tasks were valued more than others in the study. The researcher could have asked the subjects to rank the activities from the least to the most preferred, whereas she asked only about the advantages and disadvantages of the type of instruction in general.

In conclusion we might say that regardless of the low statistical significance of explicit instruction in derivational morphology, it may constitute a reliable teaching technique to be employed along with many others for presentation and practice of the new vocabulary in a foreign language.

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Comparing Learners' and Teachers' Beliefs About Form-Focused Instruction

Mirosław Pawlak

Abstract The effectiveness of form-focused instruction (FFI), irrespective of how it is conceptualized, is often considered only with respect to the use of concrete instructional options, such as, for example, deduction and induction, output-oriented and input-based teaching, explicit and implicit corrective feedback, and so on (see Pawlak in The place of form-focused instruction in the foreign language classroom. Adam Mickiewicz University Press, Kalisz, 2006; Ellis in The study of second language acquisition. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2008; Nassaji and Fotos in Form-focused instruction and teacher education: Studies in honor of Rod Ellis. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2011). Although determining the contribution of specific techniques and procedures is by all means justified, it should be kept in mind that their real value in the classroom hinges upon the beliefs manifested by learners and teachers as to how formal instruction should best be conducted, and, in particular, the extent to which the perceptions of the two groups overlap. In line with this assumption, the present paper reports the findings of a study which aimed to compare the beliefs about different aspects of FFI held by 106 advanced learners majoring in English and 62 teachers working in Departments of English Studies. The analysis of the data collected by means of a questionnaire containing Likert-scale and open-ended items showed that there were many differences between the two groups, the discussion of which provided a basis for tentative pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research.

M. Pawlak (✉)
Adam Mickiewicz University, Kalisz, Poland
e-mail: pawlakmi@amu.edu.pl

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1 Introduction

As Allwright and Bailey (1991: 19) so aptly pointed out over 20 years ago commenting on the nature and outcomes of interaction during language lessons, "In a classroom (…) it is usually considered normal for the teacher to 'run the show'—to make many of the managerial decisions about who should talk, to whom, on what topic, in what language, and so on, but none of this alters the fact that everything depends on the learners' cooperation. In choosing to cooperate (or not, as the case may be), the learners make a significant contribution to the management of the interaction that takes place in the classroom". In other words, it can be argued that language lessons, and perhaps even entire language courses, are in a sense co-productions that cannot generate the expected benefits unless they are based on the cooperation of all the parties involved. Whether such cooperation in fact occurs and the measure of its success hinge to a large extent on the beliefs that teachers and learners bring into the classroom, which have to be characterized by a certain degree of congruence to ensure the attainment of the envisaged pedagogical goals, because, in the words of Richards and Lockhart (1996: 52), "(…) while learning is the goal of teaching, it is not necessarily the mirror image of teaching". Clearly, the need for an overlap of learner and teacher beliefs is also of vital importance with respect to teaching different target language (TL) skills and subsystems, as it is undeniable that when the perceptions of specific instructional activities held by the two groups clash, the utility of these activities can be considerably diminished (cf. Spada and Gass 1986; Horwitz 1987; Borg 2003). For this reason, it is fully warranted to carry out research that would tap into the beliefs of learners and teachers in particular areas with a view to highlighting potential differences and offering guidelines on how they can be reconciled.

In accordance with this assumption, the present paper reports the results of a study which sought to compare learners' and teachers' beliefs about form-focused instruction (FFI), a key domain that has been fraught with numerous controversies over the last several decades and remains so to the present day. At the very outset, a short overview of current issues in FFI will be presented, with the emphasis being laid on the most contentious choices in this area. This will be followed by the description of the research questions, the design of the study, the procedures of data collection and analysis employed, as well as the presentation and discussion of its findings. In conclusion, a handful of tentative guidelines for classroom practice will be offered and some suggestions for future research on the interfaces between learners' and teachers' perceptions of FFI will be made.

2 Overview of Key Issues in Form-Focused Instruction

The term *form-focused instruction* is used in this paper as a synonym of such labels as *formal instruction*, *teaching target language forms* or simply *grammar teaching*, and it is intended to refer to any type of pedagogical intervention which is aimed to

help learners better understand grammatical structures and develop the ability to employ them in various circumstances, not only in traditional, controlled exercises, but also in communicative tasks reflective to at least some extent of the spontaneous communication that occurs outside the classroom. This stance is in line with the definition offered by Spada (1997: 73), who describes FFI as "(…) any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to form either implicitly or explicitly (…) within meaning-based approaches to L2 instruction [and] in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways". It is also congruent with the conceptualization of form-focused instruction proposed by Ellis (2001: 1–2), who explains that it refers to "(…) any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form", with the effect that it "(…) includes both traditional approaches to teaching forms based on structural syllabi and more communicative approaches, where attention to form arises out of activities that are primarily meaning-focused" (2001: 1–2). In effect, FFI can be seen as encompassing a wide range of pedagogic solutions, ranging from direct provision of rules to merely increasing the frequency of exposure to the targeted features in the input, which can be classified in a variety of ways, some of which are more detailed than others.

Ellis (2001), for example, introduces a broad distinction into (1) *focus on forms*, where the grammatical structures are preselected, sequenced and taught with the help of the PPP (presentation—practice—production) procedure, which calls for reliance on different forms of intensive practice (e.g., gap-filling, transformations), (2) *planned focus on form*, in which case the targeted features are also preselected but this typically happens in response to learner need (e.g., persistent errors in the use of a particular structure), and although the intervention is also intensive, it takes place in the course of communicative tasks (e.g., highlighting each instance of the targeted structure in a text, designing an activity that necessitates genuine communication but requires the use of a specific structure, or targeting a particular category of errors), and (3) *incidental focus on form*, where message conveyance is at a premium, no linguistic feature is preselected in advance, and the problems in the use of the TL system are dealt with preemptively (i.e., before an error occurs) or reactively (i.e., through the provision of corrective feedback). A more detailed classification of techniques and procedures in FFI can be found in another taxonomy introduced by Ellis (1997) and modified by Pawlak (2006a, b), where a key distinction is drawn between *learner performance options* and *feedback options*. The former are subdivided into *focused communication tasks*, in which the TL feature has to be used in production and reception, and *learner performance options*, which rely on various forms of practice stimulating the development of explicit and implicit knowledge. The latter include different ways of providing corrective feedback, ranging from techniques that are *more overt* or *explicit* (i.e., a high degree of learner awareness) to those that are *more covert* or *implicit* (i.e., awareness of the corrective force of the intervention may be limited). Yet another taxonomy of options in form-focused instruction can be found in Ellis (2005), who distinguishes between: (1) *explicit instruction*, which can be *didactic* or *discovery* in nature, or involve deduction and induction, (2) *implicit instruction*,

which involves providing learners with *non-enhanced input* (e.g., input flood, or repeated exposure to the TL form) or *enhanced input* (e.g., input enhancement, or graphically highlighting the targeted feature), (3) *structured input*, or such that is aimed to modify the default processing strategies used by learners and is taken advantage of in processing instruction (cf. VanPatten 2002), (4) *production practice*, which can be *controlled* (i.e., traditional exercises) or *functional* (i.e., activities that require learners to create their own sentences containing the TL feature and use it in a more communicative way), and (5) *negative feedback*, which can be *explicit* (e.g., direct correction) or *implicit* (e.g., the use of a recast), depending on students' awareness that the teacher's response is in fact corrective in nature.

Perceptions of the role of form-focused instruction have undergone a considerable evolution over the last few decades, ranging from rather uncritical acceptance of its contribution to language development, as evidenced in what Long (1991) refers to as *focus on forms* and Doughty (1998) labels *traditional grammar teaching* through its rejection in non-intervention approaches, inspired by the *zero grammar* option (Krashen 1985; Prabhu 1987), or what Long (1991) calls *focus on meaning*, to a revival of interest in teaching target language forms, largely in response to Long's (1991) concept of *focus on form*, according to which attention to linguistic features should be drawn in the course of performing communicative activities. In fact, the case for the facilitative effects of FFI can be made on theoretical, empirical and practical grounds, and although discussion of these issues falls outside the scope of the present paper and can be found in a number of recent publications (e.g., Ellis 2001, 2008; Larsen-Freeman 2003; Pawlak 2006a, 2012a; Nassaji and Fotos 2011; Spada 2011a, b), the definitions of FFI and the classifications of the options it comprises provided above testify to the value that is currently attached to it by second language acquisition specialists. Despite the general consensus that grammar instruction works for explicit and implicit knowledge, and that its effects are maintained over time, many issues still remain unresolved and continue to generate heated debates. The main controversies revolve around the following facets of FFI, some of which served as a basis for the construction of the surveys employed in the study discussed below (cf. Ellis 2006; Pawlak 2006a, 2012a, b; DeKeyser 2007; Leeman 2007; Nassaji and Fotos 2007; Spada and Lightbown 2008; Larsen-Freeman 2010; Lyster and Saito 2010):

- *the criteria for selecting the linguistic features for the intervention* (e.g., learning difficulty, markedness, persistent learner problems) as well as *the nature of such criteria* (e.g., diverse conceptualizations of linguistics complexity);
- *the choice of the syllabus to be followed* (e.g., structural, task-based, as well as different variants and combinations of the two);
- *the timing of form-focused instruction* (e.g., the introduction of the structural component from the very beginning or from the intermediate level onwards);
- *the extent to which intervention should be massed or distributed* (i.e., of short duration or extended over a longer period of time);

- *the value of intensive and extensive FFI* (i.e., such that is directed at a particular linguistic feature, as exemplified by planned focus on form, or such that targets a range of such features, as is the case with incidental focus on form);
- *the contribution of explicit knowledge* (i.e., the extent to which conscious, declarative rule knowledge can aid the development of subconscious, procedural implicit knowledge, which underlies communicative ability);
- *the role of deduction and induction in introducing linguistic features* (i.e., rule provision or rule discovery);
- *the efficacy of production-oriented and comprehension-based FFI* (i.e., having learners use a particular linguistic feature correctly in various contexts or modeling it and enabling the processing of form-meaning mappings);
- *the value of different forms of language practice* (e.g., the contribution of activities that can be placed along the continuum between focused communication tasks and controlled text-manipulation activities, with various types of text-creation activities falling somewhere in between);
- *the merits of isolated and integrated instruction* (i.e., such that precedes or follows a communicative task or is incorporated into this task without compromising its overall focus on meaning, as the case might be with different types of error correction);
- *the contribution of different types of corrective feedback* (e.g., explicit vs. implicit, input-based or output-based, intensive vs. extensive, which can be offered in accuracy-based activities or fluency-oriented tasks).

Clearly, within each of these general areas, it is possible to enumerate a number of more specific issues which are also extremely contentious, related, among other things, to reliance on a particular type of linguistic description (e.g., traditional or cognitive), the choice of spoken and written grammar as a model, the relationship between the communicative and structural module at specific points of time, the amount of time necessary to teach various grammar structures, the ways in which deduction and induction can most beneficially be implemented, the role of metalanguage, the value of cross-linguistic comparisons, the contribution of learners' mother tongue, the utility of corpus-derived data, the effects of diverse types of output-oriented and input-based practice, the effectiveness of different error correction techniques, or the validity and reliability of assessment measures intended to tap into explicit and implicit knowledge (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2003, 2010; Pawlak 2004, 2006a, 2012a, b; Ellis 2009; Bielak and Pawlak 2013). In addition, it should be emphasized that there is accumulating empirical evidence indicating that, apart from the decisions that can be made in the areas just mentioned, the efficacy of form-focused instruction is also a function of a wide range of mediating variables, connected with individual learner differences, linguistic and contextual factors, as well as the extent to which learners are behaviorally, cognitively and affectively engaged with the intervention or their willingness to take advantage of it (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2010; Pawlak 2009, 2012a, c; Ellis 2010).

3 Research on Learners' and Teachers' Beliefs About Form-Focused Instruction

Given the controversies surrounding form-focused instruction, it is only natural that researchers have attempted to look into the beliefs concerning the ways in which FFI should be implemented, with most of such research concentrating on the perceptions of teachers, and only to a much lesser extent on the views held by learners or the comparisons of the two groups in this respect. Since it is not possible in this limited space to provide a detailed overview of all the studies that have been conducted in this area, the present section briefly outlines the results of the most important empirical investigations, zooming in on those that have been carried out in the Polish educational context or have in fact made an attempt to juxtapose the perceptions of learners and teachers.

As regards the perceptions of FFI displayed by in-service teachers and teacher trainees, the relevant studies have been undertaken, for example, by Burgess and Etherington (2002), Borg (2003), Basturkmen et al. (2004), Pawlak (2006a, 2006b); Pawlak and Droździał-Szelest (2007), and Borg and Burns (2008). In the first of these, Burgess and Etherington (2002) provided evidence that teachers of English for Academic Purposes are convinced of the significance of grammar, but, at the same time, they place a premium on a focus on form approach, where attention to linguistic features is incorporated into activities aimed at the development of target language skills. Borg (2003), offers an overview of research projects of teacher cognitions including the ones that he conducted (Borg 1999, 2001), showing that teachers' use of terminology was a function of their beliefs about the most effective way of teaching grammar, the perceived value of metalanguage, students' knowledge of terminology and expectations regarding its use, and practitioners' familiarity with such metalanguage, as well as demonstrating that teachers' knowledge of grammar was likely to motivate their pedagogic decisions. The study by Basturkmen et al. (2004), in turn, provided evidence that teachers' stated beliefs about their management of focus on form in communicative ESL lessons did not always translate into actual practices, particularly when it comes to taking time out of the communicative activity to draw learners' attention to a linguistic feature and the ways in which this goal was accomplished. Pawlak's (2006b) study explored Polish secondary school teachers' views on grammar instruction and found a predilection for a traditional approach, which relied upon the adoption of a structural syllabus, the PPP sequence, and text-manipulation activities. Similar findings were reported by Pawlak and Droździał-Szelest (2007) for prospective and practicing teachers of English, enrolled in a BA and MA program in a Department of English Studies. Finally, Borg and Burns (2008) investigated the beliefs and practices concerning the integration of grammar teaching and skill development manifested by teachers representing 18 different countries, and reported that the participants expressed a strong preference for such an integration, adopted a temporal or contextual approach to it, and based their decisions on practical rather than theoretical knowledge.

Early insights into learners' beliefs about form-focused instruction can be derived from studies drawing upon Horwitz's (1987) Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (e.g. Peacock 2001), where most learners tended to agree with statements specifically connected with learning and teaching grammar (e.g., "Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules" or "It is important to repeat and practice a lot"). When it comes to research projects in which perceptions of different aspects of FFI were the primary focus, Griffiths and Chunhong (2008), and Pawlak (2010) investigated learners' preferences concerning error correction. Although the first study focused on the provision of corrective feedback in general and involved English majors from China, while the other was concerned more narrowly with the correction of oral errors in fluency- and accuracy-oriented activities and used data provided by Polish senior high school students, the findings were similar, with both groups being convinced of the importance of frequent correction that is directly provided by the teacher. In another study, Pawlak (2012b) used the same tool as the one employed in the present research project to compare the perceptions of form-focused instruction manifested by Polish and Italian English philology students. Although he found some minor differences between these two groups with respect to specific pedagogic solutions, on the whole, the participants from both countries were strongly in favor of grammar instruction and error correction, they opted for a structural syllabus, deduction, a variety of practice activities and immediate, teacher-delivered correction, but also recognized the need to use the targeted features in communication. Worth mentioning are also studies which have aimed to design and validate new research instruments intended to measure learners' beliefs about FFI, with Loewen et al. (2009) proposing a general tool of this kind, and Spada et al. (2009) constructing a questionnaire tapping preferences regarding isolated and integrated instruction.

Attempts have also been made to compare learners' and teachers' perceptions of different aspects of form-focused instruction, a line of inquiry that is directly relevant to the focus of the present paper. Schulz (1996), for example, conducted a questionnaire study which looked into the beliefs about grammar teaching and error correction manifested by US postsecondary foreign language learners and their teachers, and found that the former were more favorably disposed to such pedagogical intervention than the latter. In a subsequent replication of this study, which also involved Columbian learners and teachers, she observed very similar patterns, but also provided evidence for the role of the cultural background as the Columbians were more in favor of explicit grammar teaching and error correction than the Americans. Interesting insights also come from a study by Liao and Wang (2008), who used questionnaires and interviews to examine the beliefs about FFI held by senior high school students and teachers in southern Taiwan. It turned out that although both groups appreciated the value of grammar teaching, there were differences in relation to the provision of corrective feedback, since learners expressed a clear preference for direct, immediate teacher intervention while teachers were in favor of avoiding such practices, on the grounds that they could trigger a negative affective response.

4 Research Questions and Design of the Study

As mentioned above, the study was aimed to compare learners' and teachers' beliefs about *form-focused instruction*, broadly defined in terms of different techniques of teaching grammar structures and providing corrective feedback on their use. More precisely, it was designed with the purpose of exploring the similarities and differences between these two groups in the following six areas:

- overall importance of form-focused instruction, also with reference to specific target language skills;
- syllabus design (i.e., structural vs. task-based);
- planning lessons devoted to form-focused instruction (i.e., isolated vs. integrated teaching, etc.);
- introduction of grammatical structures (deduction vs. induction, the use of the mother tongue and metalanguage);
- ways of practicing points of grammar (controlled vs. communicative practice, input-based vs. output-oriented options);
- the provision of corrective feedback on inaccuracies in the use of grammar structures (i.e., focus, timing, source, corrective technique, etc.).

The research project involved 168 participants, advanced learners of English and teachers at this level, all of whom were native speakers of Polish. The learner group consisted of 106 Polish students (F—85, M—21) attending a BA program in a Department of English Studies, whose average experience in learning the target language amounted to about 10 years and whose self-assessment of their ability in this language stood at 3.96 on a five-point scale (1—lowest, 5—highest). When it comes to the nature of grammar instruction that the student participants received, the bulk of it took place in a separate segment of a practical English course and was mainly traditional in character in the sense that successive points of grammar were covered and mainly controlled text-manipulation activities were performed (i.e., paraphrasing, sentence completion, translation). The teacher group comprised 62 university-level lecturers (F—40, M—22) working in English Departments across Poland and teaching courses devoted to grammar, with the effect that only a fraction of the sample actually taught the student participants, which without doubt represents a weakness of the study. All the teachers held at least an MA degree in English, they were proficient users of this language, and their average experience in teaching it equaled 10.4 years.

The data about the participants' beliefs concerning form-focused instruction were collected by means of a questionnaire specifically designed by the present author and used in a previous study investigating Polish and Italian students' perceptions of FFI (Pawlak 2012b), which also served as a basis for constructing the teacher version of the tool. Since a detailed description of the design procedure cannot be accommodated in the present paper due to space limitations, it will suffice to say at this juncture that its main goal was to provide insights into the participants' beliefs about different aspects of FFI, and the categories mentioned

above as well as the specific statements they included were derived from the latest state-of-the-art publications in this area and also the data collection instruments employed in the studies conducted by Schulz (2001), Loewen et al. (2009) and Spada et al. (2009). The survey was intended to provide factual (e.g., length of experience in learning or teaching English, self-assessment of overall mastery as well as specific skills and subsystems) and attitudinal information (perceptions of the overall importance of grammar in language learning as well as selected aspects of FFI), it was worded in English, and consisted of Likert-scale and open-ended items. The former constituted the core of the instrument and required the respondents to indicate on a five-point scale (1—strongly disagree, 5—strongly agree) the extent of their agreement with 30 statements related to the facets of form-focused instruction listed above, with the caveat that items falling within a specific category were distributed throughout the survey rather than grouped together. The latter were meant to be more general and, following Loewen et al. (2009), they took the form of four questions which aimed to provide information on why the respondents liked or disliked studying or teaching grammar as well as their preferred and dispreferred instructional options. As regards the differences between the student and teacher versions of the tool, all the main categories and statements were identical in both cases, but most of the specific questions were modified to reflect the perspective of the lecturers (e.g., "It is helpful when learners keep grammar rules in mind when writing in English" instead of "I usually keep gramamar rules in mind when I write in English", queries about preferences in teaching rather than learning English in the case of open-ended items). Prior to its administration, the student version of the questionnaire was piloted with a comparable group of respondents, which resulted in the modification of the wording of some items and enabled the researcher to establish its internal consistency by calculating Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.81$). The teacher version was also piloted, and although the resulting changes were minimal, the level of internal consistency was also satisfactory, as indicated by the value of Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.78$).

The student participants filled out the questionnaire during regularly scheduled classes taught by the present author, they were given as much time as they needed to complete it, and they were told that both English and Polish could be used in responses to open–ended questions. The teacher questionnaire was sent out via email to the researcher's friends and colleagues employed in English Departments across Poland who distributed it among grammar teachers and then returned the completed copies electronically. The data collected in these ways were subjected to quantitative analysis in the case of the Likert-scale items and qualitative analysis in the case of the open-ended queries. The numerical procedures involved tabulating the averages and calculating the frequencies of specific types of Likert-scale responses for student and the teacher participants, collapsing them into three categories (i.e., strongly agree/agree, undecided, strongly disagree/disagree) and computing their percentages. Comparisons were subsequently made between the two groups with respect to their opinions on the importance of grammar and the facets of FFI in question, with *t*-tests for independent samples and *Chi* square tests

of independence being employed to determine the statistical significance of the observed differences. The qualitative procedures consisted in identifying common categories and recurring patterns, but the results of these analyses will only be presented in brief and only the most marked tendencies will be highlighted.

5 Research Findings

Before taking a closer look at the opinions of the students and teachers about different aspects of FFI, it makes sense to compare their views on the overall importance of grammar teaching as they may serve as an important point of reference in the interpretation of their perceptions of specific instructional practices. On the whole, both the student and the teacher participants were convinced of the positive contribution of introducing and practicing grammatical structures, as indicated by the fact that the averages for the two groups stood at 4.05 and 4.31 on a five-point Likert-scale, respectively. Such an outcome should perhaps come as no surprise given the weight that is given to the mastery of target language grammar and the precision in its use in foreign languages departments, as evidenced by the fact that this subsystem is thoroughly tested both through the academic year and in end-of-the-year examinations that determine advancement to the next level in the program. What should be noted, however, is that the difference observed between the two groups (0.26) turned out to be statistically significant ($t = -2.37$, $p = 0.02$), which indicates that teachers are more cognizant of the need for form-focused instruction. Although any interpretation of this disparity can only be speculative, it could be attributed to the fact that grammar has been pushed to the sidelines of language instruction in senior high schools due to the format of the school leaving examinations, with the effect that students may appreciate such knowledge somewhat less than their teachers who are more cognizant of its significance for someone who is learning a foreign language for professional purposes. It is also interesting to note that the teachers had a much less optimistic view of the students' perceptions of FFI than was actually the case, as is visible from the fact that their average rating was just 3.54, a result lower by 0.51 than the mean for the students' responses (4.05), with the difference reaching statistical significance ($t = 5.51$, $p < 0.001$). One explanation for the existence of such a sizable divergence could perhaps be the problems that students majoring in English often experience in learning grammar, their sometimes astonishing ignorance of basic rules or forms (e.g., irregular verbs) or the egregious errors they tend to commit (e.g., omitting the third person 's').

The participants' perceptions of different aspects of form-focused instruction are presented in Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, each dealing with one of the six main categories (i.e., overall importance of FFI, syllabus design, planning grammar-based lessons, introducing grammar structures, practicing points of grammar and providing corrective feedback on grammar-related errors), where, for the sake of clarity, the items from the teacher questionnaire are supplied in italics below those

from the student questionnaire. In each case, the percentages of responses to the Likert-scale items in the agree (A), undecided (U) and disagree (D) categories are provided, with between-group differences of 10 % or more with respect to agreement or disagreement being shaded and those representing statistical significance being indicated by three asterisks (***). As can be seen from Table 1, which presents the participants' perceptions of the overall significance of FFI, the differences between the students and the teachers proved to be statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) in the case of as many as 7 out of 9 statements, and there was only one statement (item 19), where the disparities in the agree and disagree categories did not exceed 10 %. Generally speaking, despite their overall more positive attitude towards the importance of form-focused instruction, the teachers turned out to be less convinced of the contribution of the knowledge of grammar to the mastery of different target language skills than the students. This is evidenced in the statistically significant differences in statements concerning general progress in learning English (item 1), the correction of grammar errors (item 8), the extent to which grammar knowledge is helpful in understanding other people's speech (item 17) and in reading (item 23), and the necessity of providing corrective feedback on errors in speaking (item 4), in which case the difference in the agree category was the highest and equaled 36 %. The lecturers were also more skeptical about the contribution of grammar to communication (item 11), although in this case the difference was only 11 % and did not reach significance. By contrast, the teachers enjoyed teaching points of grammar more than the students enjoyed learning them (item 29), and they appreciated the role of this subsystem more in the case of writing (a differences of 22 % in the agreement category), with the disparities being significant in both cases. Both groups of participants were of the opinion that the correction of grammar errors in writing (item 19) was beneficial (over 90 % of agreement). Looking at these results, it becomes clear that there is a considerable potential for a clash of beliefs between the students and the teachers when it comes to the role of FFI, which could have a bearing on the effectiveness of the instructional activities employed. On the other hand, a pertinent question to pose concerns the degree to which the teachers' opinions overlap their actual classroom practices, which might considerably influence students' beliefs, as well as their understanding of the knowledge of grammar in terms of explicit and implicit knowledge. This is because although conscious rule knowledge may not be of pivotal importance in the case of speaking, listening, reading or communication, implicit knowledge, or at least highly automatized explicit knowledge (DeKeyser 2010), surely plays a vital role in all of these areas.

When it comes to the participants' preferences concerning the type of syllabus that should be followed, the data included in Table 2 demonstrate that there was a statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between the two groups with respect to the utility of a task-based syllabus where attention to target language forms arises out of learners' difficulty in expressing the intended meaning (item 9), with teachers being less enthusiastic about this instructional option (differences of 12 and 33 % in the agree and disagree category, respectively). On the other hand, though, they were also less inclined than the students to adopt a structural syllabus,

Table 1 Beliefs manifested by students and teachers about overall importance of FFI

No.	Statement	Students (N = 106)			Teachers (N = 62)		
		A	U	D	A	U	D
29.	I like studying English grammar. *** *I like teaching English grammar.*	61%	24%	15%	76%	21%	3%
25.	I believe my English will improve quickly if I study and practice grammar. *** *My students' English will improve quickly if they study and practice grammar.*	66%	26%	8%	40%	44%	16%
8.	Teachers should correct students when they make grammar errors in class. *** *Teachers should correct students when they make grammar errors in class.*	90%	9%	1%	69%	24%	7%
11.	Knowing grammar rules helps communication in English. *Knowing grammar rules helps students in communication in English.*	87%	10%	3%	76%	14%	10%
17.	Knowledge about grammar rules helps in understanding other people's speech. *** *Knowledge about grammar rules helps students understand other people's speech.*	72%	23%	5%	60%	24%	16%
23.	Knowing a lot about grammar helps my reading. *** *Knowing a lot about grammar helps students' reading.*	90%	9%	1%	69%	25%	6%
1.	I usually keep grammar rules in mind when I write in English. *** *It is helpful when learners keep grammar rules in mind when writing in English.*	68%	23%	9%	90%	8%	2%
4.	When I make errors in speaking English, I like my teacher to correct them. *** *When students make errors in speaking English, teachers should correct them.*	94%	4%	2%	58%	34%	8%
19.	When I make grammar errors in writing in English, I like my teacher to correct them. *When students make grammar errors in writing in English, teachers should correct them.*	97%	1%	2%	94%	4%	2%

A agree, *D* disagree, *U* undecided. Rows with differences in the *A or D* category exceeding 10 % have been shaded. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) established by means of the Chi square test indicated by ***

Table 2 Beliefs manifested by students and teachers about syllabus type

No.	Statement	Students (N = 106)			Teachers (N = 62)		
		A	U	D	A	U	D
9.	I like to study only the structures which cause problems in communication.*** *Students should study only the structures which cause problems in communication.*	17%	34%	49%	5%	13%	82%
27.	I like the teacher to give me a list of structures that will be taught in class. *Teachers should give students a list of structures that will be taught in a course.*	56%	32%	12%	39%	45%	16%

A agree, *D* disagree, *U* undecided. Rows with differences in the *A* or *D* category exceeding 10 % have been shaded. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) established by means of the Chi square test indicated by ***

based on a predetermined list of grammar structures (item 27), although in this case the difference, sizable as it was, failed to reach significance. Apart from testifying to the possibility of a conflict between students and teachers in relation to the choice of the syllabus, such findings are not easy to interpret. On the one hand, they could provide evidence for the students' willingness to use the grammar structures they are taught in communication, which does not mean that such structures should not be covered in a systematic way. On the other hand, it could reflect the teachers propensity to combine a task-based and a structural component in their teaching, although their awareness of what such an approach entails and how this goal could be accomplished in practice cannot be taken for granted.

The teachers' predilection for a task-based approach to form-focused instruction is much more pronounced in their perceptions of how grammar-based lessons should be designed, which stands in stark contrast to the students' beliefs in this respect. As illustrated in Table 3, the differences in the agree category for all the statements were substantial and ranged from 17 % (item 13) to 42 % (item 30), being highly statistically significant in all the four cases ($p < 0.05$). More specifically, the teachers were less convinced that learners should be cognizant of the focus of a particular class in terms of grammar (item 7) or the need to follow the PPP procedure (item 30), and they were more in favor of learning grammar as part of activities focused on the development of target language skills, and creating opportunities to employ grammar structures in order to attain genuine communicative goals, as the case might be with the performance of focused communication tasks (see Sect. 2). Yet again, though, these results should not be taken to mean that the teachers would opt for a total rejection of PPP-based classes since most of them in fact agreed with statements 7 and 30 (61 and 45 %, respectively), which suggests that they are in favor of combining grammar teaching with communicative activities, thus adopting

Table 3 Beliefs manifested by students and teachers about the design of FFI lessons

No.	Statement	Students (N = 106)			Teachers (N = 62)		
		A	U	D	A	U	D
7.	I like to know exactly which grammar point I am studying.*** *Students should be told exactly which grammar point they are studying.*	81%	16%	3%	61%	23%	16%
30.	I like learning grammar by seeing the explanation, and then doing practice activities.*** *Students should learn grammar by seeing the explanation, and then doing practice activities.*	87%	9%	4%	45%	32%	23%
13.	I prefer to learn grammar as I work on different skills and activities. *** *Students should learn grammar as they work on different skills and activities.*	67%	23%	10%	84%	11%	5%
28.	I like learning grammar by using the new structure in communicative activities.*** *Students should learn grammar by using the new structure in communicative activities.*	60%	33%	7%	92%	8%	0%

A agree, *D* disagree, *U* undecided. Rows with differences in the *A* or *D* category exceeding 10 % have been shaded. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) established by means of the Chi square test indicated by ***

Long's (1991) focus on form. It should also be noted that such a preference is shared by well over half of the students (67 % in item 13 and 60 % in item 28), which indicates that the differences between the two groups are not as huge as might appear at first blush and should not be exaggerated.

Moving on to the beliefs concerning the introduction of grammar structures, the data included in Table 4 demonstrate that the greatest differences between the students and the teachers were related to the role of deduction and induction, with the former being more in favor of rule provision and the latter manifesting a preference for rule discovery. This is evident in responses to item 12, which states that it is the teacher who should explain grammar rules, with the differences of 42 % in the category of agreement and 17 % in the category of disagreement reaching a statistically significant value ($p < 0.05$). There was also a statistically significant difference when it comes to the role of cooperation in the process of rule discovery (item 2), with the teachers being more convinced of its value than the learners (a disparity of 19 % for agreement and 16 % for disagreement). Even though differences of about 10 % were observed in the case of items 16 and 20, the results for these statements as well as items 5, 10 and 14 strongly indicate that both groups saw eye to eye with respect to more specific choices concerning deduction

Table 4 Beliefs manifested by students and teachers about introducing grammar structures

No.	Statement	Students (N = 106)			Teachers (N = 62)		
		A	U	D	A	U	D
2.	It is best to discover grammar rules together with other students.*** *It is best when students discover grammar rules together with other students.*	37%	41%	22%	56%	38%	6%
5.	I like to discover grammar rules by myself. *Students should discover grammar rules by themselves.*	44%	36%	20%	45%	40%	15%
10.	I prefer to read or listen to texts containing new structures rather than be given rules. *Students should read or listen to texts with new structures rather than be given rules.*	37%	33%	30%	34%	42%	24%
12.	It is best when the teacher explains grammar rules.*** *It is best when the teacher explains grammar rules.*	77%	20%	3%	35%	45%	20%
14.	I find it helpful when the teacher uses my mother tongue to explain grammar points. *It is helpful when the teacher uses the mother tongue to explain grammar points.*	49%	17%	17%	44%	35%	21%
16.	I believe that the use of terminology is important in teaching grammar. *The use of terminology is important in teaching grammar.*	34%	43%	23%	39%	27%	34%
20.	It helps me when teachers use demonstration in teaching grammar (e.g. underlining). *It helps when teachers use demonstration in teaching grammar (e.g. underlining).*	82%	17%	1%	92%	8%	0%

A agree, *D* disagree, *U* undecided. Rows with differences in the *A* or *D* category exceeding 10 % have been shaded. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) established by means of the Chi square test indicated by***

and induction. To be more precise, they were more likely to agree than disagree with the need for individual rule discovery, deriving patterns from instances of language use, the use of the mother tongue in teaching grammar, the facilitative role of metalanguage, and, overwhelmingly so, reliance on teacher demonstration when introducing grammar structures (82 % and 92 % of agreement for the students and the teachers, respectively). What is somewhat alarming about these

Table 5 Beliefs manifested by students and teachers about practicing grammar structures

No.	Statement	Students (N = 106)			Teachers (N = 62)		
		A	U	D	A	U	D
3.	Controlled practice (e.g. doing exercises) is the best way to learn grammar.*** *Controlled practice (e.g. doing exercises) is the best way to learn grammar.*	73%	21%	7%	45%	34%	21%
18.	I believe it is important to use grammar structures in communication. *It is important for students to use grammar structures in communication.*	76%	19%	5%	74%	21%	5%
15.	I prefer to first understand how a structure is used before I have to produce it. *** *Students should first understand how a structure is used before they produce it.*	94%	5%	1%	50%	21%	29%
21.	I like to be given texts in which the new structure is highlighted (e.g. it is in bold).*** *Students should be given texts in which new structures are highlighted (e.g. by bolding).*	83%	14%	3%	65%	31%	5%

A agree, *D* disagree, *U* undecided. Rows with differences in the *A* or *D* category exceeding 10 % have been shaded. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) established by means of the Chi square test indicated by ***

results is the practitioners' conviction of the utility of induction, which in all likelihood stems from studying methodology coursebooks, but does not find support in the available research findings (cf. Pawlak 2006a).

As can be seen from Table 5, major differences were detected between the beliefs of the student and teacher participants in relation to how the grammar structures introduced should be practiced, and they proved to be statistically significant in the case of statements 5, 15 and 21. In the first place, the students were much more convinced of the contribution of controlled practice than the teachers (a difference of 28 % in the category of agreement in item 5), a result which is somewhat surprising given the fact that such opinions are likely to have originated from the ways in which grammar classes were conducted (cf. Pawlak 2012d). This being the case, a question arises once again as to the overlap between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices, an issue that should undoubtedly be addressed in future research. Secondly, the teachers saw much less need for understanding how a grammar structure works before it is produced (a difference of 44 % in the agree category and 28 % in the disagree category for item 15), a result that is truly

perplexing, given the fact that we are dealing here with advanced learners who are surely capable of understanding the rules of grammar and, as was the case with the utility of deduction and induction, it indicates one more time that practitioners' views can on some occasions be somewhat misguided. It should be noted, however, that 50 % of the teachers did agree that understanding grammar structures before they are used is of vital importance. Thirdly, the students were more likely to favor the application of comprehension-based options, such as input enhancement, than the teachers (a difference of 18 % for item 18), although the majority of the teachers (65 %) also agreed that such techniques are useful. The popularity of highlighting structures in texts can be the corollary of the fact that, as a result of the research interests of their teachers, the students could have been familiarized with this technique in the course of grammar and methodology classes or the research projects in which they participated, with such instructional practices being less common in other locations. A very promising finding is that both groups of participants largely agreed that it is necessary to use grammar structures in communication (76 % of the students and 74 % of the teachers), as this may indicate that they were aware of the need to transform declarative (explicit) knowledge into procedural (implicit) knowledge.

The last aspect of form-focused instruction investigated in the present study was the provision of corrective feedback on grammar-related errors, with Table 6 summarizing the students' and teachers' beliefs in this area. The differences only turned out to be significant ($p < 0.05$) in the case of the timing of correction, since the students were much more in favor of immediate intervention than the teachers (a difference of 45 % in the category of agreement and 19 % in the category of disagreement). While such an approach on the part of practitioners finds some justification in popular methodology coursebooks and it is clear that it is neither feasible not warranted to react to every error, it is necessarily beneficial because immediate correction may in fact be the only reasonable option in accuracy-based activities and, if conducted properly, it may act as a powerful instructional tool in communicative tasks, as has been demonstrated in numerous recent studies (cf. Sheen and Ellis 2011; Pawlak 2012a). Comforting in this respect are responses to item 6, were only the minority of the participants in both groups agreed that error correction should be confined only to inaccuracies that jeopardize the flow of communication, but it should be noted that 14 % more teachers than students expressed their disagreement with this statement. There was much more consensus when is comes to delaying correction until the completion of an activity, with about half of the participants in both groups favoring such a solution, as well as the role of peer correction, which turned out be a dispreferred option both for the students and the teachers (only 8 and 10 % of agreement, respectively), but it must be noted that the former were more likely to disapprove of such a solution (a difference of 24 %).

Finally, a few comments are in order on the responses to the open-ended items included in the questionnaires, with the caveat that, as was mentioned above, the results of such qualitative analysis are only signaled here rather than discussed at length. On the whole, the findings mirrored to a large extent the responses to some

Table 6 Beliefs manifested by students and teachers about correcting grammar errors

No.	Statement	Students (N = 106)			Teachers (N = 62)		
		A	U	D	A	U	D
6.	I believe that the teacher should only correct errors which interrupt communication. *The teacher should only correct errors which interrupt communication.*	19%	37%	44%	19%	23%	58%
22.	I like the teacher to correct my grammar mistakes as soon as I make them.*** *Teachers should correct grammar mistakes as soon as students make them.*	69%	24%	7%	24%	50%	26%
24.	I like the teacher to correct my grammar mistakes after an activity is completed. *The teacher should correct grammar mistakes after an activity is completed.*	51%	29%	20%	48%	40%	12%
26.	I prefer to be corrected on grammar by other students rather than the teacher. *Students should be corrected on*	8%	28%	64%	10%	50%	40%

A agree, *D* disagree, *U* undecided. Rows with differences in the *A* or *D* category exceeding 10 % have been shaded. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) established by means of the Chi square test indicated by ***

of the Likert-scale items and indicated the existence of major differences between the two groups with respect to the overall role of FFI, the place of deduction and induction in introducing grammar structures and the most beneficial ways of practicing them. For one thing, the students were much more optimistic about the contribution of grammar to the use of the target language than the teachers, as is evidenced in such statements as: "If I know grammar, I can say the things I want", as opposed to "Students often know rules but do not know how to use them". The student participants appreciated the role of controlled practice much more than the teacher participants, which, however, as was indicated above, could have been a reflection of the predominant instructional practices, the use of which teachers may have been reluctant to admit. As one student commented, "Doing exercises is useful and helpful", a position that was often contested by the teachers, one of whom wrote: "I do not like having my students do exercises". Finally, the students were much more skeptical about the role of induction than the teachers, as is visible in the following comments which came from the representatives of the two groups: "I don't like to discover rules on my own because I feel I can be wrong and it certainly hampers my learning" and "Students should learn by doing and

discovering rules". Such conflicting opinions are surely a recipe for disaster because it is more than likely that, without some kind of compromise, many of the instructional activities applied in the classroom may turn out to be ineffective.

6 Conclusions, Implications and Directions for Future Research

The foregoing discussion has demonstrated that although both the student and teacher participants were of the opinion that form-focused instruction is beneficial, they differed in their perceptions concerning its contribution to the development of specific skills and the ways in which it should most profitably be provided. In the first place, the teachers turned out to be more convinced of the overall importance of grammar teaching, but, in contrast to the students, they were more skeptical about the role it plays in speaking, listening, reading and overall communication. They were also more in favor of embracing a task-based syllabus and designing grammar-based lessons according to the principles of task-based instruction rather than relying on a structural syllabus and the PPP procedure, although caution has to be exercised when interpreting these results. This is because the students were also aware of the importance of integrating formal instruction and communication, and, given the somewhat contradictory nature of the teachers' responses, it could be argued that they wanted to introduce a communicative element into traditional grammar teaching rather than abandon such instruction altogether. The differences were the most visible in the area of introducing and practicing grammar structures, since the students were much more likely to opt for deduction rather than induction, stress the role of controlled practice and comprehension-based teaching, and express a preference for immediate correction of grammar-related errors and a disinclination to be provided with corrective feedback by their peers. There were also areas in which the beliefs of the two groups converged, such as the importance of grammar in writing, the role of the mother tongue, metalanguage and demonstration in the process of introducing grammar structures, the need to use TL forms in communication, and the focus and, to some extent, also the timing of correction. On the one hand, the existence of so many divergences in the perceptions of different aspects of form-focused instruction is surely a cause for concern as, as was emphasized in the introduction to this paper, a clash of beliefs can in many situations diminish the potential of the instructional activities designed by the teacher. As a consequence, it might be necessary in some cases to raise students' awareness of specific pedagogical solutions and negotiate their application in the classroom. On the other hand, however, it should be emphasized that teachers' beliefs do not always have to be superior to those held by learners, all the more so that in many situations they are not reflective of the real instructional practices which are bound to shape students' perceptions to a considerable extent. In addition, teachers' beliefs may be based on their lacking understanding of the

nature of grammatical knowledge, as demonstrated by the fact that they are skeptical of the need for grammar in communication, as well as their erroneous views on what constitutes effective instruction, as is the case with the assumption that deduction is inferior to induction or that immediate error correction should be avoided.

There is clearly a need for further research in the area of learners' and teachers' beliefs about form-focused instruction as well as interfaces between the two, for the simple reason that such beliefs can be powerful predictors of which techniques and procedures will work in the language classroom and which will turn out to be ineffective. Among other things, such research should take into consideration a wide range of factors that may exert a considerable influence on the perceptions of FFI, such as learners' age, proficiency level, the type of the program, the nature of previous instruction, goals, learning styles and strategies, and teachers' experience, qualifications and methodological allegiances. Additionally, it is necessary to obtain insights into the relationship between learners' and teachers' beliefs about FFI and their actual classroom practices, since, as was indicated above, an overlap in this respect cannot always be taken for granted and what practitioners do in the classroom, often despite their belief systems, has a considerable influence on the perceptions manifested by learners. It would also be recommended to make use of other data collection instruments, such as interviews or diaries, which would ensure a more in-depth interpretation of the questionnaire responses, shed light on the importance of context in shaping learners' and teachers' beliefs, and offer insights into the evolution that these beliefs inevitably undergo over time. By undertaking such research not only can we help teachers better tailor the instruction they provide to a particular group of learners, but also to avoid the pitfalls of uncritically adopting pedagogical solutions that may work wonderfully in one educational context but fail dismally in another. The study of learners' and teachers' perceptions of FFI thus serves that purpose of enhancing the effectiveness of such instruction and minimizing the danger that the precious classroom time will be devoted to activities with a limited potential for stimulating the learning process.

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Forms of Social Support and Foreign Language Attainment: The Mediating Effect of Gender

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel

Abstract This chapter analyzes the relationship between adolescents' social support network and L2 achievement, as mediated by gender. The main sources of social support for teenagers are their families, peers and teachers, with whom they interact most frequently. These three groups play a buffering role between stress and psychological well-being by helping teenagers cope with adverse challenges (Demaray et al. 2009). Empirical studies on social support demonstrate that gender is an important factor, with female adolescents perceiving higher levels of support from the three groups (Bokhorst et al. 2010). Also, in the situation of stress caused by the necessity to learn a foreign language as a compulsory subject, social support appears to be an important aspect of classroom climate that may influence learners' academic achievement. The results of empirical research carried out in the context of the Polish secondary grammar school demonstrate that in the case of both genders (N = 609) students perceive greatest levels of parental support, which can be attributed to the character of Polish culture, in which parents still play a very important role in the life of adolescents, thereby eliminating ambiguity. This type of support is modestly correlated with grades in the case of girls, and with self-perceived levels of FL skills in male informants, a fact that is ascribed to gender differences in perception of assessment. Teacher support is assessed lowest of all the forms of social support in both genders, and of all the three types of social support only peer support has proven to be a weak predictor of FL achievement.

E. Piechurska-Kuciel (✉)
Opole University, Opole, Poland
e-mail: epiech@uni.opole.pl

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1 Introduction

This chapter analyzes the relationship between adolescents' social support network and L2 achievement from the viewpoint of gender. For this purpose, the constructs of social support and its forms, i.e., the role of parents, teachers and friends, are presented from the theoretical and empirical perspectives, followed by an outline of the phenomenon of gender and its impact on the perception of social support in L2 learning. The chapter then details an empirical study on the interplay of these variables in the context of the Polish secondary grammar school. Ultimately, the results are discussed with regard to recommendations for the EFL classroom.

2 Social Support and its Effects

One of the phenomena seriously affecting the lives of young people is *social support* (Demaray et al. 2009). The term can be diversely elaborated, however, as several tendencies can be observed as far as its definition and scope are concerned. First of all, it is generally stipulated that social support denotes "social assets, social resources, or social networks that people can use when they are in need of aid, advice, help, assistance, approval, comfort, protection, or backing" (Vedder et al. 2005: 269). Social support, therefore, is understood as the actual or perceived availability of helpful behaviors by others (Uchino et al. 1999). The complexity of the construct also accounts for its measurement, namely by including five possible dimensions: direction (support given or received), disposition (available or utilized), description/evaluation (social support described or assessed), content (emotional, instrumental, informational or appraisal support), and network of support (Tardy 1985).

The last dimension covers the whole range of important sources of support, which usually refer to family, peer and community members (Steese et al. 2006). For adolescents these are their families, peers and teachers, with whom they interact most regularly (Essau et al. 2011). Unsurprisingly, social support from each of these sources is connected with beneficial outcomes (Malecki and Demaray 2003), mostly due to the fact that social support plays a buffering role between stress and psychological well-being by helping teenagers cope with adverse challenges (Cohen and Wills 1985). Adolescents who receive familial and peer support generally do better in the face of adversity than those without such support (e.g., Bokhorst et al. 2010; Smetana et al. 2006). One's need for attachment, care, and attention can be satisfied by an optimal support system, which can boost one's sense of trust and life direction (Kleinke 1998), and provide the companionship needed for one's well-being.

It has been established that among adolescents, the extent of a social support network has a tendency to remain constant over time, but its composition may change due to varying needs for healthy functioning and adjustment (Cairns et al. 1995). For this reason, at this specific period a decrease in family support accompanied by an increase in support from friends is observed (Cheng and Chan 2004).

On the other hand, in other research parental support remains stable (e.g., Malecki and Demaray 2002), showing that adolescents turn to peers for assistance only when their parents are out of reach (Cicognani 2011). It has not yet been exactly determined why such a change occurs; nevertheless, it is strictly connected to adolescents' changing roles (del Valle et al. 2010). Some studies have indicated that support from parents remains stable during the adolescent period (e.g., Nickerson and Nagle 2005), whereas in other studies parental support is found to decrease in adolescents (e.g., Helsen et al. 2000).

As far as peer support is concerned, it has been established that it is a good indicator of prosocial behavior (Wentzel 1998). Students who are socially responsible get higher grades, which points to the importance of perceived social and emotional support from classmates. In general, this type of support induces motivation to excel in school and involvement in classroom activities (Demaray and Malecki 2002).

However, the teachers' role, vital with regard to the regulation of emotional and social processes in youth, has not been widely researched (Bokhorst et al. 2010). It is, however, documented that positive perceptions of teacher support can endorse psychological wellness, such as higher levels of life satisfaction (Suldo et al. 2008) and subjective well-being (Suldo et al. 2009). Teacher support also correlates negatively with depression, and positively with self-esteem and social skills (e.g., Flaspohler et al. 2009; Murberg and Bru 2009). Supportive teacher-student relationships help maintain students' academic interests and more positive peer relationships (Wentzel 1998). Consequently, higher achievement can be obtained (Marchand and Skinner 2007).

In the educational context the role of general social support has as well been recognized. There is a positive relationship between social support and school adjustment, the sense of school coherence, and the ability to handle daily school hassles (Danielsen 2010; Rosenfeld et al. 2000). What is more, social support enhances overall school achievement and academic competency, such as grades and test performance (e.g., Ahmed et al. 2010).

It is not clear how social support operates on school outcomes. It is, though, argued that this influence can be explained by means of uncertainty reduction (Rosenfeld et al. 2000). When circumstances are stressful, such as the ones accompanying the educational process, the individual wants to develop a sense of perceived control by means of reducing ambiguity and unpredictability. Supportive messages from parents, teachers and peers may enhance feelings of control, help the adolescent recognize realistic alternatives, and develop skills needed for the learning process.

3 Gender, Social Support and Academic Achievement

Gender, in contrast to sex, is considered one of the most influential variables affecting the individual's functioning in various spheres of life. It is currently conceptualized as "female–male differences that may be caused by any

combination of environment and biology" (Lips 2008: 6). Most researchers construe gender as more related to cultural influences than sex, which is more related to biology. However, this distinction is expected to become less consequential and significant over time (Muehlenhard and Peterson 2011). The gender perspective began to draw researchers' attention in the mid-eighties (Domínguez-Serrano and Blancas 2011). Since then its influence has been felt in numerous empirical studies, playing the role of an important contributor of the individual's overall state of being.

In the studies on social support gender is an important factor because it may affect "outcomes which may also serve as a protective factor for the problems of adolescence" (Tam et al. 2011). Empirical research results demonstrate the critical role of parents and teachers in the well-being of teenagers, proving that relationships with them are protective factors at this particular developmental phase (Danielsen et al. 2009). Significant differences are identified in perception and utilization of social support among young males and females. It is proposed that female adolescents mainly perceive higher levels of support from the groups; i.e., parents, teachers and peers (Bokhorst et al. 2010).

As far as parental support is concerned, the role of parents is to provide the home background for their children. As primary caregivers, they are the main providers of social support for their children's needs, also in reference to school-related problems. With their positive attitudes and interest in school they can give encouragement, help, and assistance with their child's schoolwork (Danielsen et al. 2009). Again, some inconsistencies can be identified in this strand of research, as both genders are found to report similar levels of support from parents and teachers (Demaray and Malecki 2002; Malecki and Demaray 2003). However, boys are also found to perceive significantly more support from their parents than from their peers, while girls perceive significantly more support from their peers than from their parents (Rueger et al. 2008).

Peer support is another factor that contributes to students' satisfaction with school because it may nurture their needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence. Although students may differ in the levels of their personal motivation, perceptions of the learning environment, as well as their own personal characteristics, their in- and out-of-class dialog with friends, and cooperation can induce effective support of learning (Urdan and Schoenfelder 2006).

Girls are shown as more inclined to seek peers for social support (Rueger et al. 2008); at the same time they are more satisfied with the support gained from them (Cheng and Chan 2004). It is argued that females usually have better social networks and are friendlier when socializing with their peers. With their focus on nurturing, communality and affiliation, females are more able to establish new supports even outside the family context. Girls are also more inclined to seek support from the significant others, because help-seeking behavior is gender-related—it is a dependent, interpersonal behavior traditionally attributed to feminine sex-roles (Raviv et al. 2000). However, male adolescents are also found to be equally satisfied with peer support as their female counterparts (Colarossi 2001). This apparently contradictory finding can be attributed to different ways in which

genders utilize social support—girls' seeking more intimate reciprocated relationships and boys' looking for sharing interests and activities. Overall, the importance of the general peer group support is well-established in the literature of the field; yet, the importance of close friends has not been consistently supported (Rueger et al. 2008).

As far as the relationship between teacher support and gender is concerned, research results are again inconclusive. An impressive amount of studies have proven that girls perceive greater support from teachers than boys (e.g., Bokhorst et al. 2010), owing to the adherence of traditional sex-role norms encouraging females to make stronger emotional investments in relationships than boys. That aside, support from teachers is connected with better classroom adjustment and fewer disciplinary problems among female students (Baker 2006). On the other hand, more disciplinary action for boys may lead them to perceive weaker teacher support (Finn and Rock 1997). Nevertheless, there are studies in which boys' perceptions of teacher and peer support have been more strongly associated with successful educational and psychosocial outcomes in comparison to girls' (Furrer and Skinner 2003). Teachers are found not to pay much attention to girls; they direct their attention and praise to male students, with whom they are inclined to maintain more eye contact (Thompson and Austin 2010). Hence, higher levels of teacher support may be identified in male students. In sum, "boys benefit at the expense of girls" (Patchen 2006: 2056) by gaining the teacher's undivided attention and praise. Both genders exhibit similar rates of decrease in perceived support over time (De Wit et al. 2010). These results are attributed to grade level disparities in the gender composition of teachers (more female teachers at lower levels, and more male ones at higher levels).

4 The Study

Modern languages are a subject well placed within the academic domain due to the European requirement for "teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age" (Mackiewicz 2002). In the situation of stress caused by the necessity to learn a foreign language as a compulsory subject, social support appears to be an important aspect of classroom climate that may influence learners' academic achievement. A basic presupposition in this respect is that the availability of significant others' help (parents, teachers and peers), on which learners can rely for assistance to achieve foreign language success, is critical to their academic productivity. Unfortunately, there is only a small body of literature, consisting primarily of qualitative case studies and anecdotal reports carried out among international students and immigrants, that explores direct links between different forms of social support and foreign language achievement (e.g., O'Reilly et al. 2010; Yeh et al. 2008).

Unsurprisingly, the type of support that has so far received greatest attention in the EFL field is teacher support, which has been found to be a factor that

significantly impacts FL achievement—though it is believed that the valence of social support may vary across cultures (Ghaith 2002). Second language teachers create a safe environment where students can relax and take academic risks without fear of embarrassment. In such circumstances learners can safely "unload emotionally while experimenting with their English" (Sharp-Ross 2011: 110). For the purpose of this chapter it is hypothesized that teacher support is positively related to foreign language achievement, due to the teacher's focus on creating a positive classroom climate conducive to learning. It is expected that girls are more sensitive to teacher support than boys; moreover, they subconsciously seek it in pursuit of their sex-related roles.

In spite of the primary role parents play in shaping their children's learning and school success, little is known about their role in the language acquisition process. Obviously, their importance cannot be neglected, because parents define, tacitly or verbally, what is appropriate and achievable for their children. They actively influence children's course-taking patterns, and involve themselves in children's out-of-school activities (e.g., extracurricular activities) (Ma 2009). This is exceptionally important in the foreign language learning process, which is time-consuming and requires a lot of conscious investment. It is however, stipulated for the purpose of this chapter that the role of parents is marginal, in comparison to other types of social support (teachers and peers), due to the developmental phase of the participants. Both teenage genders are expected to turn away from parents for support, even in spite of the fact that the foreign language learning process may appear a hazardous experience.

Peer support in foreign language learning, though probably the most salient type of social support in the case of adolescents, has not been well researched in the SLA field. Instead, its role has been limited to shaping the students' willingness to communicate in L2, assuming that social support from friends induces L2 use for authentic communication, in and out of the classroom (MacIntyre et al. 2001). Here it is hypothesized that this type of support is extremely important in the case of girls, for whom socializing with peers is critical. Peer support may help them build a more reliable backing network, and consequently result in higher foreign language achievement.

In general, the study aims at answering the following research questions:

1. *Are there gender differences defined in the relationships between types of social support and the student's foreign language achievement?*
2. *What type of social support is most critical to the student's foreign language achievement?*

5 Method

Below is a description of, and justification for, the chosen methodology and research methods used in the study.

5.1 Participants

The cohort participating in the study comprised 609 students from 23 classes of the six secondary grammar schools in Opole, southwestern Poland (384 girls and 225 boys) whose mean age was 17.50. They were second-grade students taking three to six hours a week of English instruction. Their level of proficiency in English was intermediate. Their other compulsory language was French or German, with two lessons a week. 426 of them did not take any extracurricular English language instruction, while the rest (183) did so during the research procedure.

5.2 Instruments

The basic instrument used in the study was a questionnaire that explored demographic variables, such as age, gender (1—*male*, 2—*female*), and information about the student's participation in extracurricular English classes (1—*no*, 2—*yes*).

Also used was the scale of *Perceived Parental Support*, adopted from Chen (2005). It included 38 items measuring emotional, instrumental, and cognitive support provided by the informants' parents. The sample items in the scale were: *My parents make sure that I spend the majority of my time doing homework and studying* or *My parents help me find ways to resolve school problems*. The participants indicated their perception of parental support on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost always*). Eight negatively-worded items were key-reversed. The minimum score was 38, the maximum: 190. The scale's reliability was measured in terms of Cronbach's alpha, showing very good reliability ($\alpha = 0.86$).

The next scale was *Perceived Teacher Support*, also adopted from Chen (2005). It included 32 items measuring a similar kind of support, but this time provided by the informants' teachers of all subjects. The sample items in the scale were: *I feel comfortable sharing my school problems with my teachers* or *My teachers take time outside of class to explain to me the materials that I don't understand.* The items were assessed with a similar Likert scale, while three of them were key-reversed. The minimum score was 32, the maximum: 160. The scale's reliability was $\alpha = 0.88$.

The last scale measuring support was the scale of *Perceived Friend Support* (Chen 2005). It included 22 items measuring the informants' perceived support of their friends with sample items: *My friends want to help me to do my best in school* or *If I don't understand my schoolwork, I feel comfortable asking my friends for help*. With a similar Likert scale, and two of them key-reversed, the minimum score was 22, the maximum: 110. The scale's reliability was again $\alpha = 0.88$.

Finally, two types of FL achievement tools were used: external (final grades) and internal (self-assessment of the foreign language skills). As far as *grades* are

concerned, the participants gave the final grades they received in their first grade, in the first semester of their second grade, and the prospective final grade. All these grades were assessed on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*unsatisfactory*) to 6 (*excellent*), and later aggregated. The scale's reliability was $\alpha = 0.86$.

The last measurement used in the study was a scale estimating *self-perceived levels of FL skills* (speaking, listening, writing and reading). It was an aggregated value of separate self-assessments of the FL skills on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*unsatisfactory*) to 6 (*excellent*), with a reliability of 0.87.

5.3 Procedure and Analyses

The data collection procedure took place in April 2011. In each class, the students were asked to respond to the questionnaire. The time designated was 15–45 min. The participants were asked to give true answers without taking too much time to consider them. A new set of items in each part of the questionnaire was preceded with a short statement introducing it in an inconspicuous manner.

The design of the study was non-experimental and correlational—it quantified the relationship between the main variables. The independent variables in the study were forms of support (parental, teacher and peer) and gender, while the independent one; i.e., FL achievement was operationalized as final grades and self-perceived levels of FL skills. All the variables were operationally defined as questionnaire items.

The data were computed by means of the statistical program STATISTICA, with the main operations being descriptive statistics; i.e., means, standard deviations (*SD*), and correlations. Then, the correlated *t* test was applied to evaluate differences in the levels of social support in boys and girls (between-group comparisons). Meanwhile, the *t* test for independent samples was used to measure levels of social support separately in boys and in girls (within-group comparisons).

Additionally, there was an inferential statistics procedure included, i.e., stepwise hierarchical regression. The indicator of the significance of the variables inserted in consecutive blocks was the range of the explained variance R^2, as well as the value and significance of the β weights, showing how strongly each predictor variable influences the criterion variable, i.e., FL achievement. Finally, an *Adjusted* R^2 value taking into account the number of variables in the model and the number of observations (participants) was calculated.

6 Results

The basic descriptive results are presented in Table 1 below.

In the next step the comparisons of social support in boys and girls were carried out (see Table 2 for the summary of the calculations).

Table 1 Summary of the descriptive statistics results (N = 609)

Variable	M	SD
Gender	1.63	0.48
Parental support	3.83	0.52
Teacher support	3.04	0.61
Peer support	3.57	0.57
FL skills	3.98	0.87
Grades	3.82	0.76

Table 2 Summary of the between-group comparisons

Variable	Girls		Boys		*t*
	M	SD	M	SD	
Parental support	3.82	0.52	3.85	0.53	0.77
Teacher support	2.97	0.61	3.16	0.59	3.82^{***}
Peer support	3.67	0.55	3.39	0.58	-5.79^{***}

(* denotes $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$)

The results show that neither gender differs in levels of parental support, which are highest. Teacher support is assessed lowest in all the participants (significantly lower in girls), and peer support is lower in boys (see Fig. 1 for the visualization of the results).

As far as within-group comparisons are concerned, the highest levels of social support for girls were identified in parental support, which was significantly higher than peer support ($t = 4.35^{***}$), and teacher support ($t = 23.34^{***}$), which turned out to be the lowest. Similarly, in the case of boys parental support is highest in comparison to peer ($t = 10.75^{***}$) and teacher support ($t = 16.15^{***}$).

Then correlations were performed in order to investigate the relationship between social support and forms of FL achievement, separately for each gender. As far as self-perceived levels of FL skills are concerned, the only statistically significant correlations were found in the case of parental support (boys), and

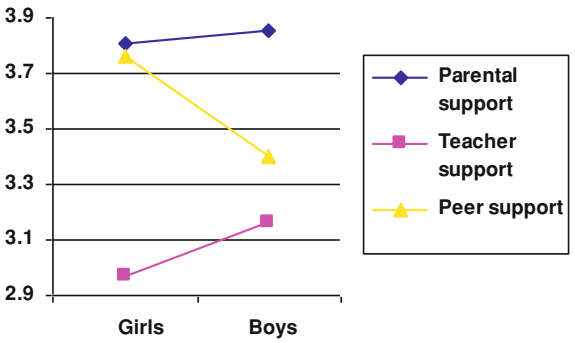

Fig. 1 Social support in girls (N = 384) and boys (N = 225)

Table 3 Gender-dependent correlations between forms of social support and FL achievement

Variable	Self-perceived FL skills		Grades	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Parental support	0.04	0.12*	0.13*	0.06
Teacher support	0.11*	0.07	0.06	0.07
Peer support	0.06	0.12	0.16**	0.11

(* denotes $p \leq .05$; ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .01$)

Table 4 Hierarchical regression predictors of FL achievement levels in polish adolescents (N = 609)

Variable	Adjusted R^2 change	β	p
Step 1*			
Gender		0.05	0.20
Step 2			
Teacher support	0.00	0.06	0.12
Step 3			
Peer support	0.02	0.14	0.00
Step 4			
Parental support	0.02	0.07	0.09

* *Adjusted* $R_2 = 0.00$

teacher support (girls). In the case of grades such correlations were detected in the case of parental support (girls) and peer support (boys) (see Table 3).

Finally, in order to compute the predictive value of the independent variables for assessing FL achievement levels, step-wise multiple regression was performed. In the first step the item chosen for predicting the WTC level was gender. However, no statistically significant results were found with $F(1, 607) = 1.59$, $p = 0.21$.

In the next step the variable of teacher support was introduced. It also turned out to be insignificant, with $\beta = 0.06$, $p = 0.12$, which did not explain any of the FL achievement variance with $F(2, 606) = 2.02$, $p = 0.13$.

In Step 3 the variable of peer support was entered. It was significant, with β ranging 0.15^{**} and $F(3, 605) = 4.92^{**}$. This means that it explained the 2 % variance in FL achievement.

In the last step the variable of parental support was entered. Its predictive value also turned out to be weak, with $\beta = 0.07$. In this way a model of FL achievement emerged with $F(4, 604) = 4.40^{**}$. The summary of the multiple regression procedure can be found in Table 4.

7 Discussion

The aim of the study is to explore the role of forms of social support in FL achievement, as mediated by gender. First, the study sought to define the most dominant types of social support. The results demonstrate that in the case of both

genders students perceive greatest levels of parental support. This finding appears to be quite surprising, judging from the point of view of studies analyzing the dynamics of social support. It was expected that parental support would be diminished for the sake of peer, or even teacher support (e.g., Cheng and Chan 2004). As it is not the case in this study, it should be stipulated that parents still play a very important role in the life of Polish adolescents, in spite of their becoming more autonomous and independent from their parents.

Perceived parental support denotes a variety of provisions granted to the adolescent by the parent and the parent–child relationship—from instrumental assistance and nurturance, to affection. Obviously, adolescents spend less time with their parents, and they become more autonomous. However, good relationships with parents are the secure foundation on which children can explore the environment, experiment, and build a sense of competence and control. Such relationships are especially important in the field of foreign language learning. Due to the change in the communication code, the individual's language and social competence are highly questioned, leading to a lowered sense of self-esteem. In these specific circumstances the support gained from primary attachment figures—parents—appears of key importance. Parents' financial investments in the language progress of their children, interest in their schoolwork and warm, loving, intimate relationships are strong indicators of the student's language success. Adolescents who perceive their parents as accessible in regard to support when needed and who feel encouraged by their parents are able to feel secure even in difficult academic domains, such as modern languages.

The continuing importance of parental support in adolescents may also be attributed to the character of the Polish culture, marked by a moderate level of power distance, slight individualism, rather masculine bent, and a strong tendency to avoid uncertainty (Cultural Dimensions, Poland, 2010). These characteristics of Polish society stress the importance of the role of parents in their children's lives. Hence, from the point of view of cultural norms and expectations, adolescents' reliance on parental support is culturally driven. Last, but not least, the role of parental support is also stressed by the requirement of eliminating ambiguity in adolescents' lives. Strong parental support turns out to be one of the critical factors allowing students to manage stressful experiences brought on by doubts and concerns accompanying the foreign language study. In this way teenagers' language anxiety can be lowered, while their willingness to explore the environment and to communicate in the foreign language is augmented, allowing them to obtain skills, competencies, and self-confidence needed in the specific academic domain.

As far as gender and parental support in the field of FL learning are concerned, on the basis of the research findings it can be proposed that this type of support is equally important for both genders, with one minor reservation. Parental support is modestly correlated with grades in the case of girls, and with self-perceived levels of FL skills in male informants. This finding can be ascribed to gender differences in perception of assessment. Female students, who carefully build their social networks and are friendlier when socializing with their peers, are more focused on affiliation. For this reason, in the case of girls parental support is correlated with

external assessment, to which parents may be very sensitive. On the other hand, males value individualism, so the support they gain from parents is associated with their internal, subjective assessment, i.e., self-perceived levels of FL skills.

Disappointingly, teacher support, which was supposed to be critical to the academic domain, is assessed lowest of all forms of social support in both genders, though it is still higher for boys than for girls. This can be explained by gender role expectation, where males generally prefer to communicate with women in order to gain emotional support, as opposed to men (Tam et al. 2011). Also, in the context of secondary grammar school, where more female teachers can be identified, there are greater chances for male students to obtain support.

Although it is obvious that approachable and supportive teachers create a safe classroom climate where students can feel emotionally secure and less nervous in communication, this does not seem to be the case in the present research, which shows relatively lowest levels of social support coming from teachers. This fact can be explained by the background of the study—the foreign language learning situation. It seems that the specificity of FL achievement cannot be related to the general support adolescents receive from all their secondary grammar school teachers. Diverse subjects require the development of a variety of types of skills and knowledge that may not be applicable to studying a foreign language in the context of the classroom. Thus, even if a student is skillful and knowledgeable in other subjects, their language success is not an inevitable occurrence. However, it should be acknowledged that good students benefit greatly from English teacher support provided in the school environment, which helps them lower language anxiety and manage the learning process more successfully (Piechurska-Kuciel 2011)

Only in the case of female students is teacher support correlated with their self-perceived FL skills. This, again, can be attributed to the female focus on building social networks and maintaining relationships through communication in various settings, a foreign language classroom being one of them. For this reason girls may feel sufficiently comfortable seeking and perceiving support from teachers who are mostly of the same gender, which is revealed in the impression they have concerning their FL abilities.

The measurement of peer support has proven to provide more reliable results. Although this type of social support is of moderate strength in both genders in comparison to the other types (parental and teacher), it can also be considered a weak predictor of FL achievement, explaining 2 % of its variance. Aside from that, its levels are significantly higher in girls. Moreover, in these participants significant correlations with grades are identified. It can be induced that female adolescents, as found in studies by Cheng and Chan (2004) or Rueger et al. (2008), are satisfied with the peer support they purposefully seek. Again, this can be explained by the gender difference referring to developing attachment patterns. However, it may also be attributable to the specificity of the foreign language learning situation, which stresses the importance of relying on various kinds of support. As peer support is most popular with adolescents, also in these circumstances the role of classmates undergoing the same language learning process is of great value. It offers a student the opportunity to practice the language in and out

of school, relieve tension, and share experiences, while working towards the common goal of language mastery. This is particularly important for females, who may feel sufficiently comfortable within this traditionally 'feminine' subject area.

Finally, it is worth pointing out that the study results did not allow for the creation of a robust model of FL achievement catering for types of social support and gender. It seems, then, that these variables, isolated from a wide array of influences, do not play a significant role in predicting FL achievement. This begs the conclusion that both gender and social support indirectly influence grades and self-perceived FL skills, by mediating between the students' micro and macro characteristics.

8 Conclusions

From the point of view of the Polish study context, it seems that teaching intervention concerning the role of gender and teacher support in FL achievement should primarily focus on creating safe opportunities for learning and using the FL. From the point of view of direct teaching procedures, they may encompass strategies and actions aimed at combating the effects of negative experiences connected with the foreign language learning process, such as effective stress management (relaxation sessions during the lesson or songs and games used as teaching aids). Moreover, the students should be instructed on how to realistically assess their FL development in order to avoid a desire to attain unrealistic goals, which can lead to very negative experiences. Most importantly, establishing warm, genuine relationships with students appears to be of key importance. A respectful teacher is interested in the students and attends to their needs, shows humor, establishes good rapport, gives feedback without causing humiliation or the loss of face, and builds trust-based relationships, e.g. through physical contact, showing appreciation, and providing well-grounded compliments and rewards.

Alongside developing a good rapport with the students, which focuses on strengthening their perceived teacher support, teachers also need to cooperate closely with parents in order to strengthen the students' social network. The third party, whose importance cannot be overlooked, is comprised of peers. Their collaboration with the teacher and parents is also necessary in order to create a 'community of practice', with students engaged in a process of collective foreign language learning. In this way the learner's social network can become denser, allowing them to successfully cope with the demands of the foreign language learning process.

Most of all, the teacher needs to consciously focus on gender. Girls need to be rewarded for their hard work and conscientiousness, which can be done by means of praise and attention, and the pursuit of a sense of community. At the same time, boys, in spite of their focus on independence, need to become more aware of teacher support, and become a legitimate part of the student community of practice.

This study has several limitations that must be addressed. First of all, the set of variables included in the study has turned out to be insignificant in explaining the role of social support in L2 achievement, as mediated by gender. It seems that social support is indirectly connected with achievement in this specific domain, hence it requires a thorough analysis performed from the micro- and macro-perspective. Moreover, the cross-sectional nature of the study, with its limited explanatory power, does not allow for drawing complex cause-and-effect conclusions. For this purpose, a more advanced longitudinal research method should be provided.

In spite of these drawbacks, social support in adolescence is still a fascinating research topic, as this developmental period is crucial to accepting the increasing responsibility for one's own behavior. Therefore, future research should take into account social support related to a variety of factors affecting the language learning process.

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Perceptions of Space in the Multilingual Mind

Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Abstract One of the major sub-competences within any model of communicative competence has to do with the socio-cultural aspects of appropriate functioning in another language. A significant category within this socio-cultural component is the construct of *space*. The construct of space is bi-dimensional: physical and mental. In relation to the latter, psychological studies consider various aspects: those of a personal nature, but also those of an interactive nature. In interaction, personal space (proxemics), seen as "(…) the physical distance which people like to maintain between themselves and others" (Banyard and Hayes 1994: 128), constitutes an important factor in successful communication between people. It varies "according to their relationship with and attitude to other people, and according to norms and contexts" (*ibid*.: 128). It may be safely assumed that those norms and contexts are culturally-grounded. This project investigates whether connotative meanings of the concept of space reflected in the subjects' mother tongue (L1) mental lexicon cross the borders of languages known to the subjects, i.e., whether they are the same in the L1 and foreign language mental lexicons (L2 and L3) of the questioned subjects. It is an ongoing project based on two university contexts, Polish and Portuguese. It focuses on the similarities and differences between the space perceptions of Polish and Portuguese trilingual language users. The data collected comes from association tasks performed in L1 (Polish and Portuguese), L2 (English) and L3 (German). This chapter reports on the first stage of the project, in which comment will be made on L1 perceptions of space of Polish and Portuguese subjects. It will also discuss the multilingual associations with the concept of space of the Polish subjects.

D. Gabryś-Barker (✉)
University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland
e-mail: danuta.gabrys@gmail.com

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1 Introduction

When looking through the history of teaching and learning foreign languages, and particularly that of English, we can observe that development moves from a totally didactic, controlled and mechanical perception of language learning processes to more open, flexible and self-directed approaches. Also, the attitude to language itself moves from a structural one where language was seen as a system and set of patterns to understanding it as a more open and culture-grounded phenomenon. Such an attitude led to more interdisciplinary studies of learning processes where not only linguists but also psychologists, anthropologists, neurologists and sociologists found a role. The process of globalisation and thus intercultural interactions at various levels and in different domains of life has led to constant interrelation, confrontation and negotiation processes between various nationals. Open borders have made travel easier and international contacts have become more frequent and more profound. Thus, globalisation has to be seen as tending to a certain degree of unification and standardisation, perhaps even the elimination of certain differences between cultures. This is an evolving and longitudinal process. It seems however that issues of national identity are raised more and more often as some nations feel threatened by this standardization process (Gabryś-Barker 2012b).

Perception of space is an important dimension of our functioning as individuals, as "our sense of space is complemented by our sense of ourselves as both part of and as separate from the world" (Hirst and Cooper 2008: 444). However, we function in a group and as a part of a society and "social reality is not just coincidentally spatial existing 'in' space (…) There is no unspatialised asocial reality. There are no aspatial social processes" (Soja 1996: 46).

Of course, perception of space constitutes one of many other dimensions of intercultural competence, which manifest differences between nations, such that the attitude to work is different, that there is a different feeling for time and space, there are other role perceptions, other rules of communication, a different view of the importance of group versus the individual, different ways of dealing with hierarchy, other forms, superstitions, taboos as well as other value systems (Engelbert 2004: 204).

I strongly believe that our awareness of our own as well as others' perception of space is conducive to functioning successfully both in national and international contexts. In this study I would like to observe whether experiences of learning foreign languages (L2 and L3) influence the way my subjects conceptualize space, in other words whether their associations in L1 overlap with those in L2/L3 or whether processing responses are ruled by language learning itself and not by pre-existing concepts in their L1 minds.

2 Construct of Space

2.1 Defining Space

The debate over the nature of space goes back to the ancient times in the arguments and philosophical expositions by Plato, Socrates or Aristotle. Throughout centuries and the development of sciences and philosophy, space was a central issue in the writings of Isaac Newton, Gottfried Leibnitz, George Berkeley, Immanuel Kant and Albert Einstein. More recently, space has been one of the main topics in linguistic and psycholinguistic research, for example, looking at the way language reflects spatial relationships and how they are acquired in L1 and L2 (Coventry et al. 2011).

According to Clark (1992), time and space are two basic anthropological categories marking the identity of a man, whereas the history of man's development is a longitudinal process of freeing oneself from the constraints that time and space impose. The experience of space starts with the birth of sailing and trade in prehistoric times, territorial expansion from ancient times in Egypt until modern times and modern man's dream of walking on the moon and exploring outer space. Throughout the centuries, man has moved from a tribally limited space within the first fences, separating off members of other communities, to creating more expansive territorial power through the political organization of separate states, guarding their frontiers to protect their identity, to protect their space and often fighting long and destructive wars on its behalf. Geographical discoveries and the development of trade brought about contacts between men from all over the world and to some extent the first mixing of disparate cultures. The development of the human race is very strongly marked by the expansion of horizons, with the emergence of inventions and technology, resulting in an expanded perception of space—and not just space here but out there in the galaxy (Gabryś-Barker 2012a).

2.2 Different Dimensions of Space

Reflecting on the mental construct of space, one realises that it is two-dimensional: physical and mental. Psychological studies of the latter consider its various aspects, those of a personal nature e.g., altruism, aggression, and also those of an interactive nature, e.g., acting in the presence of an audience, social facilitation, personal space and territoriality.

Personal space is defined in psychology as:

> (…) the physical distance which people like to maintain between themselves and others, this varies according to their relationship with and attitude to other people, and according to norms and contexts (Banyard and Hayes 1994: 128).

As a mental construct, it shapes the type of interaction between people. Banyard and Hayes (*ibid*.: 469) assume that personal space is "a mechanism for regulating social interaction". It is closely related to the concept of territoriality, understood as:

> (…) almost any place or spatial zone that might be occupied by a human being (which brings about) a set of behaviours which involve establishing and maintaining access to a particular area, while refusing the same to potential competitors of one's own species (475).

Human territoriality is classified into three types: primary, secondary and public territory (Table 1).

Table 1 Forms of territory and territorial behaviour (Altman 1975, quoted in Banyard and Hayes 1994: 469)

Territory	Sense of ownership	Personalization defence
Primary territory (e.g., home)	High: perceived to be owned in a relatively permanent manner by the occupants and by other people	Extensively personalized/ unwelcome entry to the space is a serious issue
Secondary territory (e.g., office, classroom)	Moderate: the occupant is perceived as one of a number of qualified users of the space	Could be personalized during occupancy, some chance of defence when the person has the right to be there
Public territory (e.g., part of the beach, parking lot or a table in a restaurant)	Low: control is difficult to assert and the occupant is perceived as just one of many possible users	May be personalized in a temporary way, very little likelihood of defending the space

2.3 Space as a Culture-Grounded Concept

Young (1994) relates space to culture by saying "the most capacious space within which we think about ourselves is called culture", which can be characterised as being learnt within a certain framework adumbrated for a community and therefore not biologically determined It is not necessarily consciously perceived and it structures both thinking and perception of oneself and the world around oneself.

Another anthropologist Edward Hall discusses space as a "hidden dimension" (Hall 1966/2005) of culture and assumes that everything we do is associated with our experience of space, which constitutes a system of communication, rarely perceived consciously. Space is described as organized differently in different cultures and numerous examples illustrate this, among others in the use of personal, social, architectural and urban spaces. In the modern world, man has expanded his space not only territorially but by building "extensions" such as the computer (a brain extension), the telephone (a voice extension), or the wheel (leg/feet extensions). Hall even goes so far as to suggest that extensions have taken over and are quickly replacing nature. This much, I guess, is uncontentious.

For Hall, proxemics understood as space (distance between) can be studied at three levels:

intra-cultural related to the past (territoriality, spacing, population control)
pre-cultural related to senses (physiologically based)
micro-cultural related to cross-cultural differences associated with fixed, semi-fixed and informal distance (Table 2).

Table 2 Microcultural level (based on Hall 1966)

Fixed feature	Semi-fixed feature	Informal
Buildings Layout of towns	Sociofugal spaces (i.e., asocial, e.g., keeping people apart, e.g., at the railway station)	Personal and social distance kept in interaction: intimate personal social public (expression of how people feel towards each other)
Interiors of houses	Sociopetal spaces (i.e., pro-social, bringing people together, e.g., arrangement of tables in a café)	

Hall (*ibid.*) believes that comparing proxemic patterns may shed light on our awareness of how space perception affects our behaviour, but it can also lead to a better cross-cultural understanding and is conducive to shared functioning in one space (towns, buildings, offices, homes). Hall quotes numerous examples of possible daily misunderstandings relating to wrong interpretations of behaviours of representatives of different nations/cultures, who are thrown into co-existence. These examples show how important the study of space perceptions is and how becoming aware of the issues connected with it may help us function better not only on an individual but most of all, on the societal level (Gabryś-Barker 2012a).

3 Study on Perceptions of Space of a Multilingual

3.1 Description of the Study Design

3.1.1 Research Focus and Questions

The present study continues the line of study in which I am looking for similarities and differences in perceptions of culturally-grounded constructs, such as flattery and offence (2008), time (2011) or naming habits (2012b). The construct of space seems to be one of the significant dimensions one has to cope with when functioning in different contexts, both physically (a literal/physical meaning of the term) and mentally (metaphorically). This project investigates whether the connotative meanings of the concept of space reflected in the subjects' mother tongue

(L1) mental lexicon cross the borders of languages known to the subjects, i.e., whether they are the same in the L1 and foreign language mental lexicons (L2 and L3) of the questioned subjects.

3.1.2 Subjects

The subjects in this project were both Polish and Portuguese, 56 students in total, all of them university students at the University of Silesia (Sosnowiec, Poland) and Universidade de Aveiro (Aveiro, Portugal). The subjects are multilingual language users, whose competence in L2 (English) is at the C1/C2 level, whereas their L3 (German) ability is at the B2 level.

This is a work in progress. In this article, I will report on the first stage of the project focusing on the cross-cultural differences in L1 responses of both groups and will continue by analysing the L2 and L3 responses of the Polish group only.

3.1.3 Research Instrument

Word associations as a research instrument are used in investigating conceptual structures held in our minds. It is based on the premise that:

> Giving a stimulus word and asking the respondent to freely associate what ideas come to his or her mind gives relatively unrestricted access to mental representations of the stimulus term. (…) ideas expressed within a word association procedure are spontaneous productions subject to fewer constraints than typically imposed in interviews or closed questionnaires, allowing thus the extraction of less biased results (Hovardas and Korfiatis 2006: 418).

I believe that the way we see the world derives from what we really want from it, consciously with our thinking and reasoning but also subconsciously with our intuitions and emotions. Thinking is a conscious process of conceptualisation but it also involves deeply ingrained perceptions of the world that we hold in our subconscious mind. For example, studies show that objects that are meaningful and desirable to us seem closer than the ones less significant to us or distances seem shorter if we need to reach the target but at the same time the more effort involved, the further off the target seems to be (Woods et al. 2009). How can we get through to the subconscious? Certainly the words we store and recall give evidence of the learnt, the acquired, and the accommodated. So studying the ways in which we store language(s) and recall linguistic items (words, phrases, sayings) automatically (through associations, slips of tongue, code switches, etc.) and without careful speculation, thinking or reasoning allows us to see the way we perceive the world. It also shows how we categorize and schematize the world and our experience of it and not only how idiosyncratic our perceptions are but also how they are framed by one's cultural grounding. The automatic recall of words is based on associative processes which consist of "sorting out meaningful—and that is,

logical and syntactic relations among words—contrast and grouping" (Deese 1965 in Söderman 1993: 98–99).

The theory of association (Deese 1965, quoted in Söderman 1993: 98–99) is based on three general premises:

contiguity—ideas in the human mind operate in a temporal sequence, meaning one idea leads to another in a time sequence
frequency—a determinant of the strength of connection between ideas referring to past experience
similarity—connection of ideas may be determined not only by a linear sequence but also by a simultaneous experience of them.

Based on the fact that ideas—or in other words thoughts existing in our minds - are expressed verbally, it can be assumed that linguistic manifestations of thinking can give evidence of the world representations we hold. As such, word association tests were used in the discussion of stereotypy in normal people as well as in discussion of patients with mental disorders (Söderman *ibid.*: 99).

Over the period of the last twenty years or so numerous projects and researchers have been involved in word association research accumulating evidence of the workings of the L2/Ln mental lexicon, among them Arabski (1988), the Birkbeck Vocabulary Project of Meara (1984) and Modern Languages Research Project (MLRP), discussed in Singleton (1999). Most of the association studies are carried out in vocabulary research projects. The best source of examples of association studies is vocabulary acquisition research archive (VAGRA), an online site compiled and updated systematically by Paul Meara. Out of the 36 most recent abstracts published after 2000, 50 % report on projects connected with the mental lexicon of a bilingual or multilingual language user. Table 3 presents the focus areas of some of these association studies.

Table 3 Examples of association studies in vocabulary research projects

No	Focus of study	Examples
1.	Mental lexicon of a monolingual versus bilingual speaker, L1 *versus* L2 mental lexicon	Wolter (2001) Franceschina (2004) Fitzpatrick (2005) Wilks (2009) Fitzpatrick and Izura (2011)
2.	Receptive and productive vocabulary (vocabulary size, its complexity, collocational competence)	Meara and Fitzpatrick (2000) Webb (2005) Katagiri (2001)
3.	Assessment of vocabulary proficiency	Wolter (2002) Fitzpatrick (2000)
4.	Factors affecting association response types	Bagger Nissen and Henriksen (2006) Henriksen (2008) Higginbotham (2010)

In this study a simple association task of the S→R type was used to elicit responses to the stimulus word *space* in a timed task in the subjects' L1 (Polish and Portuguese respectively), L2 (English) and L3 (German). Each of the tests was administered with a week gap between them.

3.2 Data Presentation and Analysis

3.2.1 Conceptualizing Space in L1: Polish versus Portuguese Responses

The analysis of the responses to a timed association task: *What automatic responses does the term* space *bring to you*?, shows that they can be categorised into the following groups:

- the literal (physical): places, nature, universe (astronomy)
- the abstract: emotions and feelings, expressions of freedom
- syntagmatic associations (Adjective + Noun), qualifying space.

Although there is an almost complete overlap between the types of responses of two groups of subjects, their contents are often quite diverse (Table 4).

Table 4 Sample responses

Category of response	Polish responses	Portuguese responses
Places	*Mój dom* (my home/house), *Mój pokój* (my room), *Uczelnia* (university), *Własny kąt* (one's own place)	*Area desportivo* (*sports área*), *Espaço desportivo* (*sports space*), *Espaço recreativo* (recreational space) *Quarto* (*room*), *Casa* (*house*)
Nature	*Zieleń* (greenery), *Wiatr* (Wind) *Pola* (fields), *Łąka* (Meadow) *Lasy* (woods), *Ocean* (Ocean) *Park* (park), *Słońce* (the Sun) *Krajobraz* (landscape)	*Campo aberto* (*open field*), *Cães* (*dogs*), *Gatos* (*cats*)
Astronomy	*Słońce* (the sun), *Galaktyka* (galaxy)	*Lua* (*moon*), *Planetas* (*planets*), *Estrelas* (*stars*), *Nave especial* (*space ship*), *Universo* (universe), *Buracos negros* (*black holes*), *Asteroides* (asteroids), *Astronautas* (*astronauts*), *Astronomia* (*astronomy*), *Sol* (*sun*), *Sistema Solar* (*solar system*), *Venús*, etc. (venus etc.), *Céu*, (*sky/heaven*), *Star Wars*

(continued)

Table 4 (continued)

Category of response	Polish responses	Portuguese responses
Emotions, feelings and states	*Przyjaźń* (friendship), *Miłość* (love), *Spokój* (calmness), *Ulga* (relief), *Radość* (joy), *Odpowiedzialność* (responsibility)	*Estou na lua* (I'*m over the moon*), *Preciso de espaço* (*I need space*), *Comodidade* (convenience), *Criatividade* (*creativity*)
	Nieskrępowanie (being unrestricted/ uninhibited)	*Espiritualidade* (*spirituality*), *Mente aberta* (*open mind*)
	Odprężenie (relaxation)	
Freedom	*Wolność* (freedom)	*Liberdade* (*freedom*)
	Niezależność (independence)	
	Samodzielność (autonomy)	
Syntagmatic associations (descriptive)	*Público*, *Grande*, *Infinita*, *Limpeza*, *Espaço em branco*	*Prywatna*, *Artystyczna*, *Kulturalna*, *Zamknięta* (*closed*), *Pusta* (*empty*), *Ograniczona* (*limited*)
	Vago, *Pessoal*, *Privado*, *Reservado*, *Especial*, *Temprario*, *Eterno*, *Reflexivo*, *Imaginário*, *Cheio*, *Infinito*, *Finito*, *Grande*, *Pequeno*, *Vasto*, *Calmo*, *Informatiovo*, *Luminoso*	
	Do życia (life s.), *Zbyt mała* (too small)	
Word formation	*Przestrzenny* (spacious)	*Espaçado* (*spaced*), *Espaçamento* (*spacing*)
		Espaçoso (*spacious*), *Espacial* (*spacial*), *Especial* (*special*)
		Espacejar (*to space out*), *Espacinho* (*little space*),
		Espacejamento (*spacing*)
Other/abstract	*Czas* (time)	*Tempo* (*time*)
	Czasoprzestrzeń (spacetime)	

The following observations based on the association responses can be made:

- private/personal responses are found in the Polish data versus socially-oriented ones in the Portuguese responses: defensiveness is expressed by the Polish versus sharing expressed by the Portuguese;
- the presence of nature is marked by responses relating to the immediate context of here and now in the Polish data versus astronomical associations of "out there" in the responses of the Portuguese;
- the Polish associations articulate feelings of relaxation, freedom and well-being versus stimulation and spirituality in the Portuguese ones, in other words, the Polish responses were more grounded in the everyday, as opposed to the imagined and the unattainable in the Portuguese (Gabryś-Barker 2012a).

Having observed the way Portuguese and Polish people function on the micro-cultural level of proxemics, which relates to cross-cultural differences (Hall 1966/2005), I believe that the Polish and Portuguese demonstrate significant differences in their space perception and their functioning within it. Portuguese people show more pro-social instincts of being together and sharing common space (a sociopetal space perception). This is also reflected in the association data, where space does not exist as a daily category (which would thus require a self-defensive response) for Portuguese subjects. At the same time, Polish people seem to be more concerned about their own privacy and therefore set spatial defences around themselves (a sociofugal space perception), which was reflected in the associative data by the use of the qualifier "my" and generally by responses with more personally relevant associations (such as daily categories of one's immediate surroundings). In the context of interaction also, the informal distance kept by the Portuguese most often seems personal (implying a shared space), which is often perceived as intimate by Polish people, who resort to more formal means. So generally, in their associative responses, Portuguese subjects seemed not to acknowledge the role of space as a daily functional category but as something "out there in space", whereas Polish associations were directly pointing to immediate surroundings and interactions with others, emphasizing the importance of personal space as a comfort zone necessary for one's well-being (Gabryś-Barker 2012a).

3.2.2 L1 versus L2 versus L3 Space Perception (Polish Data Presentation)

Pavlenko (2006) poses the questions which, as she says, are often asked but seldom commented on in relevant research. These questions are: *Do bi- and multilinguals sometimes feel like different people when speaking different languages*? *Are they perceived as different people by their interlocutors*' *Do they behave differently*? *What prompts these differences*? (*ibid.*: 1). In this study I would like to see to how multilinguals frame the concept of space in their minds, depending on whether it is their L1, L2 or L3 and to answer the following question: *Do the differences observed in* L1 *automatic responses of the Polish subjects overlap with their responses in the languages learnt through formal instruction and at different levels of advancement*? The analysis presented here will be qualitative in nature; however, it is relevant to record the number of responses received in particular language tasks (Table 5).

The proportions between the responses in L1, L2 and L3 demonstrate, as expected, the dominance of L1 and L2 associations. It means that L2 data

Table 5 Distribution of association responses in individual tests

Language	L1 (Polish)	L2 (English)	L3 (German)
Number of responses (total = 1,610)	616	615	379
Percentage proportions (%)	39	39	22

demonstrate near-native like level of association responses, well above the level of L3 associations. It is pretty obvious that lexical access in the languages in which the subjects have native and near-native competence is the quickest (there was a time limit set for the performance of the tasks) so they are more numerous.

The question is whether it is not only quantitative difference but also qualitative that can be observed in the data of L1, L2 and L3 tests. The classification of responses presented earlier will be used in the analysis of the above issue: paradigmatic associations (both the literal/concrete and figurative/abstract) and syntagmatic (collocations qualifying space).

3.2.3 Associations Across Languages (L1 vs L2 vs L3): Data

The categories of associations determined in the first part of the analysis (L1 responses) were also found in the L2 and L3 tests. They were:

1. the literal (concrete/physical): places, nature, universe
2. the figurative/abstract: emotions and feelings, expressions of freedom
3. syntagmatic associations: collocations of *Adjective* + *Noun* type, qualifying space.

Table 6 below presents sample associations of the selected subjects across languages.

The general quantitative differences (irrespective of categories of responses) between the L1, L2 and L3 corpora are quite significant as expected and reflect speed of lexical access dependent on language proficiency, thus, L1 responses are most numerous and L2 almost as numerous demonstrating their high language proficiency, whereas the L3 corpus is significantly smaller reflecting the much lower ability of the subjects in German.

3.2.4 Discussion

The responses received in the association tests are pretty uniform for each language; however there are also certain tendencies observed. In terms of similarities, the concrete associations to *nature*, *home and work* (*study*) *place* appear both in L1, L2 and L3 data, such as:

L1 *pola* (fields), *lasy* (woods), *mój pokój* (my room), *boisko* (playground);
L2 *grass*, *forest*, *new house*, *garden*, *ocean*;
L3 *das Haus*, *die Schule*, *der Zimme*.

Also more abstract (metaphoric) associations relating to some form of freedom (personal) are present in each test:

L1 *wolność* (freedom), *nieograniczony rozwój* (unrestrained development), *przestrzeń osobista* (personal space);

Table 6 Sample responses in all the tests

Subject number and number of responses in each test	L1 data: *Przestrzeń*	L2 data: *Space*	L3 data: *der Raum*
11/4/7	*p. otwarta, intelektualna, życiowa, internetowa, wolna, pusta, nieograniczona *miejsce bez zabudowań, *swoboda działań, wiatr, wolność	The universe, a place to park a car, a key on a key bard, an unoccupied place	Ein Platz, ein region, ein Zimmer, eine Flasche, ein Lokal, mein Raum wo ich wohne, aufraumen (eine Aufgabe)
14/21/13	*p.domowa, życiowa, kosmiczna, cywilizacyjna, naturalna;	Spaceship, cosmic space, space craft, 3D space, freedom, freedom of choice, air, place of development, individual freedom, comfort, manouvre place, serenity, calmness, dream, area of opportunity, living space, good mood;	Lebensraum Wohlbefinden Positive Auswirkungen Kosmisch Raum Willkomenere Effekte, Echspannung Kosmos, Haus raum, Auffraumen, ein frei Platz, ein Region, Raumschen, ein Platz (grosse, klein)
	*wolność, swoboda, tlen, możliwość nieskrępowanego rozwoju, brak granic, obszar, autonomia, pole manewru	*open, full, home, empty	Allein zu sein, sich abhalten von

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

Subject number and number of responses in each test	L1 data: *Przestrzeń*	L2 data: *Space*	L3 data: *der Raum*
30/39/27	Powietrze, przestrzeń międzyplanetarna, pokój, dom, park, zamek, oceany, morza, rzeka, pustka, oddychanie, oddech, wolność, miejsce; ogromny, wielki, teren, pola, lasy, krajobraz, ruch, bezruch, taniec, architektura, galaktyka, szkoła, uczelnia, metropolia	Room, spaceman, Mouse, castle, garden, spaceship, Wild, wilderness, mountains, beach, park, city, fields, woods, forests, empty, air, peace, freedom, free, breath, brief, mind, spacecraft, moon, stars, Sun, Merkury, „Jowisz" (Jupiter), Mars, planets, river, water, ocean, area, huge, enormous, landscape	Raumen, Rat, Rad, Raum, radfahren, Lebensraum, rot, um, umfahren, umbringen, RAM; Rau, Robert, rasiren, Zimmer, Haus, Garten, Schloss, Burg, Park, Arbeitzplatz, Platz, Kindergartne, Gebrige, Schule, Universitat
23/16/12	Wolność, swoboda, nieograniczenie, pokój, pomieszczenie, pole, obszar, pole, obiekt, powierzchnia, metr kw., pustynia, las, pola, wieś, brak budynków, spokój, umeblowanie, ciasnot, mieszkanie, ogródek, p. międzyzębowa	Surface, spaceship, cartoons, area, company, capital, Warsaw, space keyboard, m2, apartment, big flat, free s., Sir, "Space game" (a film), surroundings, myspace.com	Das Zimmer, die Blumen, das Land, Raum in dem Kopf machen, die Ordnung, Ordnung muss sein!, die freie Witte, die Umgebung, die Lage, m2, der Urlaub, der Sommer
15/13/12	Powietrze, kosmos, p. kosmiczna, wiatr, lot samolotem, chmury, ogrom, brak ograniczenia, dużo miejsca, brak grawitacji, skoki spadochr., wolność, przestworza, szybowanie, odludzie	Air, galaxy, aircraft, space shuttle, lack of gravitation, astronaut, freedom, plane, helicopter, cloud, wind, silence, a lot of place	Luft, der Flugzeug, das Zimmer, Ruhe, hohe Bergen, Kosmos, das Fenster, die Lampe, Teppich, Tur, Blumen, Wand

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

Subject number and number of responses in each test	L1 data: *Przestrzeń*	L2 data: *Space*	L3 data: *der Raum*
36/26/8	Wolność, ulga, brak zobowiązań, wielkość, światło, powietrze, jasność, gwiazdy, p. do działania, do popisu, radość, mieszkanie, pokój, okna, dom, ogród, laka, działka, miejsce, oddech, słońce, niebo, błękit, ptak, skrzydła, latać, ogrom, pustka, cisza, relaks, odprężenia, echo, alienacja, myśli, błogość, p. do życia	Spaceship, stars, universe, earth, freedom, breath, living s., spacious, light, empty, flight, plane, keyboard, big, large, huge, alone, echo, cold, house, garden, quiet, sun, sky, light colours, no commitments	Zimmer, Haus, Tisch, Schule, leben, Freiheit, grosse Wohnung
20/22/9	Wolność, świeże powietrze, ptak, p. mieszkalna, spokój, nieograniczone możliwości, rozwój, samodzielność, odpowiedzalność, pustka, ogrom, brak ograniczeń, odległość, samotność, potrzebowac p., nie mieć p	Freedom, universe, exploration, development, spacecraft, future, modern inventions, living s., danger, unknown, black hole, spacious, huge, empty, frivoplous, distance, break, moving forward, science, aliens, E.T., changes, lack of shelter	Das Zimmer, dei freiheit, verschiedene, Moglichkeiten, das Leben, die Entwicklung, die grosse Wohnung
13/20/12	P. kosmiczna, na przestrzeni wieków, osobista, model p., objętość, pustka, wolność, obszar, miejsce, kosmos, trójwymiarowość, nieskrępowanie, pole	Spacecraft, universe, stars, planets, room, place, personal s., privacy, independence, freedom, creativity, space bar, p. space, to explore s., a space of being withdrawna, lack of activity, lack of constraints, no borders	Mundraum, etwas leeres, wo einem Raum gibt, aber was such begrentz Der Raum in haus, Wande, etwas geschlossenes, etwas steckt in dem Raum, etw in Raum eingetaucht ist, etwas imgendwohinerstecken, schutzen, gemutlich, Sicheheit

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

Subject number and number of responses in each test	L1 data: *Przestrzeń*	L2 data: *Space*	L3 data: *der Raum*
22/18/12	P. kosmiczna, otwarta p., p. życiowa, natura, otwarte morze, pustynia, wolność, życie, pokój, wnętrze samochodu, agorafobia, miejsce, oddech, przestrzenny, wiatr, p. powietrzna, pustka, duża p., czasoprzestrzeń, wyobraźnia p., na przestrzeni wieków, próżnia	Open s., s. shuttle, out of s., spacious, there is no s., space key, freedom, nature, s. discovery, free s., desert, area, vast, ocean, time and space, place, room, wind	Der Lebensraum, das Zimmer, der Platz, aufraumen, das gebaude, das Klassenzimmer, Albtraum, in wlechen Raum…?, geraumig, beguam, All, Weltraum
28/18/11	Wolność, góry, widoki, potrzebować p., p. osobista, p. wnętrze, natura, wolna, p., zabudowana p., lęk przed otwartą p., światło, jasne wnętrze, konie galopujące po rozległych równinach, step, pustynia, morze, daleki horyzont, własna p., własny kat, p. powietrzna, widok z okna samolotu	Spaceship, own space, universe, someone′s own room, desert, open spaces, a view from a sky-scraper/aeroplane/top of the mountain, freedom, spacious, spacious room, to need space, nature, free s., landscape, ocean, blurred horizon	Das eigene Zimmer, es gibt kein Raum, eigenen Raum brauchen, Freiheit, der nature, reiten, das Gebirge, das Meier, ein helles beguemes Zimmer, aufraumen

L2 *freedom*, *freedom of choice*, *individual freedom*, *identity*;
L3 *Lebensraum*, *die Freiheit*.

The differences appear in the quantity of the above categories, as for example for L1 the dominant responses are freedom-related, personal and nature-focused words. In the case of L2 these words appear much less frequently, whereas the most significantly frequent associations are universe-related words, a category quite infrequent in L1 responses, for example: *space*, *spaceship*, *Jupiter*, *Mars*, *planets*, *outer space*.

L3 associations yielded more concrete words denoting places, usually from the immediate environment of daily life, e.g., house, flat, but not person-related as it was in L1 responses (the use of *my* in L1 words): *das Zimmer*, *der Haus*, *der Tisch*, *die Schule*.

In terms of types of associations, L1 responses were full of syntagmatic combinations of adjective and noun, for example: *przestrzen domowa* (home space), *nieskończona* (infinite space), *intelektualna* (intellectual space), *otwarta/zamknięta* (open/close space), etc.

These syntagmatic associations are very scarce in L2 tests, only a few examples were found: *living space*, *personal space*, *open/full space*, *parking space*. They are also absent from L3 data, which on the other hand offer quite a few expressions and sayings, for example: *allein zu sein* (be alone or lonely), *abhalten von* (stop oneself from), *ein Platz nur fűr uns selbst* (a place only for us), *viel Raum an der Wand* (a lot of space by the wall), *nette Gefűhle wie Freunde* (a nice feeling of being friends), *Raum in dem Kopf machen* (colloquial, make place in one's head), *etwas leeres* (something empty), *wo einem Raum gibt* (where is the room/space), *aber was such begrenzt* (something is limited), e*twas steckt In dem Raum*, *etwas ist In dem Raum eingetaucht*, *etwas irgendwohin strecken* (there is smth in space; smth is drowned in the space, stretch sth somewhere), *ein helles bequemes Zimmer* (light, comfortable room).

Some interesting examples of associations are those which have connotations with:

- the internet (*mouse*, *space key on the board*, *internet space*, *MySpace* page)—all in L2;
- culture- related (*E.T.*, *Star Wars*)—all in L2;
- historical (*Deutschland*, *Hitler*, *der Krieg*)—all in L3.

What came as a surprise was the fact that there was not a single example of spatial language in the data collected, that is, prepositions and prepositional phrases describing space were not produced in the automatic responses of the subjects.

It was observed that the most frequent types of responses registered in each language test can be categorised as the following:

- L1—IMMEDIATE context (perception and awareness of space as a daily category): personal references, nature of the immediate surrounding (not an outer

space) and freedom (a culture grounded- construct); also qualifying (describing) this immediate, personal space;
- L2—ABSTRACT context (outer space, planets and spaceships); also freedom-related words,
- L3—LANGUAGE FOCUS (sayings and expressions, words common in German, e.g., Lebensraum).

The data in this small sample suggests that associations with the concept of space demonstrate some differences across languages. The types of responses across L1, L2 and L3 overlap, so it may seem the language and its specificity are not reflected very strongly in the way the subjects respond automatically to the stimulus word *space*. The differences observed are quantitative in nature and express different preponderances for activation of different scripts. In L1 the picture of nature and personal freedom in unconstrained space and other positive responses (positive adjectives, e.g., infinite, open, unconstrained) point to the importance the subjects see in space as a daily function of their lives. In the case of L2 associations, the script activated is, on the one hand, somehow detached from this daily script categories of L1, as the dominant responses are "out there in space" in a cosmic sense, but on the other, the references to the internet and virtual reality seem to express the space it occupies in the subjects' lives. It may be assumed to have a direct connection with English (the subject of their studies) as the language of virtual communication. The script activated in L3 can be assumed to relate to the subjects' language learning experience, as the associations either constitute basic words, which are part of their internalized lexicon (e.g., these relating to the house and its architecture—different rooms) and idiomatic phrases and collocations learnt as chunks (absent in L1 and L2 data). Looking at the data from Hall's perspective of proxemic levels, the informal level (personal, intimate, informal) is expressed first of all in L1 responses, which can be interpreted as reflecting L1 as part of self-identification. The semi-fixed level appears also in L1 and in L2, whereas the fixed one mostly appears in L3 (architectural references). This classification demonstrates the most affective responses are in L1, more distance is manifest in L2 and the least affective found in L3, thus expressing the personal distance operating in a given language.

4 Conclusions

In my earlier studies on culture-grounded concepts of culture-loaded words, such as for example *religion*, *home*, *bread*, *red*, Gabryś-Barker (2005) and the concept of *time*, Gabryś-Barker (2012b), it was shown that L1 responses were more metaphoric and thus semantically richer, culture-grounded, person-related, and representing conceptual links in the subjects' minds. At the same time, L2 associations were very different: they also expressed conceptual links but those characteristic of L2 culture (British and American). They also exhibited the

influence of the processes of overlearning, as exemplified for instance in L2 (English) by the phrases such as *on time*, *in time*, and thus giving evidence of significant transfer of training. Finally, L3 associations showed that the subjects tended to treat the task as a learning experience and so the associations produced were only concrete (literal).

Very similar conclusions can be drawn from the data of the present study, in which the construct of space was the focus. As expected it is strongly culture grounded, in that value is attached to space ranging from the space which gives us a chance to breathe freely (nature) to personal space that we value to such an extent that we build walls around ourselves in a sociofugal manner. This is to some extent also visible in L2 and L3 but to a much lesser degree, as the preponderance of other categories (the virtual one in L2 and the language learning experience itself in L3) is strongly expressed quantitatively.

Does this mean that the belief in the impact of globalization, as expressed by Sercombe and Young (2011: 538), is not that significant? They say:

> The "globalized age" in which we live means people are much more mobile, bi- or multicultural, and multilingual, and can maintain several (sometimes conflicting) cultural identities simultaneously. In this way "Other is in Us and we are in the Other (Kramsch 2001: 205).

But maybe the question is more individual and relates to the broader issue of self-perception, one's identity and the role of language ego in it? This is very well expressed by Pavlenko (2006):

> Some bi- and multilinguals may perceive the world differently, and change perspectives, ways of thinking, and verbal and non-verbal behaviours when switching languages. Some may derive enjoyment from hybridity and the relativity of their existence and others may feel that they inhabit distinct and at times incommensurable life worlds and experience pain and anguish over this condition. Yet this is not an aberration on their part but what makes us human (*ibid*.: 29).

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Part III
Aspects of Foreign Language Instruction

On Standards and Advancedness in Foreign Language Education

Zbigniew P. Możejko

Abstract The chapter aims at discussing the role of standards and their relation to the notion of advancedness in foreign language education (FLED). The chapter introduces the concept of standards and traces their place in the educational systems of the USA (at the level of state-legislature) and Europe (at the level of nation-states). The chapter investigates the role of two documents: the National Standards in American Education, and the Common European Framework of Reference in assisting the development of advanced language capacities. The study ends by signaling glottodidactic implications for preparing learners towards advancedness.

1 Introduction

The development of communicative FL learning and teaching, with is emphasis on fluency and focus on meaning, has raised the question of how best to develop language-systems competencies, how to reintroduce into the teaching practice long neglected focus-on-form activities with the aim to reinstate language accuracy, and—ultimately—how to help learners attain advanced levels of FL development, be it C2 in CEFR terms, be it Superior/Distinguished level in IL/ACTFL terms (the commonly accepted metric in the USA is the Interagency Language Roundtable/American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages standard; Brecht 2002: 12). The study deliberately focuses on instructed FL settings, as literacy, especially advanced skills, is "not a natural outgrowth of orality (Cope and Kalantzis 1993)" (Byrnes 2006b: 5) and necessitates formal instruction.

Z. P. Możejko (✉)
University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: z.p.mozejko@uw.edu.pl

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The discussion of the role of standards is aimed at setting ground for presenting the notion of advancedness. The next section (Sect. 2) introduces the concept of standards in education and traces their embeddedness into the educational system in the USA at the federal, state and local levels. In this section, reference will be made to results of a study visit at The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH, September 1997, whose aim was to investigate foreign language instruction at secondary and tertiary levels. Hence, the illustrative material presented herein will bear a local trait, indicative though of more general tendencies.

Section 3 compares standards as employed in the educational systems in the USA against the educational traditions ingrained in Europe, especially through the work promoted by the *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR 2001).

Section 4 tackles the notion of advancedness, which is argued to be distinct from the notions of language proficiency, or linguistic accuracy *cum* fluency. The section enumerates tokens of advancedness, and features of advanced language learners; it ends with pedagogical implications for teaching towards advancedness.

2 From Federal Standards Movement to State Minimum Standards

In order to properly sketch the current position of Distinguished level Foreign Language Education (FLED) in the USA one can take two perspectives—one, federal, in the form of the Standards Movement; the other, state or local, in the form of documents issued by the respective Departments of Education. Let us begin with the former.

The opening chapter of *National Standards in American Education* offers a dual definition of the notion "standard" (cf. def. 1 and def. 2).

Def. 1: [a standard] refers to a conspicuous object (as a banner) formerly carried at the top of the pole and used to mark a rallying point esp. in battle or to serve as an emblem. In that sense, a standard is something established by authority, custom, or general consent as a model or example (Ravitch 1995: 7).

Def. 2: [a standard] is […] something set up and established by authority as a rule for the measure of quantity, weight, extent, value, or quality (Ravitch 1995: 7).

Hence, a standard is at once "a *goal* (what should be done) and a *measure* of progress towards that goal (how well it was done)" (Ravitch 1995: 7, original emphasis). Being a measure, standardization procedures in teaching are often associated with testing. Standardization in assessment procedure and content must involve an agreement on what actually *is* taught (and therefore tested) and what *should be* taught in a given field of knowledge (Ravitch 1995: 11). Educators often distinguish three subtypes of standards; content, performance and opportunity-to-learn:

- Content standards (or curriculum standards) describe "what teachers are supposed to teach and students are expected to learn" (Ravitch 1995: 12).

- Performance standards define "degrees of mastery or levels of attainment" (Ravitch 1995: 12)
- Opportunity-to-learn standards (or school delivery standards) define "the availability of programs, staff, and other resources that schools, districts, and states provide so that students are able to meet […] content and performance standards" (Ravitch 1995: 13).

The concept of standards in FLED is not uncontroversial though, and arguments may be presented both in favor and against promoting standardization see (Table 1).

Let us now turn to the document which regulates FLED at the federal level, *Standards for Foreign Language Learning*: *Preparing for the* 21st *Century* (1996), first published in 1996, and currently in its 3rd edition. It characterizes the present-day position on teaching foreign languages as an extension of the traditionally asked questions of "the *how* (grammar) to say *what* (vocabulary)" (*Standards*… p. 3, original emphasis) onto "Knowing *how*, *when*, and *why* to say *what* to *whom*" (ibid.). This broadening of the perspective is in line with the *Standards'* five C's of foreign language education: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. Though the document emphasizes—quite expectedly—the importance of communication and efficient functioning in a multilingual community, it does not overlook other aspects of language learning and teaching by drawing on the connections between languages and additional bodies of knowledge (in a CLIL-like fashion), and insights into the nature of language. See also Appendix 1 for a complete catalog of the standards.

The five standards call for effective dissemination. The document proposes "language advocacy" as a means of serving as a body for FL-related issues and raising public awareness of the benefits of learning FLs. It then identifies the following advocates: teachers and parents (the usual advocates), administrators and government stakeholders (the expected advocates), but also community leaders and business stakeholders. The final category is particularly relevant when

Table 1 Arguments advanced in relation to standards (adapted from Ravitch 1995: 18–27)

Arguments in favor of standards	Arguments against standards
Standards can improve achievement by clearly defining what is to be taught and what kind of performance is expected	Standards will be minimal, reduced to the lowest common denominator
Standards are necessary for equality of opportunity	The government might impose controversial values and opinions
National standards provide a valuable coordinating function	National testing will harm children and will distort priorities in the classroom
Standards and assessments provide consumer protection by supplying accurate information to students, parents, teachers, employers and colleges	National standards and national tests will do nothing to help poor inner-city schools
	The failure of standards and testing will undermine faith in public education and pave the way for privatization of education

it comes to advanced FL learners and their needs, which are often related to future professional needs.

Federal regulations achieve implementation at the level of state and local district legislature. As an illustration, in accordance with what has been signaled in the introduction, reference will be made to findings from an investigation of local regulations in the state of Ohio. Foreign language learning and teaching there has benefited from the introduction of a standards-based model of instruction entitled: *Foreign Languages*: *Ohio's Model Competency-Based Program*.

The document specifies, amongst other, the components of a local FL program, which include: instructional objectives (though, "[t]he State Board of Education recognizes that *instructional decision-making* is best left in the hands of classroom teachers", *Foreign Languages*… p. 3, added emphasis), performance objectives (specified in a way which allows learners to demonstrate what they know and "can do"), and assessment (both standardized annual district-wide, grade-level assessment, and ongoing assessment in the classroom). As if in anticipation of the first argument that may be waged against Standards cf. (Table 1), the document announces that the performance objectives described in the model represent "the essential rather than the minimal knowledge and skills" necessary at any given level (*Foreign Languages*… p. 4). This is an important perspective, especially when considering the advanced level of foreign language use.

Interesting—though this observation goes beyond the immediate scope of the chapter—the document firmly advocates CLIL provision by voicing the following declaration: "Foreign languages are *a core component* of the […] school curriculum and are supportive of and integrated with the entire school experience" (*Foreign Languages*… p. 3, added emphasis). Viewing FLED as the pivotal element of education is more than is habitually expected of foreign languages.

However, reality is far bleaker. A closer scrutiny of minimum graduation requirements in American high schools[1] reveals the following trend. At the junior high-school level (grades 7 through 8), foreign languages are mostly[2] offered as an elective subject, which in reality entails that they are rarely selected. At the senior high school level (grades 9 through 12), foreign languages become mandatory, yet they may amount to just one foreign language at three teaching units per week. Therefore, a high school graduate may enter a FLED program for the first time *ever* at the age of 14 or 15—a situation hardly imaginable in Europe. It is hardly possible to speak of reaching Distinguished level FLED in such circumstances. The task of tertiary level FLED is then twofold. On the one hand, colleges may place enrolment prerequisites at a sufficiently demanding level, for instance accepting only A[dvanced] P[lacement] graduates. On the other hand, colleges

[1] Since the USA does not offer a national curriculum, uniform for all the states, I will illustrate the discussion by providing examples from a local school district; the Columbus, OH school district.

[2] Hedging is introduced deliberately, licensed by the locality of the example.

may offer FLED programs intentionally geared at developing advanced FL capacities. It is the latter category that is of interest herein.

Before we pass on to sketching the situation in Europe, let me sub-conclude this part by quoting one result from the ACTFL Report 2010 [American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages], where students were asked what, if anything, would they change in their FL learning experience (question #5). Nearly a third (29.4 %) declared that they would start learning a FL in elementary school.

3 FL Standards in the *CEFR*

In order to offer a smooth transition from the description of FLED in the USA and to that in Europe, let us compare the typical age at which pupils enter compulsory FL programs in mainstream education. ACTFL data (Sect. 2) can be juxtaposed against data coming from the most recent edition of the Eurydice Report: Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe 2012. The document states that in Europe pupils generally start FL learning between the age of 6 and 9, though there are countries still not offering FLED in primary schools.[3]

Not surprisingly, reference to standards is made in *CERF* in relation to common reference levels (see chapter "Foreign Language Didactics as a Human Science") and to assessment (see chapter "Comparing Learners' and Teachers' Beliefs About Form-Focused Instruction"). Common levels of reference (for instance levels A1—C2 in the case of *CEFR*), may make use of various orientations of their standardized scales of language proficiency (see Fig. 1).

Reference levels may serve as guidelines for learners to "describe the levels of proficiency required by existing standards, tests and examinations in order to facilitate comparisons between different systems of qualifications" (*CEFR*, p. 21), or as benchmarks for pupils' self- and other-assessment. From among the various dichotomies that describe types of assessment (for a complete list, as adapted from *CEFR*, see Appendix 2), I would like to consider two, which seem to relate to the notion of advancedness: norm-referencing (NR) *versus* criterion-referencing (CR), and mastery CR *versus* continuum CR. Norm-referencing involves the placing of learners in rank order, and assessing them relation to their peers. Criterion-referencing is advocated in response against norm-referencing; here learners are assessed purely in terms of their ability in the subject, irrespective of the ability of their peers. Mastery criterion-referencing involves "a single 'minimum competence standard' or 'cut-off point' […] set to divide learners into 'masters' and 'non-masters'" (*CEFR*, p. 184). Continuum criterion-referencing approach is an approach in which "an individual ability is referenced to a defined continuum of

[3] Even though such pupils exist, there number is decreasing; "[f]rom 2004/05 to 2009/10, the percentage of pupils enrolled in primary education not learning a foreign language dropped from 32.5 to 21.8 %" (Key Data… p. 10).

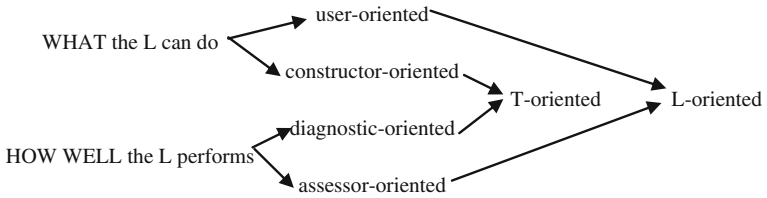

Fig. 1 Varying orientations of scales of foreign language proficiency (adopted from *CEFR* p. 39)

all relevant degrees of ability in the area" (*CEFR*, p. 184). The *CEFR* promotes criterion-referencing and related types of referencing, whereas pedagogies developing FL learners towards advanced language capacities—while they do recognize the existence of partial competences and checklists of criteria—make also reference to objective norms and the concept of 'minimum competence standard'.

4 Advanced language capacities

Let me open the discussion of advancedness with a confession by one of its leading proponents concerning the nature of the notion.

> I have made this argument [i.e. the introductory presentation of the notion of advancedness] without ever having specified what advancedness refers to in the first place. The reasoning goes something like this: we know it when we see it, though we may have difficulty defining it, and may have disagreements about the categories that would need to be included and the degree of importance we would ascribe to them.
>
> Byrnes 2006a: 13

In the chapter commencing a volume devoted to developing professional-level language proficiency, Leaver and Shekhtman (2002) direct the reader from the very outset to the qualitative rather than the purely quantitative nature of advanced language capacities by saying that these capacities are "[n]ot just more of the same [i.e. language abilities]" (2002: 3), but rather that they constitute a qualitatively different construct. In what regard do advanced L2 learners differ from *not-yet*-advanced L2 users?

Feature of advancedness. Advanced language features involve, amongst others, the following linguistic traits:[4]

- sensitivity to genre-related features of L2 (Schleppegrell 2006);

[4] To some, the subsequent division of advancedness into traits of the learner and traits of the linguistic condition may be viewed as unsubstantiated, however, the logic behind is as follows. The former encompass more language related issues, while the latter include traits of more general, educational nature.

- an ability to make linguistic choice in L2 (Carrol and Lambert 2006; Colombi 2006);
- an affinity towards discourse competence in L2 (Caudery 2002; Dabars and Kagan 2002);
- and extensive vocabulary (Paribakht and Wesche 2006).

The advanced learner. The advanced language learner may be characterized as possessing the following feature:

- being an adult user of L2

> Distinguished proficiency clearly requires the linguistic maturity exhibited principally in the L2 adult population. In fact, a child, who has not achieved Piaget's formal operations (Piaget 1967) and requisite knowledge and experience, would not be able to speak at the equivalent of the Level 4 and beyond in his or her native language.
>
> Leaver and Shekhtman 2002: 17

- being a multicompetent user of L2 (Byrnes 2006b)
- exhibiting emotional and social competence (Leaver and Atwell 2012)

The development of advanced language capacities. Different authors offer slightly different catalogues of pedagogical interventions which are believed to promote the development of advancedness. Leaver and Shekhtman (2002) list the following qualities of contemporary FLED programs, including advanced-level FLED: authenticity, content, learner-centeredness, schema, higher-order thinking, and adult learning (recall the sub-point above).

Deliberate focus on literacies. Advanced FL pedagogies recognize communicative competence, yet not limited to or realized exclusively by oral performance; rather such pedagogies focus on the development of "literacy".

> [L]iteracy is not a natural outgrowth of orality (Cope and Kalantzis 1993), and instruction and education in general are not merely a matter of polishing up, as it were, existing language abilities but of enabling learners to gain access to new ways of being, even new identities, through language-based social action and interaction.
>
> Byrnes 2006b: 5

Deliberate attempts at developing accuracy and sophistication in grammatical expression

> At the Superior level, grammatical accuracy is not a tautology, and grammatical fluency is not an oxymoron, as they often are at lower levels of language proficiency. Grammatical accuracy, without any doubt, is the most important element of high C[ommunicative] F[ocus].
>
> Leaver and Shekhtman 2002: 24

And deliberate explicit instruction, classroom-based language instruction. As well as technology-based instruction (for a recent overview of the interplay of FLED, ICT and teacher training, see Krajka (2012)).

5 Conclusions

In lieu of a conventional conclusion, let me close the above considerations on standards and advancedness with yet one more quote portraying an advanced level learner. This time, the description is at once the goal and the route towards it.

> At the Distinguished level, students not only understand dialectal difference but comprehend idiolectal differences, as well. As such, they display sensitivity to what idiolects say about a person's educational level, values, and […] expectation. […] Superior-level students also develop their own idiolect. […] If students are erudite in their native language, they exhibit erudition in the foreign language. […] If they punctuate their native speech with humor and sarcasm, they punctuate the foreign language with culturally appropriate versions of the same.
>
> Leaver and Shekhtman 2002: 24

Let our students—advanced learners of English—become who they may.

Appendix 1: Standards for Foreign Language Learning of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

(retrieved Oct 30, 2012 from: http://www.actfl.org/advocacy/discover-languages/advocacy/discover-languages/advocacy/discover-languages/resources-1)

Communication: Communicate in Languages Other Than English
Standard 1.1: Students engage in conversations, provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions
Standard 1.2: Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics
Standard 1.3: Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a variety of topics.

Cultures: Gain Knowledge and Understanding of Other Cultures
Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied
Standard 2.2: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied

Connections: Connect with Other Disciplines and Acquire Information
Standard 3.1: Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language
Standard 3.2: Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive viewpoints that are only available through the foreign language and its cultures

Comparisons: Develop Insight into the Nature of Language and Culture
Standard 4.1: Students demonstrate understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own
Standard 4.2: Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.

Communities: Participate in Multilingual Communities at Home and Around the World
Standard 5.1: Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting
Standard 5.2: Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment.

Appendix 2

Table 2

Table 2 Types of assessment (adapted from *CEFR*, p. 183)

1	Achievement assessment	Proficiency assessment
2	Norm-referencing (NR)	Criterion-referencing (CR)
3	Mastery learning CR	Continuum CR
4	Continuous assessment	Fixed assessment points
5	Formative assessment	Summative assessment
6	Direct assessment	Indirect assessment
7	Performance assessment	Knowledge assessment
8	Subjective assessment	Objective assessment
9	Checklist rating	Performance rating
10	Impression	Guided judgement
11	Holistic assessment	Analytic assessment
12	Series assessment	Category assessment
13	Assessment by others	Self-assessment

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Language Achievements of Polish Young Learners: Evidence from the ELLiE Study

Magdalena Szpotowicz

Abstract This chapter presents the language achievements of young learners of English as a foreign language taught as a compulsory school subject. A sample of 150 learners from 7 primary schools was observed and tested yearly over their first 4 years of school education. This longitudinal study gives insight into the process of foreign language acquisition in instructed contexts and explores factors influencing early language learning in Poland. The study describes the language achievements of a sample from the cohort who started English as part of their regular school education in 2006 when the majority of Polish primary schools had implemented this addition to the curriculum. The study was carried out as part of a multinational, longitudinal research project ELLiE. The main aim of the ELLiE study was to analyse and describe what can realistically be achieved in instructed contexts when little class time is available. It explored language policy implementation, key factors contributing to language achievements and the linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of an early start in language learning.

ELLiE Project (Early Language Learning in Europe)—a longitudinal, multinational research project carried out in seven European countries in years 2007–2010 (www.ellieresearch.eu; Enever 2011).

M. Szpotowicz (✉)
University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: m.szpotowicz@uw.edu.pl

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1 Introduction

1.1 Early Foreign Language Learning in Poland: Policy Perspective

An important curricular change in foreign language education was implemented in Poland in September 2008. Foreign language education became compulsory for all children starting their regular school education in Year 1. This was preceded by a preparatory period of two years (2006–2008) when schools were encouraged to introduce foreign language learning if the resources were available. This procedure allowed for earlier implementation of the change in over 50 % of Polish primary schools (Zarębska 2008). After this introductory period, in 2008 foreign language education became a permanent element of the curriculum from the onset of schooling and throughout all stages of formal education. A year later, when a new Core Curriculum (MEN 2008) was implemented another vital change was introduced—the second foreign language became part of the compulsory timetable in lower secondary schools. These changes are an important milestone for the Polish education system in complying with the European recommendation underlined at the Barcelona European Council of March 2002 "to improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age". This has now become central to EU language education policy. The need to introduce early foreign language teaching of two foreign languages in primary schools in Poland was advocated more than 20 years ago by Komorowska (1989). Many of her recommendations have gradually been implemented in consecutive curricular reforms: in 1999 (MEN 1999) when the starting age was lowered from Year 5 to 4 and in the recent reform of 2009 which was outlined above. Other recommendations are still to be put into practice, e.g. introduction of a second foreign language in upper primary school and promoting subtitled films and programmes in TV.

1.2 Challenges of Measuring Children's Language Skills

The dynamic spread of early language learning and a growing interest in learning outcomes has increased demand for testing (McKay 2006). Policy makers, school principals and parents often demand tangible evidence of progress and comparison with standards. No valid methods have so far been described to deliver such evidence at least in early language learning. It might be questioned whether standardized tests can ever deliver all the information we need. McKay (2006: 316–316) criticizes large-scale standardized tests for young language learners for their unpedagogical and solely administrative nature. However, no matter whether for diagnostic or research purposes, the measurement of young learners' skills needs to be carried out on the basis of a sound understanding of their cognitive, emotional and social development and the deficiencies of such tests.

> Testing must be in line with assessment constructs along with the language-content program continuum, particularly within the current integrated or embedded models in YL classrooms given the current status and use in diverse contexts (Inbar-Lourie and Shohamy 2009: 93)

Nikolov and Mihaljević Djigunović (2011) highlighted the challenge of testing young learners. As skills develop gradually, children's low proficiency levels need to be defined and described along a continuum of small steps. This type of feedback is important to children themselves, parents and teachers to demonstrate progress. Sequence of language skill acquisition observed in this age group disqualifies testing of all four language skills simultaneously, as with older learners. Children's receptive skills develop quicker, but since officially they only start reading in L1 aged 7, reading comprehension tests would not be suitable for another 2 years. Young learners are sensitive to criticism, whether it is feedback or assessment, and this may cause anxiety associated with learning and have a negative impact on their attitudes and motivation.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) propose principles of task 'usefulness' in which every child's score closely represents his or her abilities (McKay 2006: 113). McKay (ibid) suggests that a set of six questions, as proposed by Bachman and Palmer (1996), should be applied to tasks and procedures involved with testing children:

1. Reliability of results—would they be the same if another examiner assessed their work?
2. Construct validity—are the interpretations of the results meaningful and appropriate?
3. Task authenticity—do the tasks reflect language use in the classroom?
4. Task interactivity—do the tasks involve a child's language ability to do the task?
5. Practicality of assessment—are sufficient resources available for the task to work with children, in the classroom?
6. Positive impact—what impact does the assessment have on the learners, teachers, parents or society?

Development of tasks to measure children's language skills is also a challenge at the level at which decisions are made on the standards or frameworks to refer to. The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2001) which provides level descriptors (A1-C2) for foreign language skills is inappropriate for the purpose of describing children's language ability as it does not account for their developmental characteristics. Instead, tasks can be built on the basis of level descriptors containing 'can do statements' or learning outcomes from national curricula or national versions of the European Language Portfolios (ELP) for young learners. Drawing up a set of uniform descriptors to specify the sub-skills of the construct to be tested across a few European countries, for example: listening or reading comprehension, remains a challenge. The difficulty of finding a common point of reference for this age group is illustrated in Table 1. Each of the quoted documents specify a different set of standards for abilities,

Table 1 'Can do' statements in ELPs at A1 level (CEFR) and Polish Core Curriculum learning outcomes at the end of the first educational stage in Poland for listening and reading

'Can do' statements/ learning outcomes	European Language Portfolio-Junior version (for 7–11) (CILT 2006)	European language Portfolio for 6–10 year olds (Pamuła et al. 2006)	Polish Core Curriculum learning outcomes for educational stage 1
Listening	I can understand the teacher's instructions I can play 'Simon Says' I can act out the meaning of sentences	I can understand individual words and phrases which stand for colours, animals, food and drink	At the end of grade 3 the learner understands listening texts:
	I can do actions to a story or poem as I hear it I can follow a short story	I can understand very short and clear instructions, when people speak slowly and clearly, e.g. stand up, stand in a circle	-distinguishes between words which sound similar
	I can follow a range of different stories I can follow someone else's conversation	I can understand very simple questions about me, my family, my friends, e.g. name, age, brothers, sisters	-recognizes everyday phrases and can use them
	I can understand questions about myself	I can understand very simple questions about the objects I know, e.g. about colour, size	-understands the gist of short stories told with the help of pictures and gestures
	I can recognize important words in a story or a song I can match words which I hear with pictures		-understands the gist of simple dialogues in picture comic strips (also in audio and video recordings)
Reading	I can read a poem I can read a short dialogue	I can point to the products I like, when I recognize their names on the labels	At the end of grade 3 the learner
	I can read a short story I can read the names of some objects	I can understand very simple labels of photos and pictures	-understands the gist of dialogues in picture comic strips
	I can read an email message	I can understand very simple rubrics in a coursebook, e.g.. read, listen, draw, write	-understands simple words and sentences in reading tasks

tasks and activities. Some of them are very specific and refer to language activities (e.g. *I can play 'Simon Says'* in ELP-Junior version.) and some are general and define learning processes (e.g. *the learners recognizes everyday phrases*…. in the Polish Core Curriculum). There is a clear lack and need for one set of universal, internationally standardized descriptors for language ability affording reference to the small steps in young learners' language development. The first attempt at implementing this is the publication of descriptors for children's writing in a foreign language (Hasselgreen et al. 2011) developed in the AYLLIT project.

1.3 Factors Influencing Early Foreign Language Achievements

One of the principal aims of the ELLiE study was to identify factors which contribute to successful early foreign language learning. Several factors have already been identified and described by the ELLiE research team and their influence confirmed. They include: internal factors of attitudes and motivation (Mihaljevic Djigunovic and Lopriore 2011; Mihaljević Djigunović 2012) and external factors drawing on school and home environments (Lopriore and Krikhaar 2011; Szpotowicz and Lindgren 2011; Lindgren and Muñoz 2012).

Young learners' out-of-school exposure to a foreign language has been the subject of several studies. Effects of exposure to subtitled films and programmes on television were demonstrated by Lefever (2010). In his study Icelandic primary school learners acquired English vocabulary and phrases by watching television with subtitles in Icelandic before it became a school subject. Kuppens (2010) investigated 11-year-old Flemish speakers' exposure to English over a long period. Language tests which were applied to a group of 400 children revealed that learners who frequently watched subtitled television and films scored significantly higher. Both studies were carried out in countries where wide exposure to English is offered by the media. In Poland, where public broadcasting delivers content with voice-over for adults and dubbing for children, little exposure to the target language is available. The recent study which tested teenage students' foreign language competences in 14 European countries, *the European Survey on Language Competences*, revealed that Polish 15-year-old students reported having little access to foreign languages through television or the internet. Their language test results were also amongst the lowest in Europe (European Commission 2012).

The role of parents and their influence on school achievements has been recognized by international studies (OECD 2009; European Commission 2012). There is a large body of research reporting that mother's level of education contributes to better performance of children at school (Benjamin 1993; Stitch 1988). Parents' supportive role in foreign language acquisition was explored by several studies. Chambers (1999) observed that children were increasingly motivated to learn a language proportionately to their perception of their parents' foreign

language ability. Hewitt (2009) noticed that both perceived parental ability and direct involvement influenced children's language achievements. In Poland, the ESLC study revealed how Polish 15-year-olds perceived their parents' language proficiency level in the target language. Over 80 % of the respondents reported their parents' knowledge as "very little or none at all" (IBE, in press).

2 Aims and Research Questions

The study presented below is a sub-study of the ELLiE project and focuses on language achievements in receptive skills in the fourth year of compulsory school education in Poland.

The study aims to explore development of young learners' receptive skills measured by means of listening and reading comprehension tasks. The main research question is whether their level of language abilities reaches the requirements as described in the Core Curriculum and the Junior Language Portfolio. It was further considered relevant to investigate internal and external factors which influence the level of performance, such as children's motivation, parents' role, the school factor and out-of-school exposure.

The independent variables were the listening and reading tasks containing items which tested comprehension. The dependent variables were scores the tasks. A number of contextual variables were also identified to give insight into factors which might influence the level of performance, such as: the school, exposure to the target language outside school and parents' target language knowledge and level of education. Among individual factors, motivation for learning English was considered to be an important contextual variable. They are presented in Fig. 1. The study addressed the following specific questions:

1. What are the language achievements in listening and reading comprehension?
2. To what extent do contextual and individual factors explain these linguistic achievements?

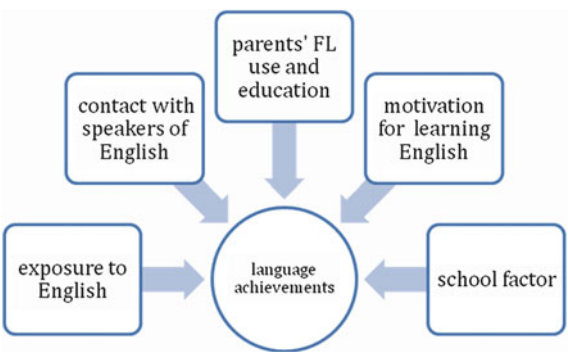

Fig. 1 Contextual variables

3 Method

3.1 Participants

Participants in the study were 10 years old and had been learning English as a compulsory school subject since Grade 1. A cohort of 180 children in their fourth year of primary school was selected from a convenience sample of 7 schools participating in ELLiE in Poland. Schools were chosen to represent different socio-economic millieux. The sample comprised two city schools, two suburban schools, two village schools and one small town school. One class was selected from each school. Classes were followed over 4 years and performance was measured each year. Forty-eight percent of participants were girls and 52 % were boys.

3.2 Instruments and Procedures for Data Collection

The instruments used in the present study were designed in the ELLiE project (Enever 2011: 13–18). They comprise listening and reading comprehension tasks, a parents' questionnaire and a questionnaire for children.

Listening and reading comprehension tasks

Class listening and reading tasks used in year Four were designed on the basis of syllabus analyses and lesson observations to address the learners' language proficiency level and provide types of tasks which reflected classroom experience. Owing to the lack of international, external standards for language level in this age group, tasks were related to the general 'can do' statement for Listening at A1 level in CEFR:

> *I can understand familiar words and very basic phrases when people speak slowly and clearly.*

and for Reading at A1 level in CEFR:

> *I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences.*

National curricula requirements and European Language Portfolio—Junior Version as well as the Polish European Language Portfolio for children were further consulted to identify the learning outcomes which were operationalised in the tasks. The requirements of the Polish core curriculum for the end of grade 3 which reads "(the learner) understands the gist of simple dialogues in picture comic strips (also in audio and video recordings)" (CC) or "I can understand individual words and phrases which stand for colours, animals, food and drink" (ELP) for listening comprehension. For reading comprehension, "(the learner) understands the gist of dialogues in picture comic strips" (CC). The above were addressed by the task items used.

The listening task was in two parts. In part 1 there were 12 items. Each item was a sentence or a short dialogue pre-recorded by a native speaker. The task was

to match the item heard in the recording with one of three pictures presented on the worksheet. In part 2 there were 20 items which consisted of pre-recorded statements referring to a picture in the worksheet. Next to the worksheet there was a chart for marking the validity of the statements heard. The reliability coefficient for the listening task administered in the Polish sample was calculated with Cronbach's Alpha and can be considered acceptably high (0.81).

A reading task was also based on picture prompts. A short comic strip was selected to appeal to young learners' tastes and address the principle of task usefulness (McKay 2006) for this age group. The comic was constructed such that 8 speech bubbles were left empty. The missing text along with two or three distracters was provided and the learner's task was to decide which option suited an empty bubble best. The reliability coefficient for the reading task administered in the Polish sample was calculated with Cronbach's Alpha and was moderately acceptable (0.578). This considerably lower reliability can be attributed to the low number of task items. However, it should be mentioned that this reading task was the first attempt to measure reading ability in the study and no longer task appeared either appropriate or practical. Learners had already performed both listening tasks prior to the reading task. Administration of both tasks took 30 min.

Smiley questionnaire

Learners were asked to give their opinions and feelings about learning English at school. A questionnaire containing eight questions referring to different aspects of language learning was administered. They responded by ticking a face which best reflected their feelings (a happy, neutral or a sad face).

Parents' questionnaire

Parents were asked to fill in a questionnaire about their child's language exposure outside school, their own level of education and English at work. The response rate was very high (96 %). Time to fill in the questionnaire during parent-teacher meetings when parents' attendance was obligatory made this possible.

Instruments used to collect data about the school

Data on the status and organisation of foreign language teaching in schools and principals' attitudes to an early start in FL learning were collected through interviews with school principals. Teachers were interviewed and asked to complete questionnaires to explore their attitudes and teaching practice. In addition to course books, curricula and teaching materials were systematically analysed. Lessons were observed over the four year period. School profiles were developed on this basis (Lopriore and Krikhaar 2011).

4 Results

Listening and reading tasks together with smiley questionnaires were administered on the same day, so the results below were obtained from learners who attended school on that day and completed the tasks.

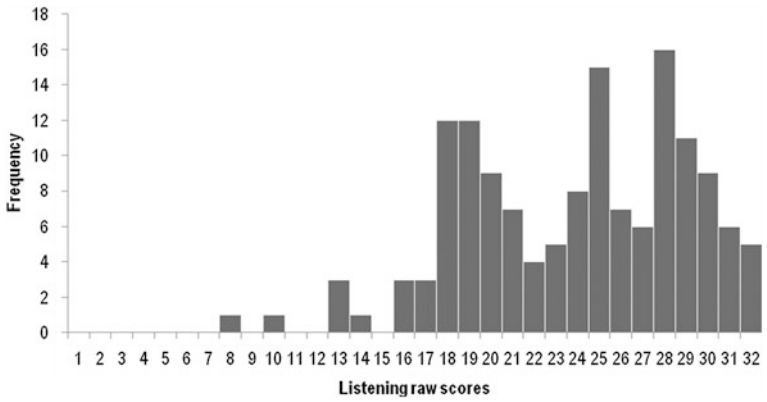

Fig. 2 Distribution of listening task scores in ELLiE Polish sample ($N = 144$)

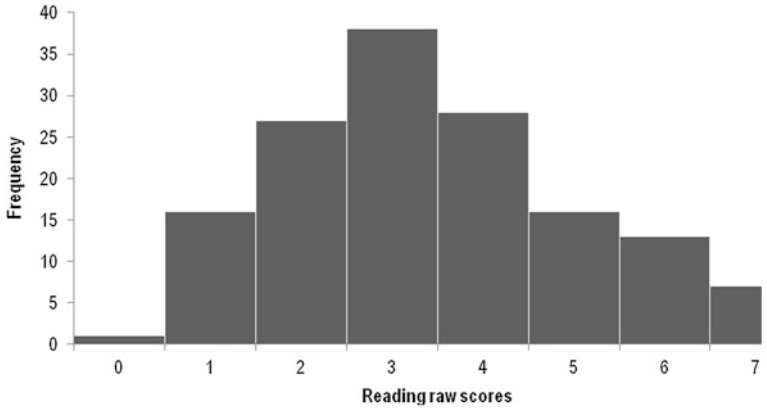

Fig. 3 Distribution of reading task scores in ELLiE Polish sample ($N = 146$)

Listening and reading comprehension tasks

Results of the listening task show that half of the children scored over 25 points and that the most frequent score was 28 points, while the mean score was 23.88 points ($SE = 0.43$, $SD = 5.14$). The minimum achieved score was 8 and the maximum was 32, which was the total available score. The skewness of the listening task scores was negative (-0.45, $SE = 0.20$) which indicates that only a few children had very low scores. A histogram with the listening task scores is presented in Fig. 2.

Results of the reading task show that the median score was 3 points, which was below the mean score ($M = 3.45$, $SE = 0.14$, $SD = 1.64$). Only one student scored 0. Seven students scored the 7 maximum points available. A histogram with the reading task scores is presented in Fig. 3.

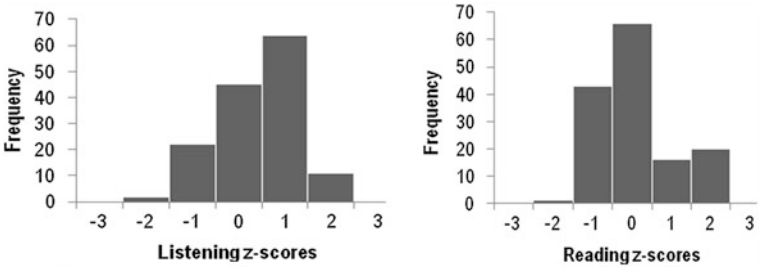

Fig. 4 Distribution of listening and reading *z*-scores

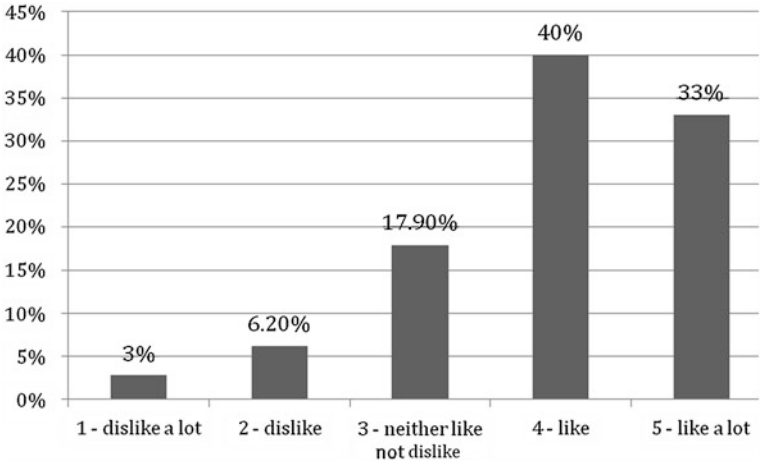

Fig. 5 Percentage distribution of motivation for learning English ($N = 145$)

Standardized results for listening and reading tasks allow for comparison. As graphs in Fig. 4 show the results of the reading task indicate that scores are lower than those for the listening task. A greater proportion scored above the mean in the listening than in the reading task where the majority achieved scores around the mean.

Motivation for learning English

Motivation to learn English at school was investigated by asking learners about feelings concerning English lessons. The first question enquired about general attitude: "How do you feel about learning English at school this year?" Fig. 5 presents responses to this question. Categories 4 and 5 (like and like a lot) were selected by 73 % of participants. This suggests that nearly ¾ of the sample had positive and very positive feelings about their language learning at school. Almost 18 % were neutral but only 3 % expressed strongly negative feelings.

Table 2 Listening task scores distribution within schools

Listening task				
School	N	M	SE	SD
A	26	26.538	0.915	4.667
B	17	22.294	1.035	4.269
C	24	21.000	0.823	4.032
D	21	27.190	1.030	4.718
E	17	25.176	1.030	4.246
F	19	20.947	1.186	4.983
G	20	23.400	1.186	5.305

School factor

The distribution of the listening and reading task results for the whole sample is presented in Fig. 3. Inter-school variation was also considered valuable and important to explore. The mean scores per school for Listening are presented in Table 2. The lowest mean score was obtained by the group in school F (20.95 %) and the highest score by school D (27.19 %). A one-way analysis of variance identified significant differences in performance between schools ($F(6.137) = 6.65$; $p < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.226$). The Bonfferoni post hoc test points to the loci of these differences as follows:

between school A and schools C and F

between school D and schools B, C and F.

These differences are marked by arrows in Fig. 6.

The mean scores for the reading task for each school are presented in Table 3. Scores were less differentiated. In school D scores were the highest with a mean of 4.5 and school F had the lowest mean score of 2.95. Tamhane's post hoc test

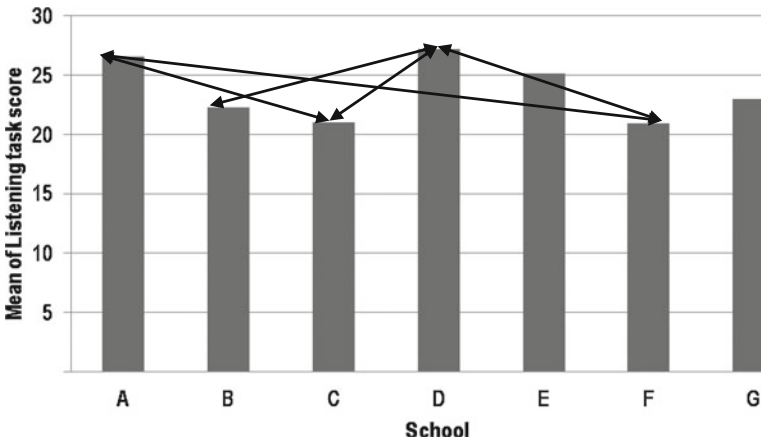

Fig. 6 Distribution of school means of Listening task score; arrows indicate significant differences in mean scores between schools

Table 3 Reading task scores' distribution within schools

Reading task				
School	N	M	SE	SD
A	26	3.731	0.317	1.614
B	18	3.444	0.466	1.977
C	24	3.444	0.466	1.977
D	20	4.450	0.426	1.905
E	17	3.176	0.422	1.741
F	21	2.952	0.271	1.244
G	20	3.600	0.136	1.501

showed the difference in mean scores to be significant between these two schools (see Fig. 7). An analysis of variance confirmed the school effect to be significant, $F(6.139) = 2.59$; $p < 0.05$; $\eta^2 = 0.10$. This result conformed with the Listening task analysis above.

Exposure to English outside school

Parents reported about time their children spent weekly on the following activities: watching English films, cartoons, series on TV (possible subtitled); playing English video/computer games; listening to music in English; reading English books, magazines, comics; speaking English with someone. Their responses are presented in Fig. 8. Parents' responses reveals that between 31 % (for *Reading*) and 9.5 % (for *Listening*) had no exposure to English outside school. The most frequently selected category "under 1 h" indicates minimal systematic exposure. Exposure as reported by parents was mostly from listening to music or playing games.

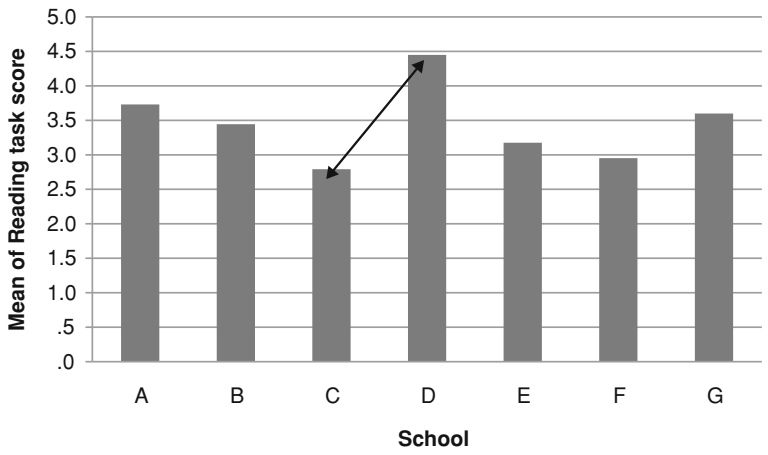

Fig. 7 Distribution of school means of reading task score; arrows indicate significant difference in mean scores between schools

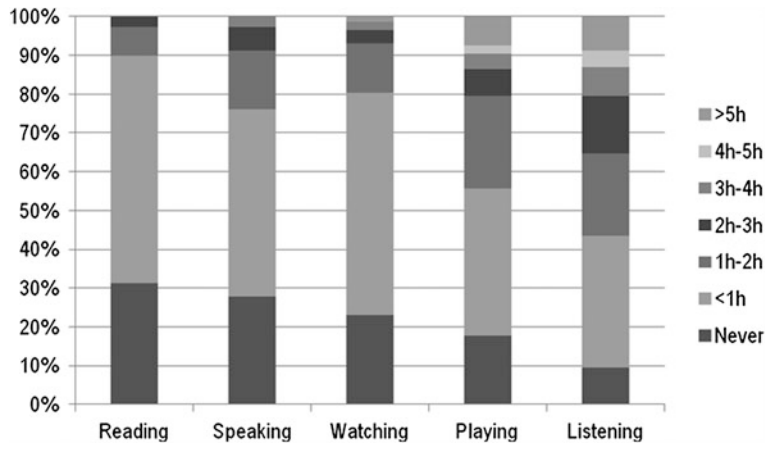

Fig. 8 Distribution of exposure time to English at home

In addition to data collected from parents, exposure to English was documented in a small language landscape observation study. Polish television broadcasts English content with dubbing over the original soundtrack. While most cinema releases for adults are subtitled, dubbing is always used for animated films, cartoons, and children's films. Analysis of 10 min of television commercials revealed 18 written and 10 spoken words of English used.

Contact with speakers of English (non-L1 speakers)

Contact with speakers of other languages who communicated with the participants in English was specifically addressed in the parents' questionnaire. They were asked whether their child ever had contact with people who speak English but not Polish at home, on holidays or when visiting friends and family. The two most frequently marked options were analysed: contact at home and contact on holiday. A Chi square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the two forms of contact. The relation between these forms was significant ($\chi^2(1,15) = 32.39$; $p < 0.01$) and strong ($\varphi = 0.47$; $p < 0.01$). The results are shown in Fig. 9 and revealed that almost 94 % of children had no contact with speakers of English either at home or on holiday. It also showed that 47 % of those who had contact at home also had contact on holiday.

Parents' use of English and level of education

Two contextual variables: parents' level of education and use of English at work were used in the study. The results presented in Table 4 demonstrate a relatively high proportion of parents with education at tertiary level. Level of mothers' education appears higher than that of fathers', conforming to results from other studies (OECD 2009; European Commission 2012).

Thirty percent of mothers and 40 % of fathers reported use of English at work. Almost 30 % of parents did not respond to this question. There is, therefore, a significant amount of data missing, although it is tempting to interpret that responses would have been either negative or that their work did not require it.

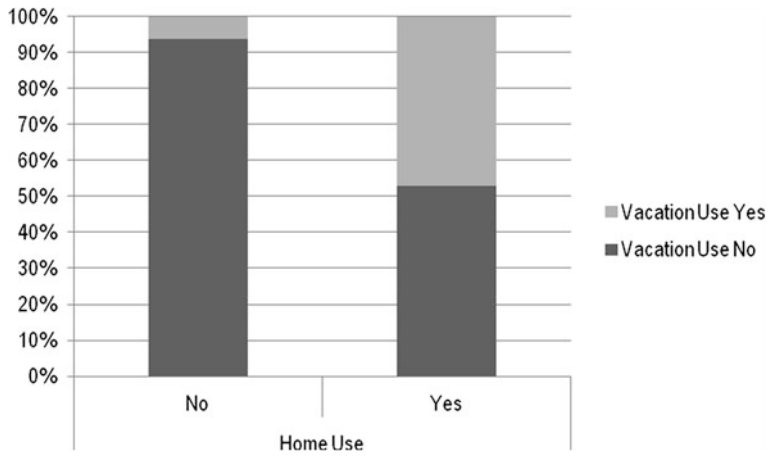

Fig. 9 Cross-tabulation of vacation and home use of English (N = 145)

Table 4 Parents' highest level of education completed

Highest level of education completed	Mother (%)	Father (%)
Primary	8.6	11.7
Secondary	55.9	57.9
Tertiary	35.5	30.3

Factors influencing young learners' language achievements

All external factors and the internal factor (motivation) were taken into account in the linear regression analysis. The results showed that the influence of parents' use of English at work, out-of-school exposure or contact with speakers of English were not statistically significant. After several models had been tested a set of predictors was identified. A model containing: both parents' education calculated as one variable, students' motivation for learning English at school and school factor appeared to explain a high proportion of variance within Listening task results. The three predictors explained 39 % of the variance ($F(3.35) = 28.57$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.39$). Motivation significantly predicted Listening results ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.001$), as did parents' education ($\beta = 0.41$, $p < 0.001$) and the school factor ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$).

For the Reading task results the model is different. Here, only parents' level of education ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.001$) and motivation for learning ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.001$) are strong predictors and explained over 23 % of variance of results ($F(2.136) = 20.94$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.24$). The other variables did not contribute to the model.

5 Discussion

The first research question was to establish whether participants' level of achievement for listening and reading comprehension could be described as fulfilling the curricular requirements and Junior Portfolio 'can do' statements. The distribution of scores for the listening task showed that the majority of learners achieved above the mean and that very few had low results. It can thus be concluded that for the skill of listening comprehension learners reached the expected levels of achievement and could understand the gist of simple dialogues and individual words and phrases they had learnt before. The situation appeared to be different for reading comprehension. The results showed that this skill is still less well developed among learners at the age of 10 (see discussion below). Another dimension of their performance that needs to be taken into account is that although Polish learners are used to tasks in which they read comic strips and answer comprehension questions, this task might have caused difficulty because it was an adaptation of an authentic text for native children which assumed natural everyday language. Consequently some of the phrases in the task might have been unfamiliar to learners who are only exposed to phrases offered by their coursebooks, as is the case with Polish learners. By comparison, the Swedish learners who performed the same task and who have a lot of out-of-school exposure to English scored considerably higher, $M = 5.50$; $SD = 1.6$; $N = 145$ (Lindgren and Muñoz, 2012: 10).

The next research question aimed to determine which contextual factors explained language achievements. Although six factors have been included in the first analyses, three of them appeared to have no significant influence, either on the listening or reading scores. They were: out-of school exposure, contact with speakers of English and parents' use of English at work. This finding was contradictory to analysis for the whole international ELLiE sample ($N = 865$) where the same factors appeared to have significant influence on the scores. Exposure at home and parents' use of foreign language at work were strong predictors of children's achievements for both listening and reading tasks (Lindgren and Muñoz, 2012: 15). This discrepancy could be plausibly explained by the lower frequency of those factors in the Polish sample compared with some other participating European countries.

In the Polish context it was the parents' level of education that emerged as the strongest predictor both for listening and reading whereas in the ELLiE sample this was only a predictor for reading (ibid). The significance of parents' education could be attributed to uptake of foreign language study in pursuing tertiary education irrespective of the need to employ this knowledge at work. Tertiary education might highlight the importance of foreign languages in employment. Awareness of this might encourage parents to play a more positive role by helping and monitoring their children's progress or by simply motivating them to learn.

Motivation emerged as a significant predictor of learners' performance in both listening and reading tasks which confirms the results of earlier ELLiE project substudies (Mihaljević Djigunović and Lopriore 2011; Mihaljević Djigunović

2012; Szpotowicz 2012). Whenever considered as a factor, motivation has proved to positively influence language test results.

The third factor which was shown to be a predictor of learners' achievement in listening was the school factor. Further qualitative analyses revealed the characteristics of the two highest achieving schools. In each of the schools a different distinguishing variable was identified. In the highest achieving school D the differentiating factor was the teaching practice and in the second highest achieving school A it was the organization of language provision. They are briefly discussed below.

The highest achieving school was characterized by the consistent high quality of teaching offered at all levels. The analysis of lesson observation transcripts as well as questionnaires and interviews with teachers allowed identification of the unique set of features present in school D. Both in Years 1–3 and in Year 4, when children move to upper-primary and usually change English teachers, the teachers' language competence was at a high level (C1) and they felt comfortable using their English in classroom. Good English was used skillfully to give instructions, elicit language and provide feedback for over half of lesson time in Years 1–3 to 80–90 % in Year 4. As for interaction type in class, both teachers used mainly the teacher-fronted mode combined with pair work and some small group work introduced in Year 4. It was noticeable that both were quite concerned about engaging children in oral interactions and encouraged responses in English.

All seven schools offered well-organized language provision and regular English lessons. Additionally, no excessive breaks in provision were observed. Classrooms were fully equipped and appropriate Ministry-approved coursebooks were available to both learners and teachers. School principals were positive about early start in foreign language learning; English had high status and teachers enjoyed full support and encouragement from the school authorities. Only one organizational variation was observed in which school A divided classes into smaller groups in Year 3. This may have provided more favourable conditions for learning with teachers able to devote more time and attention to individual learners' needs. The data collected in the teacher interview shows that both the teacher and the learners were "pleased with the more comfortable learning conditions this arrangement had created".

It needs to be added that both high achieving schools also had two features in common. They were situated in similar geographic and socio-economic environments: suburbs with residential and rural area inhabitants. Also in terms of teacher provision the conditions were stable—there was only one change of teacher in both schools over the study period.

6 Conclusions

Results from the study should provoke discussion about revision of the syllabus and requirements to use authentic materials including reading matter. Difference between performance on listening and reading tasks may be the simple

consequence of differential development of skills, i.e. reading follows listening comprehension. There may also be the need for greater contact with authentic written material, however simple, when literacy in children's mother tongue is better developed (i.e. around the ages of 9–10). Compared with the Swedish, Dutch and Croatians, Polish learners in the study did not share the easy opportunity for external exposure to English (Lindgren and Muñoz 2012) and therefore could not reap the benefit. Policy makers in Poland should, therefore, address the issue of increasing original language content. Dubbing of broadcast materials removes valuable foreign language exposure, which could be vital, particularly in the context of the few lessons in the timetable.

Results concerning students' motivation are clearly influenced by the teacher's role and school provision. According to the qualitative analysis in this study, the best achieving schools and their teachers possessed a set of distinguishing features. Whilst further studies on teaching effectiveness are needed to formulate a detailed model for good teaching practice, this study suggests that frequent and purposeful classroom interaction and coherent elicitation and reinforcement of formulaic language could be key factors. Another key factor and an important point for consideration by policymakers, school principals and teachers, supported by better results in school A, is the distinct advantage of smaller groups for instruction. The better results in school A may have been the result of dividing classes into smaller groups. In the light of the fact that language learning requires extensive oral and aural practice and interaction, smaller group size would clearly be helpful.

The sample in this study was a convenience sample and therefore the results do not necessarily allow generalization to the whole target-age population. Factors identified, however, are inevitably important. An additional *caveat* could be that tasks used in the study only included common and non-specific features of the curricula from all ELLiE participant countries, so testing did not assess implementation of individual class syllabi which to some extent depended on materials selected by teachers.

In this study the identified factors explain almost 40 % of variance in listening and over 23 % in reading tasks. It is clear that there are yet other factors contributing to the remaining variance. This study was the first assessment of the outcomes of compulsory foreign language learning in Poland and is, therefore, of great importance to future policy, as well as teachers and parents. Further research is vital to assess learning outcomes specifically required by the Polish core curriculum and needs to be conducted on a representative sample for the country.

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Multisensory Structured Learning Approach in Teaching Foreign Languages to Dyslexic Learners

Joanna Nijakowska

Abstract Considerable reluctance of language teachers as regards implementing research-validated approaches, methods and techniques of teaching foreign languages to learners with dyslexia can be observed. Teachers' disinclination and unwillingness to accept and exploit the specific educational approaches and instructional practices whose effectiveness has been verified and confirmed by research is claimed to result from insufficient training with regard to specialized thorough knowledge and understanding of the concepts that are to be successfully converted from research and applied in practice. This paper aims at bridging the research-practice gap with regard to foreign language teaching approaches applied in the dyslexia context. It characterizes the principles of the Multisensory Structured Learning (MSL) as well as reviews and summarizes the findings of the studies in which the effectiveness of the MSL approach in teaching foreign languages to learners with dyslexia has been verified.

1 Introduction

Supporting individuals with dyslexia in their attempts to overcome reading and spelling difficulties, experienced both in their native and foreign language, involves three (at least) diverse perspectives, namely, that of a researcher, teacher-therapist and language teacher. Searching for the best practices in order to enhance the chances of successful literacy acquisition for learners with dyslexia—each of them is predominantly preoccupied with research-based interventions and treatments, special education services and teaching approaches and techniques, respectively.

J. Nijakowska (✉)
Department of Pragmatics, Institute of English, University of Łódź, Łódź, Poland
e-mail: jnijak@wp.pl

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Theoretically, it seems that teachers' choices can be well informed by research findings, providing evidence that either supports or fails to support the effectiveness of specific educational approaches and instructional practices. However, an apparent lack of enthusiasm and relative reluctance of teachers with regard to implementing research-validated educational activities can be observed (Phillips et al. 2008; Ritchey and Goeke 2006), thus forming a gap between research and practice. Similarly, Hurry et al. (2005) highlight a particular difficulty and, at the same time, salience of transforming the educational research into teacher practice, thus making research-based and verified techniques available to teachers. This complex process of transformation consists of several levels and steps, including a national policy and curriculum design to finally end at the level of the classroom. Phillips et al. (2008) suggest that one of the reasons for the mismatch might be that teachers lack awareness as well as specialized thorough knowledge and understanding of the concepts that are to be successfully converted from research and applied in practice. Indeed, one can be truly confused with the massive amount of conflicting research outcomes, competing theories and alternative treatments offered in the study of dyslexia. In light of the above, some reluctance seems justified.

This paper attempts to bridge the research-practice gap with regard to foreign language teaching approaches applied in the dyslexia context. It involves translating and disseminating research findings so that one would not fail to distinguish between the issues that still constitute a matter of intense debate and the facts that have already gained widespread recognition and acceptance in dyslexia research and practice. Thus the specific aim of the present paper is to characterize the principles of the Multisensory Structured Learning (MSL) as well as to review and summarize the findings of the studies in which the effectiveness of the MSL approach in teaching foreign languages to learners with dyslexia has been verified.

2 Principles of the Multisensory Structured Learning Approach

The Multisensory Structured Learning (MSL) approach, advocated and extensively applied in teaching reading and spelling in the native language to learners with dyslexia, has been found equally effective with regard to foreign language instruction (Crombie and Mccoll 2000; Jameson 2000; Miller and Bussman Gillis 2000; Nijakowska 2008). Originally, Gillingham and Stillman devised the multisensory teaching program, based on the pioneering work of Orton. The program became known as the Orton-Gillingham (OG) instructional approach (Gillingham and Stillman 1997) and has since been successfully used to teach reading and spelling to students with literacy learning problems in their native language. Based on the Gillingham and Stillman's approach, Sparks et al. (1991) developed the Multisensory Structured Learning (MSL) approach which is highly recommended for dyslexic foreign language learners.

The fact that learners with dyslexia require the MSL approach in their foreign language study is nowadays widely known and commonly accepted (Ganschow and Sparks 1995, 2000, 2001; Jędrzejowska and Jurek 2003; Johnson 1978; Jurek 2008; Kormos and Smith 2012; Nijakowska 2010; Ott 1997; Schneider and Crombie 2003; Sparks and Ganschow 1993; Sparks et al. 1991, 1998; Thomson and Watkins 1990). Schneider (1999), Szczerbiński (2007), Sparks and Miller (2000), Ritchey and Goeke (2006) enumerate the following features of teaching methods that learners with dyslexia find beneficial—multisensory, direct and explicit (rules do not have to be guessed or inferred by students), systematic, highly structured, sequential, cumulative, synthetic/analytic, phonetic, phonics-driven and, finally, giving sufficient practice and consolidation, and preferably conducted in small groups or individually. The principles of the MSL approach can be successfully applied in teaching the sound and spelling system, vocabulary, morphological rules and grammar structures of a foreign language as well as the skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing (Kormos and Smith 2012).

Simultaneous activation of the auditory, tactile, visual and kinaesthetic pathways, which supports compensation, makes up a basic component of the MSL. Teaching the elements and skills of a foreign language with the help of multisensory methods is realized by the integration of visual, auditory, kinesthetic and tactile stimuli and involves parallel presentation of information coming from various senses. Thus, multisensory teaching of new vocabulary items is based on the constant use of the following: what a letter or a word looks like, how it sounds and how the speech organs and hand feel when producing it. A person with dyslexia learns how to read and spell words by hearing, seeing and pronouncing them, by making models of plasticine, forming them from wooden, sponge or plastic letters; finally, by tracing them on various surfaces, such as paper, carpet, floor, sand and by writing them (Bogdanowicz 2000; Ott 1997). The more of the perceptual channels are open, the greater the possibility of forming associations between the graphic (visual) and phonological aspects of a word as well as its meaning. It seems crucial for dyslexic learners with phonological processing weaknesses which prevent them from successfully encoding the verbally presented information in memory. Multimodal (multisensory) presentation can help counterbalance their phonological processing difficulties (Kormos and Smith 2012). If a stimulus is complex, it activates several receptors and perception of information is realized simultaneously through several sensory channels. Thus, in other words, the information integrated via unaffected routes can lead to the development of language skills. The multimodal perception is usually more advantageous than mono-modal with regard to both the amount of remembered material and the pace of learning. In fact, it is assumed that the more sensory modalities involved in the learning process, the more effective it appears to be (Włodarski 1998). The parallel presentation of linguistic material with the use of as many sensory channels as possible benefits individuals with dyslexia because it makes the learning experience more enjoyable and memorable and in that way facilitates anchoring the information in memory (Kormos and Smith 2012).

One of the most distinctive features of the MSL approach is the direct and explicit presentation of the rule system in a foreign language. This characteristics makes the MSL very different from the communicative language teaching whose principles presume that providing learners with enough amount of relevant input and ample opportunities for communicative practice reassures their ability to infer the language rules and deduce regularities from these foreign language encounters (Kormos and Smith 2012). On the contrary, the MSL assumes direct and explicit familiarizing of dyslexic foreign language learners with the phonological (sound knowledge), orthographic (letter-sound correspondences and spelling rules), morphemic (roots, prefixes, suffixes) as well as syntactic structure of a language. Thus, for example, learners with dyslexia are specifically made aware of the individual phonemes in words and how to relate them to their written representations (graphemes), and they also learn how to sequence them in words (Nijakowska 2006, 2010).

According to the MSL principles, learners with dyslexia require carefully planned (in terms of scope and sequence), direct and explicit instruction, as opposed to implicit and incidental. Phillips et al. (2008) see the backbone of the explicit instruction in the way the teacher participates in the classroom interaction, namely, he/she issues statements and behaves in a way that clarifies the task's demands to students and gives a model of the task outcome that is expected. Thus, defining, modeling and explaining are the most commonly referred to instructional techniques in explicit teaching. In order to successfully complete a task, children with dyslexia require a lot of repetition and practice until they are ready to come up with the answer unaided. Self-dependence is achieved in a step-by-step fashion, beginning with guided practice, through supported practice to independent practice. Importantly, learners get constant support taking the form of scaffolding (verbal prompts, modeling, additional examples), accommodated to individual needs. Last but not least, frequent, immediate, positive and specific feedback characterizes explicit instruction.

As noted by Kormos and Smith (2012), yet another feature that makes the MSL approach different from current foreign language teaching practices is that it takes advantage of simple substitution drills which have largely been perceived by the modern language pedagogies as deprived of any communicative value and hence disqualified from classroom use. However, substitution drills provide dyslexic language learners with models, frames and templates (e.g., sentence frame) which can be easily memorized and then used with minimal changes, which apparently helps the acquisition of phonological, orthographic, syntactic and morphological rule systems of a foreign language.

Following the MSL principles, the effective instruction should also be synthetic/analytic, where dyslexic learners are taught how to break down larger units into their constituent components as well as how to put the parts back in the proper sequence (e.g., segmenting and blending phonological units). Sight words, which do not follow any rule patterns, are taught as whole units. Furthermore, the MSL is structured, which means that it is organized into small units with logical and straightforward presentation and extensive practice in different settings. It is also

sequential—in the course of training we move from the simple and regular patterns to more complex and irregular ones, and cumulative—new information is built on what is already thoroughly integrated. Thus, only a small amount of material is presented at a time, with a full mastery of the content via diversified multisensory techniques (simultaneous saying, seeing, hearing and writing) before advancing to new components. A crucial component of the MSL is repetition and overlearning, employed in order to ensure automaticity as well as to increase memory and rate of access. Teaching process is individualized, it contains an ongoing dynamic assessment whose role is to provide diagnostic information as to learners' progress and needs so that adequate changes concerning, for example, materials or pace of work could be implemented.

As much as the MSL approach proved to be widely valued across educational settings and ages, still Wearmouth and Reid (2008) voice an opinion that, at least in its original version, it seemingly lacks certain elements they consider crucial in learning and teaching. Such aspects as metacognition, learning styles and reasoning abilities should be given more attention, as students with dyslexia quite often insufficiently realize their own thinking and reasoning processes and find it troublesome to control them. Metacognitive strategies help students to plan and monitor their learning processes. Knowing how to learn and being able to reflect on and analyze the process of learning as such, not only its content and final outcome, are the skills that need to be incorporated into the course of training designed to overcome dyslexic difficulties. A teacher's role would also involve the development and reinforcement of the cognitive strategies, such as reading and listening strategies, which learners with dyslexia may find beneficial when, for example, memorizing new linguistic material or inferring information from the input. Kormos and Smith (2012) also suggest that awareness raising with regard to the affective strategies, such as rewarding oneself when completing a task, can aid dyslexic language learners in reducing anxiety and stress they might experience during foreign language study. Different strategies may work differently for particular learners that is why they need to get enough practice and experience in applying the strategies in order to find out which work best for them. A teacher's role is to monitor how efficiently the strategies are used.

Ritchey and Goeke (2006) review literature on the effectiveness of the Orton-Gillingham (OG) and OG-based (MSL) reading instruction programs in contrast to other instructional approaches. The overall conclusion is that OG and OG-based instruction brings about positive effects in terms of word reading, word attack/decoding, spelling and comprehension. Moreover, it proves valid across age groups, settings and populations. However, some studies reported the lack of statistically significant differences favoring any of the analyzed programs or found the OG and OG-based programs inferior in the results they produced to alternative programs. All in all, the small number of studies selected for investigation and their apparent methodological diversity and faults makes the undertaken task of comparing them and generalizing as to their overall effectiveness extremely difficult. Notwithstanding this, the OG and OG-based programs have been widely

accepted and used for five decades, and repeatedly reported as overwhelmingly efficient (also across settings, age groups and languages) by practitioners and teachers.

3 Research on Adaptation of the Multisensory Structured Learning Approach to Teaching Foreign Languages to Learners with Dyslexia

3.1 Transferring the MSL Approach from the Field of Teaching Basic Literacy Skills to Individuals with Dyslexia in Their Native Language into the Field of Foreign Language Teaching

Currently, the emphasis in foreign language instruction has been on the communicative approaches, in which the aspect of inferring meaning from the context is highlighted, while the direct teaching of sound, sound-symbol, morphological and grammatical rule system is de-emphasized. However, there seems to exist limited evidence confirming the success of the natural approaches in teaching foreign languages to students with learning differences such as dyslexia (Ganschow et al. 1998; Ganschow and Sparks 2000; Kormos and Smith 2012; Sparks et al. 1992b). On the other hand, efficient lower-level verbal processing operations (letter identification and word recognition) are claimed to play a crucial role in successful foreign language reading comprehension (Koda 1992). What is more, early direct and explicit instruction in the orthographic (sound-symbol) system of a foreign language as well as increased exposure to print is highly recommended, particularly for learners with relatively weak native language literacy skills (Sparks et al. 2006; Kahn-Horwitz et al. 2006). Still, as maintained by Sparks et al. (1997b), 1998), it is likely to benefit all foreign language learners. Naturally, for literate students, reading is likely to enhance foreign language learning (FLL), which seems in accord with the finding in the native language research concerning the 'Matthew effect' in reading—good readers, unsurprisingly, further improve their reading skills through the sheer activity of reading, whereas poor readers become even poorer (Stanovich 1986; Kahn-Horwitz et al. 2006).

Sparks et al. (1998) hypothesized that since oral native language skills are enhanced by exposure to written language, then, logically, early and frequent presentation of print in a foreign language, combined with listening to and speaking, is potentially profitable for at-risk foreign language learners because it provides a multisensory input. Even though for good native and foreign language learners such an approach may seem a bit unnatural, it is necessary for the students with weak language skills, who are unable to intuitively grasp the knowledge as to how spoken words are composed of smaller segments and represented by letters.

Sparks (Ganschow and Sparks 2000) transferred the OG methodology, a specialized approach to teaching basic literacy skills to individuals with dyslexia in their native language, into the field of foreign language teaching. At that time, neither special needs educators nor foreign language teachers, who, as a matter of fact, were hardly familiar with the approach in question, had considered such a transfer of instructional philosophy and practice across languages feasible.

Adaptation of the multisensory (MSL) methodology to teaching foreign languages to at-risk foreign language learners resulted in improvement of both the oral and written aspects of the student's native language performance as well as foreign language aptitude (on the modern language aptitude test; MLAT) (Ganschow et al. 1998; Ganschow and Sparks 1995; Sparks et al. 1991, 1997). The most desirable option for students with learning differences (dyslexia) would entail the application of the MSL approach to foreign language teaching, with reference to all components of language learning, with special emphasis put on phonology. Additionally, it proves advantageous to employ a foreign language as a language of classroom instruction, with the native language reserved for clarification of areas of special difficulty. Finally, frequent review is a must (Sparks et al. 1991).

The research findings that at-risk foreign language learners experience hindrance expressly with the phonological code of language constitute the instructional rationale (Ganschow et al. 1991; Sparks et al. 1989, 1992a). It has been demonstrated that students with FLL difficulties who receive direct multisensory instruction in the phonology/orthography of a foreign language make significant gains and maintain them over time (Ganschow and Sparks 1995; Sparks et al. 1992b). Nevertheless, despite the undeniable progress in development of the phonological/orthographic competence that at-risk learners make, it is possible that they keep lagging behind good foreign language learners (Sparks et al. 1991, 1997a).

Interestingly, any improvement in the sound and sound-symbol performance as regards the native language is frequently reflected in enhanced foreign language performance. This idea is clearly supported by research outcome, showing that students with stronger native language reading and spelling skills obtain higher grades in foreign language courses and are more verbally proficient in a foreign language (Sparks et al. 1995).

3.2 Studies on the Effectiveness of the MSL Approach in Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language

Sparks et al. (1992b) conducted a preliminary investigation of the effects of the Multisensory Structured Learning (MSL) approach on native and foreign language performance over one year. The pre- and post-test scores on the native language and foreign language aptitude tests of three groups of at-risk high school students, enrolled in special sections of a first-year Spanish course, were compared. Two groups were instructed with the use of the MSL approach, one was taught in both

English (native language) and Spanish (foreign language) (MSL/ES), the other only in Spanish (MSL/S), while the remaining group (NO-MSL) was under the influence of the traditional foreign language teaching methodology. The hypothesis that both the native language phonological skills as well as foreign language aptitude of the students receiving the MSL instruction in a foreign language will improve was supported. However, the two MSL groups differed in the gains they achieved. More precisely, the MSL/ES group made significant progress on all the native language phonological measures and the long and short forms of the modern language aptitude test (MLAT) as well as its subtests. On the other hand, the MSL/S group demonstrated vital attainment only with reference to the long and short forms of the MLAT and not its subtests and did not show any noticeable procurement as far as the native language phonological measures were concerned. Additionally, the MSL/ES group were critically superior in the matter of receptive vocabulary and verbal short-term memory measures. By contrast, the NO-MSL group made no significant gains on the native language and foreign language aptitude measures. It clearly follows from the abovementioned findings that students with weak native language skills find it helpful and beneficial to use their native language in order to support foreign language instruction with respect to phonological and syntactical systems. In addition, it may seem rather unreasonable to expect students with weak phonological processing skills to succeed in FLL, which starts out with listening to a foreign language and assumes students to learn to comprehend and speak a foreign language similar to the way they acquired their native language. Thus, logically, the instruction should rely more on the simultaneous oral (listening and speaking) and written (reading and spelling) practice in learning the sound/symbol system in a foreign language in the cases of dyslexic foreign language learners.

The above study was replicated with the same students (cohort 1) and a new group of students (cohort 2) to further scrutinize the effectiveness of the MSL/ES instruction on native and foreign language performance. Students from cohort 2 made significant gains on the native language phonological test and foreign language aptitude test. Students from cohort 1 were followed over the second year of foreign language instruction in order to more precisely determine the efficacy of the MSL tutoring. The group maintained their initial acquirement on all the native and foreign language aptitude measures over the second year of foreign language study (Sparks and Ganschow 1993). Evidence from these studies suggests that the at-risk foreign language students are able to display and maintain the acquisition in a foreign language as well as improve their foreign language aptitude due to the effect of the direct MSL/ES instruction.

In another study, Ganschow and Sparks (1995) analyzed the results of direct tutoring in foreign language phonology (Spanish) on the native language skills and foreign language aptitude of at-risk foreign language learners. The multisensory approach to teaching phonological/orthographic aspects of a foreign language again resulted in improvement in the native language performance, thus allowing the at-risk foreign language learners to catch up with not-at-risk learners in at least some aspects of the phonological/orthographic measures. Furthermore, foreign

language coaching (multisensory structured language instruction for at-risk learners and traditional for not-at-risk learners) resulted in amelioration, touching on foreign language aptitude as regards both at-risk and not-at-risk learners. It is indicated in this study that foreign language instruction alone is powerful enough to amend one's phonological/orthographic, syntactic and semantic skills as well as rote memory as measured by the MLAT. The odds are that it is indeed the specific instruction in the phonology/orthography that makes the difference for the at-risk foreign language learners, who show no improvement in either foreign language aptitude or in any native language skill after one year of foreign language traditional instruction (without direct and explicit teaching of the sound system of a foreign language) (Sparks et al. 1992b).

Still, despite substantial native language and foreign language aptitude upgrading, the at-risk learners repeatedly and significantly evidence falling behind the not-at-risk students, relevant to foreign language aptitude measured by the MLAT (Ganschow and Sparks 1995). Thus, direct instruction in phonology/orthography, even though apparently beneficial for at-risk learners, tends not to guarantee the equalizing of the scores for the at-risk and not-at-risk students on the foreign language aptitude test.

Sparks et al. (1997a) obtained similar results, consistent with the findings of the previous study (Ganschow and Sparks 1995), with regard to the performance on the native language and foreign language aptitude measures of the at-risk and not-at-risk learners, after two years of foreign language (Spanish) tutoring. Again, the at-risk group underwent multisensory structured language training, while the not-at-risk group received instruction via traditional methodology. Additionally, the experiment aimed at answering the question, whether the two-year multisensory structured study in Spanish phonology/orthography exerted a positive influence on the native language abilities and foreign language aptitude of the at-risk learners. The outcome of the research suggests that both the at-risk and not-at-risk students achieved decent gains in foreign language aptitude over one year of foreign language teaching. Moreover, the at-risk learners managed to maintain their gains over the second year of direct multisensory structured instruction, however, they were unable to increase them, unlike the not-at-risk learners. What follows is that the multisensory structured language coaching again proves particularly salient and efficient for the at-risk individuals; nevertheless, despite explicit training they repeatedly tend to fall behind the not-at-risk students with respect to phonological and orthographic competence.

The benefits of MSL instruction in Spanish as a foreign language were also examined in another study by Sparks et al. (1998). Four groups of high school at-risk and not-at-risk students participated in this study. The at-risk students were assigned to three groups: MSL—multisensory Spanish training in self-contained classrooms, SC—traditional teaching of Spanish, provided in self-contained classrooms, and NSC—traditional tutoring in Spanish, in regular (not self-contained) classes. The at-risk groups varied in terms of both the type of foreign language classroom (self-contained versus not self-contained) and the type of foreign language instruction (MSL versus traditional with instructional

accommodations). Not-at-risk students constituted the fourth group (NAR) and received traditional lessons in Spanish in regular classes, similar to the instruction provided to the NSC group. The three different at-risk groups were compared on the native language, foreign language aptitude, and foreign language oral and written proficiency measures. The performance of the not-at-risk group on the same measures was compared to the three at-risk groups. In light of the previously mentioned research findings, it is unsurprising that the MSL group evidenced significant gains in the foreign language aptitude as measured by the MLAT, while the SC and NSC groups did not. Thus, the proposition of the superiority of MSL for at-risk students over the traditional textbook-based instruction gained clear support. Similarly, the NAR group manifested vital gains on the MLAT. Again, consistently with the outcome of other studies, this time, even though the MSL group improved their scores on the MLAT, they again appeared to be unable to keep pace with the NAR group. It needs stressing that all four groups demonstrated noticeable achievements over time on some native language skills. Still, expectedly, the scores of the at-risk foreign language learners on these measures usually fell behind the scores of the not-at-risk students. The MSL and NAR groups obtained substantially greater gains on the foreign language aptitude and native language tests (reading comprehension, word recognition and pseudo-word reading). In addition, they scored significantly higher on the measure of oral and written foreign language proficiency than SC and NSC groups; intriguingly, no differences relating to this particular measure were indicated between the MSL and NAR groups. Seemingly, such a finding constitutes a strong piece of evidence for the efficacy of the MSL instruction for teaching a foreign language to at-risk foreign language learners. All in all, even though the at-risk students from the SC and NSC groups achieved certain levels of foreign language proficiency, which eventually allowed them to pass the foreign language courses, the learners who received MSL instruction appeared to be more competent in the foreign language than SC and NSC students. Thus, drawing on the abovementioned research findings, a conclusion can be put forward that, apparently, at-risk foreign language (dyslexic) learners are capable of acquiring specific levels of foreign language capacity and that it is most effectively realized when MSL techniques are employed. The application of the MSL techniques comparatively frequently enables foreign language students with dyslexia to attain the levels of foreign language ability commensurate with those reached by the not-at-risk foreign language learners.

3.3 Studies on the Effectiveness of the MSL Approach in Teaching Latin, German, and English as a Foreign Language

Descriptive and empirical studies pertaining to the effectiveness of the MSL approach in teaching a foreign language to at-risk foreign language learners have also been reported in languages other than Spanish. Sparks et al. (1996) report an

attempt they undertook to determine the effect of the study of Latin by means of MSL instruction on the native language skills and foreign language aptitude of LD students. Three groups of foreign language learners were selected for the comparisons: non-LD learners—who were taught Latin with the use of traditional methodology (NLD group), LD students—who received MSL tutoring in Latin (LD-MSL group), and LD individuals—who experienced a study of Latin via traditional method (LD-NO/MSL group). Ostensibly, the findings of this study generally support the conclusions of the previously cited research on students learning Spanish as a foreign language. As expected, the training in Latin enhanced the scores on one or more of the native language phonological measures and foreign language aptitude test of the NLD and LD/MSL groups, but not the LD/NOMSL group. Furthermore, in spite of the fact that the LD-MSL group showed substantial improvements on some of the phonological/orthographic measures, they kept scoring well below the NLD students, who, in addition, were superior to the LD groups as regards the foreign language aptitude test. To sum up, the at-risk foreign language learners' native language faculty and foreign language aptitude can improve with foreign language study. Unfortunately, they are unlikely to be comparable to the language skills of the not-at-risk foreign language learners.

Schneider (1999) successfully adapted the MSL approach to teach German as a foreign language by expanding the native language MSL principles to the training in foreign language phonology/orthography, grammar and vocabulary/morphology. The author referred to her adaptations of the MSL as MSML, which stands for Multisensory Structured Metacognitive Instruction, because she explicitly addressed the development of metacognitive processing skills. Similarly, Downey et al. (2000) demonstrated that Latin classes conducted in accordance with instructional modifications introduced in order to cater to the needs of college students with dyslexia proved successful. The success of the MSL program was also proven for English as a foreign language. Nijakowska's (2008) experiment, in which Polish dyslexic students' English spelling and reading skills were developed through the systematic study of selected grapheme-phoneme relations, spelling patterns and rules with the use of the MSL approach resulted in considerable improvement in the targeted aspects of the foreign language competence. Three groups of learners participated in the study, one experimental—composed of learners with dyslexia and two control groups—with and without dyslexia. Progress was measured by a set of reading and spelling pre- and post-tests. Within- and between-group comparisons concerning the scores on pretests and post-tests were used. After six months of training, significant improvement in the spelling and reading abilities in English was shown in the experimental group, which outperformed both dyslexic and non-dyslexic learners from the control groups. Even though the results are very promising, they must be treated with caution due to the small number of participants and absence of the comparison treatment.

4 Conclusions

The findings of the studies described above yield several implications for teaching foreign languages to students with dyslexia. They support the effectiveness of the MSL approach in the context of foreign language teaching, especially with regard to the phonological and orthographic processing. An accumulating body of evidence indicates that difficulties, whether subtle or overt, experienced by a great majority of poor foreign language learners are of phonological nature (Sparks and Ganschow 1993). Thus, learners with dyslexia, who hardly benefit from methodologies that force them to intuitively discover the phonological structure of a new language, will most probably take advantage of the direct multisensory instruction in the phonology and orthography of the target language.

To benefit learners with dyslexia, more collaboration between special educators and foreign language teachers is advocated. Since native and foreign language skills are interrelated, consequently, weak native language skills, especially phonological, have a natural impact on foreign language learning. Direct multisensory instruction in a foreign language not only substantially improves foreign language proficiency, but also has a potential to increase native language skills (Ganschow and Sparks 1995; Sparks et al. 1992b). Moreover, the improvement in the performance on the sound identification and manipulation tasks, and in the awareness of the spelling choices of students in their native language may have a positive effect on their foreign language skills—it has been shown that students with stronger native language reading and spelling skills achieve higher grades in foreign language courses and are more verbally proficient in a foreign language (Sparks et al. 1995).

The reluctance of foreign language educators to accept the importance of explicit multisensory instruction is, presumably, a natural consequence of their being good language learners themselves (Sparks et al. 1991). Arguably, more attention should be given to acquainting pre-service and in-service teachers of foreign languages with the constitutional nature of dyslexic learning differences in the first place, as well as with the effective teaching methods and the techniques that could be employed while working with students with dyslexia.

The major difference between the MSL approach and current trends in modern foreign language teaching is the need to provide multisensory, explicit and direct presentation of linguistic structures, accompanied by extensive practice (including substitution drills), frequent repetition and overlearning that are necessary to secure progress. In general, several principles, which would also benefit students with no apparent learning differences, regulate the course of organization of the teaching process with regard to learners with dyslexia. Individualization of measures and methods is particularly important due to considerable differentiation as to the type, range and intensity of learning differences. Ranking the complexity of tasks and activities is crucial—after completing elementary, simple exercises, we can move towards more complicated tasks. Appropriate matching of the perplexity of a task to the abilities of a child with dyslexia conditions successful completion

of the assignment. Applying a structured approach is recommended—learning appears in a linear developmental manner, which enables learners to grasp a particular skill before advancing to a subsequent one. A sequential and cumulative approach may help to make the learning process more meaningful and effective. Needless to say, the choice of materials relevant for students' interests as well as employment of diverse and attractive teaching techniques and exercises exerts positive influence on the way the tasks are executed by students (e.g. color-coding, mnemonics). Plenty of reinforcement, repetition and overlearning, which are meant to eventually lead to automaticity, is a must for dyslexic language learners (Deponio et al. 2000; Reid 1998; Thomson and Watkins 1990). Frequent recapitulation is inevitable for learners with dyslexia because they usually find it abnormally troublesome to anchor information in memory, moreover intensive rehearsal invites more complete mastery of a certain part of material before the new information is introduced. The most poorly acquired skills require the most intense practice, realized through multiple diverse activities. Regularity and relatively high frequency of teaching sessions conditions progress—systematic and recurrent practice provides the most welcome results, while long intervals tend to bring about partial or total regress.

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Blending Literature and Foreign Language Learning: Current Approaches

Liliana Piasecka

Abstract The aim of this chapter is to discuss the place of literature in foreign language learning and teaching contexts, and to show reasons of using literary texts for the development of communicative competence, intercultural communicative competence, and for individual as well as social human growth. Although literature and language teaching had been following separate paths, currently a strong tendency emerges of integrating language and literature teaching across proficiency levels. This tendency results from the recognition of the roles that literacy, multiliteracies and multimodality play in the life of humans in the 21st century. Respected bodies such as the Council of Europe or Modern Language Association recommend merging literature and language learning to promote translingual and transcultural competence. Empirical evidence supports the claims that experiential reading of literary texts focuses the learner's attention both on content and form, providing them with rich and meaningful input as well as opportunities for extended output, thus facilitating language learning and language improvement. It also gives access to other cultures and contributes to whole person development. However, if literary texts are to become inseparable from language learning, teachers need to be trained on what texts to use and how to use them to motivate language learners and encourage independent reading. In the chapter, the teaching of language and literature is first reviewed from the historical perspective to show a long-standing rift between language teaching and literature teaching. The case of Poland is discussed on the basis of the author's personal experiences (retrospections) that point to the crucial role of the teacher in this context. Then reasons for including literary texts into foreign language teaching along with benefits resulting from such a combination are presented and suggestions concerning training foreign language teachers to use literary texts are included.

L. Piasecka (✉)
Institute of English, Opole University, Opole, Poland
e-mail: elpia@o2.pl

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1 Introduction

Recent publications concerning the role of literature and literacy in a broadly understood context of foreign language learning and second language acquisition (e.g. Hanauer 2003, 2010; Kramsch and Kramsch 2000; Paesani 2011; Kern and Schultz 2005; Paran 2008; Widdowson 2003) imply a renewed interest in the complex relationships between language and literary study. Literary texts represent collective and individual reality, creatively exploiting a wide range of language forms and functions which are anchored in a specific social, historical, cultural, and geopolitical context. However, for a long time the study of language and the study of literature in foreign language departments have been kept separately (Kramsch and Kramsch 2000). Foreign language students at lower levels of proficiency focused mainly on language learning while higher-level proficiency students were learning literature. Many college and university foreign language departments continue this tradition. Also conferences for English language teaching specialists (e.g. PASE in Poland) provide separate sessions for literature, linguistics and language acquisition. It seems that this way of relating language and literature is deeply rooted in the minds of language learners, teachers, and educational policy makers. Yet, the 21st century has brought changes and challenges that call for a different approach to this relationship. In the globalised world with an increased human mobility rates and almost unlimited access to information sources through the Internet, there is a growing need to understand one's own place in life, the roots of one's identity as well as relations with other people using various languages and living in various cultures. This understanding develops, among other things, through reading various texts, literary texts included. As Widdowson (2003) notes, both corpus linguistic and critical discourse analysis use literary texts as data to show conventional, standard and normal uses of language, thus neglecting "the imaginative and individual exploration of meaning potential that is characteristic of literature" (2003: 89). Consequently, exploration of texts should not be limited to analysing them as having a fixed interpretation (Paesani 2011), but encouraging the individual and unique interaction with them.

Calls for changes in approaches to foreign language teaching in Europe are associated with the work of the Council of Europe and the development of the *Common European Framework of Reference* (2001) which appeals for the integration of language and culture learning. Culture learning encompasses learning literature and learning from literature, and therefore the use of literary texts is implied. Moreover, the assessment of overall reading comprehension at the C2 level involves understanding and critical evaluation of literary and non-literary texts, along with appreciating stylistic variation, as well as implicit and explicit meaning.

In the United States, the report of Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages (2007) recommended replacing traditional foreign language teaching programmes, in which language and literature learning followed separate tracks, with programmes which teach language, literature and culture more holistically, thus developing student's translingual and transcultural

competence—the ability to operate between languages and cultures. Another point raised in the report is the need to train students to reflect on and understand the world and themselves from the perspective of other languages and cultures. The use of literature, film, and other media, apart from challenging student's imaginations, allow them to notice "alternative ways of seeing, feeling, and understanding things" and to learn "critical language awareness, interpretation and translation, historical and political consciousness, social sensibility, and aesthetic perception" (4). These are strong reasons and strong claims for revising approaches to teaching language and literature.

In the following section, the role of literature in language study is presented from a historical perspective.

2 Shifts in Language and Literature Studies in the 20th Century

The idea of learning a foreign language to read literary classics for the sake of intellectual and linguistic growth supported the practices of the Grammar Translation Method (Howatt 1984; Richards and Rodgers 2001). The method was severely criticised for focusing on the skills of reading and writing and neglecting entirely the development of oral skills that appeared to be indispensable for the 19th century citizens. On the one hand, the more resourceful ones turned to business and often had to develop international contacts to increase their income, for which reason they needed to talk to other businessmen. The affluent citizens appreciated the possibilities offered by the technological progress which meant fast and reliable means of transport such as trains and steam ships. They were visiting distant places and meeting more or less familiar cultures, and some were learning foreign languages to gain a deeper insight into the local character. On the other hand, the poor ones were migrating to improve their often deplorable living conditions. To find a place in the new country, they needed to use the local language, primarily in speech. These social changes required a new approach to learning foreign languages, the approach in which the needs of the more and more mobile people could be satisfied. Their needs were not limited to reading the classics of a given culture but they involved the need to talk to people who spoke other languages. However, although defective in terms of providing oral training, the Grammar Translation Method is still used in many foreign language classrooms across the world.

2.1 Literature and Language Teaching in the U.S

In 2000, Kramsch and Kramsch reviewed articles published in the *Modern Language Journal* between 1916 and 1999 from the point of view of the changing

role of literature in teaching foreign languages such as French, German and Spanish. In this period, literature served many purposes and its role shifted from dominant to peripheral. The authors analysed the chapters chronologically because such an approach recognises the influence of historical and social events on using literature in foreign language education. In the U.S. context, they distinguish five stages related to the role of literature in foreign language teaching. The stages are marked by five historical events that were critical to American citizens. Until World War I, literature played a crucial role in teaching foreign languages, but it was used for the aesthetic education of the elite. The War changed this dominance. Actually, the end of World War I marked the beginning of the first stage which meant the departure from the study of literature as such, and from speaking foreign languages. Instead, American educators were more concerned with developing reading skills among large masses of poorly educated immigrant children. This period (1918–1929), then, represents a shift from literature to literacy.

Another event that affected the role of literature is the publication of Coleman report in 1929, which signalled the beginning of the second stage. According to the report, reading in a foreign language should be the aim of instruction and it was no longer tied with literary texts that were used as additional reading materials. At this stage, characterised by the development of social sciences and sciences of education, literature was viewed as social practice and so its teaching focused on "the ideational content of texts, on their social and historical context of production, on abridged and simplified editions of the classics, and on literary translation" (Kramsch and Kramsch 2000: 560). In the years 1929–1945 literature was studied for moral and social education. During the World War II people turned to reading the classics to find temporary comfort and solace. In addition, a growing interest in psychology was used as an argument for teaching literature which allowed the reader to become familiar with the people's ways of thinking and with their culture. In consequence, learning foreign languages was necessary if Americans were to perform their duties "as citizens of the world" (Morrison 1945: 679) who won the war and who had universal responsibilities in international relations. Subsequently, language teaching profession focused its attention on American educational research and teaching practice.

The third phase began when World War II ended and it is connected with another shift, that is a shift from reading to speaking skills that were so well developed by the use of audiolingual method. Oral skills were the basis for developing literacy skills and therefore reading literary texts was postponed to the advanced levels of language proficiency. At lower levels, literary texts were used to entertain learners and to supplement oral drills. The phase spans the time between 1945 and 1957.

The fourth stage is connected with the publication of the National Defence Education Act in 1958, in the time of the arms race and the Cold War, and lasted until 1979. The act supported teaching foreign languages and cultures to serve the needs of national security. In this context, apart from aesthetic pleasure, literature gave students the opportunity to discover eternal truths related to experience of individuals in contact with other individuals as well as the experience of humans

as humans (Hall 1961 in Kramsch and Kramsch 2000). Based on extensive and intensive readings of literary texts, literature was less and less connected with audiolingual teaching of languages. However, in the 1970s literature scholars (e.g. Steiner 1972) proposed to introduce changes concerning the organisation of a literature-based syllabus by using group discussions and the implementation of individualised instruction. Group discussions and written compositions, based on themes and ideas, were to be carried out in the target language. Also, the potential of other artistic forms of expression such as music, painting, film and theatre was appreciated (Hester 1972) because it "sharpened" (Henkle 1971: 448) literary comprehension. Influences of humanistic psychology could be observed both in classroom interaction and in the clarification techniques used by literature teachers (Kramsch 1976).

The fifth stage, spanning the years 1979–1999, started with the report of the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies. The report stressed how important foreign languages are for national security (Perkins 1980), and encouraged improvement in language competencies across all educational levels and in various branches of economy. Reading research flourished, and the aim of reading was to support the development of communicative competence and communicative proficiency. Literature occupied a very special place in this framework. First, it was perceived as authentic text, representing authentic language use that was so important in the development of communicative competence. However, the issue of authenticity became controversial as the debate ensued as to what is authentic: the text, the reader, the reading process, or all (Kramsch 1993; Widdowson 1990). Second, since understanding of foreign cultures was also at stake, literary texts were used to support this understanding. In addition, learners, who came to language classes represented different interests, knowledge and abilities, were trained to interact with literary texts and given space to express their own responses, opinions and interpretations of literature. They were reading to construct their own meanings.

Concluding their review, Kramsch and Kramsch (2000) observe that at the end of the 20th century the publications in the *Modern Language Journal* were devoted mainly to second language acquisition research, focusing on psycho- and sociolinguistic aspects of language learning and referential and metalinguistic functions of language use. Representational and poetic functions of language, so tightly connected with processing literary texts, and the ways in which non-native readers construct text comprehension have been taken out of the general framework of learning foreign languages.

However, the recommendations of the report of Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages (2007), that was caused by another crucial historical event—the terrorist attack of September 11, 2001—already referred to in the introduction, put the teaching of language, literature and culture into a new perspective. The proposed holistic approach that aims at developing translinguistic and transcultural competence, involves the use of various forms of artistic expression, thus preparing language learners to comprehend and to reflect on the present day reality from their own, individual point of view.

2.2 Literature and English Language Teaching in Poland

Poland, a member of the European Union since 2004, has been since following the recommendations of the Council of Europe with respect to teaching foreign languages. However, before becoming EU citizens, and before the fall of communism (1989), Poles were doomed to learning at least one foreign language that is Russian, which they started at the age of 11, in the 5th grade of primary school. An additional obligatory foreign language was taught at secondary schools (Radwanska-Williams and Piasecka 2005). In the 1950s and 1960s it could be English, French, German or Latin, though in the 1970s the choice was wider, as it involved such languages as Italian, Spanish, Hungarian and Swedish (Komorowska 2001). However, the fall of communism brought about changes in the landscape of foreign language teaching in Poland. The learning of Russian was no longer obligatory, and the emphasis shifted to learning other Western European languages, with English as the most frequently taught one.

As regards the place of literature in foreign language teaching in Poland, I would like to illustrate it with my personal retrospections of a learner of English who I was in the days of Cold War and communism.

Retrospection # 1

Time: the turn of the 1960s and 1970s.

Place: a grammar school in an industrial town in Poland.

I am a proud grammar school student and I'm learning two foreign languages. We are using course books for both. For English, it is Smólska and Zawadzka's book *We learn English,* quite different in form and content from the colourful, glossy course books of today. Yet it has some illustrations and black-and-white photographs. It consistently represents the oral approach to language learning, with a strong focus on grammatical structures. We practise them orally, do all sorts of drills, listen to recordings of listening passages and read texts that describe everyday life of an English family in London. We learn about geography, traditions, sights of London, attractions of New York, about a bit of history, and about social issues of the day. The course books for more advanced levels contain excerpts from the classics of English literature. The sections at the end of the books are called "Supplementary readings". I read them all before the school year began as in those days we did not have much access to English books in English. The access we had was through Soviet publishing houses that published English classics, also in abridged versions. This is how I read *Three men in a boat. To say nothing of the dog.* I still have the second edition (1976). Sometimes I can buy an English book in a second-hand bookshop.

Our teacher is great—he speaks English during the lessons, and urges us to speak English too. And he is a great fan of the Beatles. He plays their music to us and we can follow the lyrics that he types for us. I feel I'm successful with English, though I realise how much I have to learn.

As the above shows, the teaching of English in secondary schools in Poland at the beginning of the 1970s was very much under the influence of the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001), as implied by the course books content. The use of literary texts in the classroom was

limited or non-existent, though song lyrics–manifestations of pop-culture–were used if the teacher was interested in pop-music of these days.

Retrospection #2

Time: 1972–1977

Place: English Department at one of Polish Universities

I've become a student of English Philology, which I enjoy very much. We have language classes and literature classes for which we are expected to read a lot of literary texts that are very demanding in linguistic terms and we—the students—are assumed to read them as if we had the native speaker's competence. I shall never forget reading *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* for my literature classes. My reading consisted in finding out unknown words in the dictionary, putting them down in a notebook, and then reading the text again. Since there were many unknown words, we—students living in the same dormitory—divided the text into sections to check the words faster and then read the text.

There is a clear divide between language courses and literature courses.

In the mid-1970s I started working on my M.A. thesis that was about the poetry of e. e. cummings—this was a fascinating time for me because I could read and analyse the poems that were so different from classical poetry. I discovered how language can be used creatively, breaking syntactic rules and using word-formation processes in a new way. I still remember "anyone lived in a pretty how town", "in Just-", "Buffalo Bill's", or "my father moved through dooms of love" with the beautiful phrase reading "septembering arms of year" (1965: 120).

The approach to teaching language and literature at that time was similar to the one described by Kramsch and Kramsch (2000) in the post-war U.S. Literature professors did not seem to care about the linguistic difficulty or length of texts which students were expected to read and then discuss important issues concerning content in class. Literary texts were also placed in the socio-historical context that was helpful in understanding the meanings represented. Although the manner of teaching literature was teacher-centric, literature-minded students could pursue their own interests by choosing themes for their M.A. theses.

Retrospection # 3

Time: the end of 1970s

Place: a grammar school in one of Polish cities

I'm now a qualified teacher of English and I work with adolescents who are very much interested in the English language and culture. I use the course book I know so well from my schooldays, but it has been revised to include communicative situations. Since my learners are so enthusiastic about English and they like doing things outside the course book, I bring limericks to class. We read them together, analyse the form and then the learners try to write their own limericks. They enjoy the activity very much. One day we talk about *Alice in wonderland* and *Through the looking glass*—some of my learners are familiar with the books—and I bring to class a copy of "Jabberwocky" with the explanations by Humpty Dumpty, and the Polish translation by Słomczynski. We read the English text in class, trying to make sense of it and then compare our understanding with Słomczynski's version. A few days later the learners bring me a letter that they wrote to Mr Lewis Carroll, thanking him for writing such an interesting text as "Jabberwocky".

This personal experience suggests that bringing literature into a foreign language classroom is possible and depends both on the teacher's interest and the learners' motivation to engage into literature-based activities.

It seems that combining language and literature teaching is not a common practice either in primary, secondary, or tertiary education despite the arguments that literature brings many benefits for language learners. The reasons for including literary text into language teaching are discussed in the following section.

3 Reasons for Integrating Literature and Language Teaching

Many researchers (e.g. Hanauer 2001; Hall 2005) claim that reading literary texts may be beneficial for language learners. On the one hand, learners engaged in reading such texts focus both on linguistic form and on meaning making thus developing sensitivity to and awareness of various forms of linguistic expression (Hanauer 2001). On the other hand, through literature learner's access to culture connected with a given foreign language may be facilitated (Hall 2005).

An important point is raised by Paran (2008) who argues that teaching foreign languages only for the advancement the learner's carees is unjustified because it ignores the fact that the learner is a person, and not "a language learning machine" (469). As Paran puts it, "literary texts are suitable because language is learnt by human beings, and the interest and love of literature for its various qualities is a human characteristic" (ibid.). In addition, the educational aspect is important as language teaching concerns enriching and expanding the lives of learners and the society which they belong to. Therefore, a holistic approach is proposed in which the learner and the context of learning play a role. The learner is conceived of as a whole person in whose development there is a place for literature and for affect.

Tomlinson (1998) contrasts two ways of reading a literary text, namely studially and experientially. Studial reading aims at almost complete comprehension that is supposed to support learning about language and literature. This kind of reading is strongly connected with L2 reading context. In experiential reading, characteristic of L1 reading contexts, not complete but sufficient comprehension is enough and the readers aim at achieving an aesthetic response (a "lived through experience", Rosenblatt 1994: 1067) that results from the interaction of text information and the reader's experience and knowledge.

Tomlinson explains that there are at least three reasons for aiming at achieving aesthetic responses to literature in the second language. First, experiential reading of literature may provide situations that facilitate language acquisition by exposing learners to rich, comprehensible and meaningful input as the focus is on meaning. This may be a relaxing and motivating experience so the learners may be more willing to invest their energy and attention. In addition, such reading fully engages both cognitive and affective areas, and this engagement is another manifestation of a holistic approach to the learners (Paran 2008).

Second, encouraging reading for aesthetic responses discourages studial reading that is based mostly on lower-level, decoding processes which may demotivate the learners from reading in the L2 at all. Experiential reading involves such processes as making visualisations, connections within the text as well as connections with other forms of art and personal experience, as well as making inferences and predictions. It is also emotionally loaded and affect is an important factor in language learning.

Third, experiential reading encourages extensive reading which the learners may engage in outside the language classroom and also long after they had completed their formal education.

Another reason for bringing literature back into foreign language teaching is its role in the development of literacy because it provides "the necessary textual environment for creating strong readers, readers who have the cognitive strategies and linguistic resources to comprehend and interpret a work as well as an aesthetic object as a complicated act of communication within culture" (Swaffar and Arens 2005: 79). Being literate is not restricted to the skills of reading and writing but it also encompasses creating and interpreting textual meanings through practices that are shaped by social, historical and cultural factors (Kern 2000). Moreover, 21st century literacy is multimodal because meaning making involves an interplay of "image, gesture, gaze, body posture, sound, writing, music, speech, and so on" (Jewitt 2008: 246). This implies that various texts employing written, oral, visual and audiovisual modes can be used in language learning as they provide the learners with aesthetic experiences and meanings that can be interpreted and criticised. In this way learners become "aware of the webs, rather than strands, of meaning in human communication" (Kern 2003: 42).

Paesani (2011), in turn, is concerned with multimodal language use evident in a combination of reading, writing, listening and speaking that is encouraged by placing literary texts in the curriculum. She refers to empirical evidence (Maxim 2006; Stewart and Santiago 2006) supporting the claim that textual thinking, literary analysis, academic literacy and multimodal language use connected with reading a novel in a foreign language course (German) did not interfere with the development of communicative competence. This suggests that extensive reading of literary texts prepares students to carry out advanced-level language tasks (Maxim 2006). Stewart and Santiago (2006) report a study in which two groups of students—one consisting of L1 English learners of Spanish and the other consisting of L1 Spanish learners of English—read a novel about a bicultural person's search for identity. The results show that reading a literary text encouraged the participant's understanding of and sensitivity to complex cultural issues.

All in all, there are many reasons for including literature into second and foreign language teaching. Learners working with literary texts focus both on linguistic form and on meaning, and so they become more aware of language and sensitive to various forms of expression. They are exposed to rich and meaningful input that can facilitate language learning. Within the social context of language use they are able to develop individual and unique interpretations of texts as whole human beings who think and who feel. They develop literacy, analytical, critical

and reflective skills. They can access and understand other cultures as well as their own within a broader multicultural framework. The gains from using literature in language teaching seem to be impressive, but these need to be supported by empirical evidence, which is discussed in the following section.

4 Contribution of Literature to Language Teaching and Learning: Selected Empirical Evidence

Reviewing empirical evidence on the relations between literature and language learning, Paran (2008) observes that although it is not extensive, it is important because of its focus on such issues as language learner's interactions and engagement with the text, the influence of literary texts on classroom interaction as well as language growth benefits that result from the use of literature.

As far as research on interaction in the literature and language classroom is concerned, findings point to two important factors, namely the role of the teacher and the role of the task. Kim (2004) found that students working with literature can simultaneously discuss such things as literal comprehension, personal connections, cross-cultural issues along with interpretation and evaluation, thus producing extended output. There was a lot of authentic interaction that showed emotional engagement and responsiveness. Yang (2001) reported language improvement in classes that discussed shared readings in class when compared to classes that did not engage in this activity. In another study Yang (2002) compared language growth in two classes reading the same science fiction novels. One class followed a teacher-centered approach to the study of literature based on lectures. The other class followed a student-centered approach that involved group-work and whole class discussion, short lectures and writing assignments as well as watching films based on the novels read. While the teacher-centered class showed no language improvement after the course, the student-centered group showed a statistically significant improvement in this respect. Yang's studies demonstrate not only that using literature contributes to language development but also that the teacher's approach and the tasks used are important in this development.

Actually, studies on interaction in literature and language courses imply that often students interact mostly with the teacher since they are expected to answer display questions concerning specific information from the text (Mantero 2002). Donato and Brooks (2004) show that the teacher tends to dominate classroom talk, following the IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) pattern of interaction, thus inhibiting class discussion. In consequence, student responses were short and did not develop the topic, and the teacher took no effort to encourage the students to contribute more extensive responses.

It also appears that discussing a literary text in small groups does not always bring about the "interpretive mode" that involves "the appropriate cultural interpretation of meanings" (Paran 2008). The results of the study by Scott and

Huntington (2007) show that the teacher-guided group produced more interpretive talk than small groups which focused mostly on language and translation talk instead of interpretive talk. This suggests that to switch on the interpretive mode, working in small groups may not be enough because the students may also need the teacher's guidance and support. Moreover, the student's need of guidance and support implies the importance of the task. An open-ended, constructivist task design does not have to lead to more collaboration and exploration of a literary text whereas a behaviourist design, characterised by scaffolding and support, makes learners working in pairs more confident and ready to explore the text more thoroughly (Beatty and Nunan 2004).

The few studies briefly reported above imply that using literary texts in formal educational settings, in the presence of the teacher who can provide necessary support, may result in language improvement. If students are to interact more with other students, engaging in the cultural interpretation of meanings (i.e. interpretive mode), they need teachers who notice their linguistic needs, but who can also direct their attention to making meaning on the basis of the text. They also need teachers who prepare tasks with a clear purpose and who are ready to help them with the task.

There is one more point that cannot be ignored when literature and language learning is concerned, namely what learners and teachers think about literature and language courses. Having reviewed available evidence, Paran (2008) observes that, first, generalisations are difficult to make because of highly variable conditions under which the research had been carried out. From the Australian learners of French point of view, literature contributes to the development of their reading skills only. In addition, they often feel incompetent to discuss it in public and they perceive language and literature study as two separate subjects (Martin and Laurie 1993). Chinese students think that English literature classes are boring because they are based mainly on a monologue instead of a dialogue (Qiping and Shubo 2002) but there are also students who find literature studies rewarding (Davis et al. 1992).

As regards the learners attitudes to incorporating literature into language courses, they seem to be related to the learners personal experiences with literature. Those who have positive experiences and who read literature to respond to it aesthetically, find the experience enjoyable and linguistically beneficial. Paran (2008: 480) stresses the fact that both learners and methodologists give the same arguments for using literature saying that it is enjoyable and deals with "substantial and non-trivial topics", which is very close to what Collie and Slater (1987) see as "fundamental human issues".

The troubling thing about teacher's attitudes is that they usually have not been trained how to use literary texts in the classroom and they often rely on their own intuitions (as evidenced by Retrospection No. 3) and experiences. If their experiences with foreign language literature courses are negative, they may never even consider bringing it to their classrooms. Even if the experiences are positive and teachers decide to work on literary texts, they may use the teaching approach that they themselves had experienced as learners, and which is based on teacher input

(McRae 1996), teacher-centered classroom and teacher-dominated interaction. However, if literature, should become a part of a foreign language curriculum for all the benefits it gives foreign language learners, then the question emerges as to who would teach it and how. This suggests that language teachers need training to be ready to teach literature and language integrated courses. Some views on such training are presented in the following section.

5 Training Language and Literature Teachers

In Poland, foreign language teachers are trained in such educational institutions as teacher training colleges, universities and other schools that have foreign language departments. The trainees participate in a range of courses that develop their language skills, linguistic knowledge, cultural knowledge of the countries in which the languages studied are spoken, and skills necessary to become a qualified teacher. Depending on the kind of school, there are also more or less comprehensive literature courses so the trainees have an opportunity to read and discuss various literary genres. A teacher trainer myself, I have had asked my students—pre-service teacher trainees—how they work on literary texts. Their answers suggest that the approach that dominates in their institution is teacher-centered and based on one-way transmission of knowledge. This is one of the reasons why the trainees are anxious about taking exams in literature. However, many of them reported secondary school experience with English language poetry and prose that made them involved, motivated and positively disposed towards working with literary texts. They further explained that such positive attitudes were due to their teacher's unique personality, their passion for literature. In addition, the tasks designed for them were interesting and enjoyable.

Recognising the benefits of using literary texts in a foreign language classroom, I always include a module on teaching literature into my courses. To convince students that it is possible to use literary texts during a lesson, I use activities based on poetry, for example, matching half-lines of poems and putting them into a logical sequence (Piasecka, in press) or jigsaw reading of longer texts such as short stories. The trainees do the activities and then share their opinions and experiences during post-task discussions. Generally, they find the tasks involving, enjoyable and appropriate for using in foreign language teaching across various proficiency levels. The prospective teachers need to realise that reading literature may be rewarding and enjoyable and, just like in the native language, it can be done at any age, provided the texts are suitable for the learner's cognitive, affective and linguistic abilities.

The reasons for including literature into language teaching suggest that teacher trainees should, first of all, practise reading texts experientially as this would allow them to develop confidence necessary for guiding their learners in meaning-making activities to achieve an aesthetic response. Second, the trainees should be aware of a wide range of literary genres from which they could select appropriate

texts, for example nursery rhymes, fairy tales and picture books for younger learners, literature for younger and older adolescents, interesting poems, short stories and longer forms for adults. Third, the trainees would have to learn how to design tasks that make the learners active, focused, attentive and willing to share their opinions and interpretations with other learners.

Reading and discussing literary texts, for example poetry, can contribute to developing intercultural competence as well as enhanced awareness both of native and other cultures. Niżegorodcew (2011, 2012) used Miłosz's poems translated into English in a workshop for teacher trainees at Vilnius University. The workshop was a part of a larger European project aiming at the development of intercultural competence. Niżegorodcew observes that working on poems through the medium of English as a lingua franca places numerous demands on the instructors. First of all, they should be aware of the role that the participant's linguistic and general knowledge play in the process of text interpretation. However, experiencing different cultures through reading their poetry, though linguistically and conceptually demanding, is a valuable way of developing intercultural competence.

Pre-service teachers who appreciate literature as an exquisite personal experience, a linguistic adventure and a window on other cultures and who would like to incorporate it into their teaching should have an opportunity to attend courses that may help them to do this in attractive and effective ways.

6 Conclusions

Throughout the chapter, I have argued for blending language and literature teaching, despite the deeply rooted tradition of keeping the two apart. To use literary texts for the benefit of foreign language learners, it is necessary to change the approach from the teacher-centered transmission of a fixed interpretation to a more learner-centered experiential reading that encourages personal interpretation and aesthetic experience. Foreign language learners are, first of all, human beings who experience the complex world both socially and individually. Literary texts are not only situated in a specific socio-historical and personal context of their authors but, representing a unique view of reality, they also evoke unique interpretations of reality by the receivers of the text, driven by text information and personal knowledge and experiences.

In addition, reading literary texts to construct their meaning, the learners develop critical thinking, awareness of language and form as well as sensitivity to various forms of expression in a rich textual context. Besides, comprehending and interpreting authentic texts may be an enjoyable and motivating activity, provided the learners are given space to discuss and share their interpretations. By engaging in meaning making activities, the learners also develop their literacy skills, intercultural understanding, and appreciation of literature.

Not all foreign language teachers are enthusiastic about bringing literature into the classroom while those who are enthusiastic, do it in their own ways. Yet those who are not confident enough to implement literary texts into their teaching should have opportunities to learn how to do it. One possibility is to offer language and literature teaching courses that would show the participants how literary texts could be used. The design of such a course could be a joint venture by language and literature teachers, thus enhancing language teacher's recognition of what literature offers, and making literature teachers more aware of the language and the unique that refers both to the texts and to their interpretation.

The richness and the easy access to a variety of literary texts through the Internet makes their use possible at any age and any language proficiency level, and has much to offer both to the learners and to the teachers.

We never stop learning, do we?

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The Significance of Interrogatives in Developing Interactive Skills

Jerzy Zybert

Abstract Language learners' lack of the skill to form questions can be a serious source of frustration. Their awareness of this deficiency not only impinges on their self-esteem but also negatively affects their conversational fluency and effectiveness. The present chapter argues for the need of empowering learners through developing this particular skill. It also postulates that its early development enhances learners' communication skills and helps them to communicate successfully. Consequently, interrogatives are regarded as an important concern in language teaching.

1 Introduction

There are learners and also relatively advanced non-native users of English who are concerned only about successful communication and who do not care much about accuracy in performance. They are characteristically extraverted, with high levels self-esteem and risk-taking. However, there are also many who are characteristically their opposites: rather unsure of themselves but ambitious; they are also low risk-takers with regard to their performance in a foreign language. My own observation and personal contact with the last type of FL users indicate that their apprehension and inhibition stem predominantly from their inability to ask questions, a shortcoming of which they are well aware and admit readily. Thus it is of paramount importance that all language learners should develop interrogative skills promptly.

Asking various questions is one of many verbal communicative activities necessarily and routinely performed on a daily basis. People ask questions to

J. Zybert (✉)
University of Social Sciences, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: j.zybert@uw.edu.pl

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obtain clarification on what is incomprehensible, obscure, vague, or ambiguous to them. Questions allow for making modifications in response to findings or suggestions; they trigger conversation, help maintain interaction between interlocutors and foster negotiation of meaning, whether it is intended or hidden. Some people ask more questions than others and little children ask questions incessantly. Scott and Ytreberg (1990: 1) have noted that young learners characteristically "ask questions all the time"; also adults in their speech addressed to children (even to babies) very often ask questions, even if they are no more than rhetorical (cf. Zybert 2012: 8). The intrinsic urge to ask questions stems from the natural human need to satisfy curiosity, to explore reality, to fill in gaps in one's current knowledge or wisdom, to cover ignorance and just to be a better, fuller person.[1] Moreover, this interrogative orientation also demonstrates a desire to safeguard one's own security. Therefore, asking questions must be regarded as a natural and vital necessity that is characteristic of the human being.

Evidently, any learning requires understanding of what is being learned. If we do not understand, it is imperative that we obtain adequate explanation or relevant information or instruction; it follows that in order to obtain enlightenment we *have to ask questions*. In consequence, an inquisitive person becomes knowledgeable, which also means that the more one knows, the more powerful one is. In consequence, questions (particularly the "referential" ones) are indispensable for the development of human cognitive potential and for the individual's self-realization.

It is taken for granted that from the didactic point of view, questions play a very important part in the growth of interpersonal linguistic abilities. Skillfully and correctly constructed interrogatives and the confidence with which foreign language users dare pose them enhance interaction on the one hand and foster self-esteem and learner autonomy, on the other. Learners should always be encouraged to ask questions since they actually function as language learning strategies and also promote self-regulation. It is worth adding that language learning strategies and self-regulation are recently considered to be components of strategic learning.

For the reasons mentioned above it should be obvious that the ability to ask questions is highly important for learners of English; thus I postulate that they should be taught them at the early stages of learning the language.

2 Taxonomy of Questions

Questions can be classified according to various criteria, e.g.: grammatical form, aim, skills. There are simple **yes/no questions** (called **general questions**) and **wh-questions** (called **particular** or **special questions**). Nuttal has presented a more detailed classification (2005: 184–185); she distinguishes yes/no questions,

[1] It seems relevant to recall that the medieval French philosopher Pierre Abélard (12th century) said that it is frequent and diligent questioning that is the key to all wisdom.

alternative questions, wh- questions (who, what which, when, where), and how/why questions.

A **yes/no question** is formed by placing the auxiliary verb in the initial position before the subject; such a question requests a short answer which verifies or falsifies the interrogation and which echoes the auxiliary verb used in the question. An **alternative question** is formed in the same fashion as the former type but requires indicating the correct option among those (usually two) included in the question (*this or that?*). The remaining types of question [i.e., **wh- questions (who, what which, when, where)** and **how/why questions**] request new information and thus often require answers in complete sentences. They require introducing an auxiliary after the interrogative pronoun, unless it functions as the subject of the question.

Interrogatives are also divided into **display questions** (requesting information already known) or **referential questions** (seeking new information). Most questions asked in language classrooms are comprehension or confirmation checks. They do have some didactic value but it seems that they are frequently used just to juggle with information—this is certainly true of display questions. Questions are sometimes also categorized as **global**, referring to the overall understanding of a proposition, and **local**, focusing on details. What is difficult for learners of English is the grammatical form of questions (their syntactic structure).

Nuttall (2006: 188–189) has also offered a further classification of questions. She distinguishes six types based on the skills that they require of the addressee:

1. Questions of literal comprehension
2. Questions of involving reorganization or reinterpretation
3. Questions of inference
4. Questions of evaluation
5. Questions of personal response
6. Questions concerned with how writers say what they mean.

It needs to be noted that these are questions asked by the teacher when he is probing students' comprehension of a text, a situation, or an event.

3 The Place of Questions in the Learner's Communicative Competence

Apart from the recognition of the crucial role of questions in communication, the appeal for an early development of the interrogative skill in language learners is also dictated by my conviction (supported by the results of the research discussed below) that this skill strengthens learners' self-confidence and self-esteem; high levels of these affective factors indisputably reduce students' language speaking anxiety and encourage them to participate in discourse. Apart from enhancing one's speaking skill, this simultaneously increases learners' motivation for

language learning, which determines the development of listening and reading comprehension skills and communicative competence in general. Given the cognitive value of questions their use in the classroom is invaluable as they help to clarify possible misunderstandings or ambiguities and pose a challenge to learners' language abilities.

To support the above contention it is worth recalling that listening (just like reading) is viewed as a **top-down** or **bottom-up process**. Top-down (or knowledge-based) processing occurs when the learner activates his existing knowledge and builds up expectations about the information contained in the text that he hears/reads; meanwhile, the listener/reader forms a general global view of what he hears/reads. In bottom-up (or text-based) processing the learner first decodes linguistic input and then tackles it against his expectations; he focuses on details (e.g., on individual words) and on the input when he combines the details into a whole. To support the line of reasoning that exposure to and mastery of interrogatives are conducive to the overall development of interactive skills it is worth referring to the study by Tsui and Fullilove (1998) who investigated Chinese students' listening performance in relation to their top-down or bottom-up information processing. Their findings clearly show that the latter form of processing is definitely of greater significance than the former. This suggests that *wh-* questions, i.e., "local" ones, which refer to details, are pedagogically (cognitively) more valuable than *yes/no* questions; consequently, it is assumed here that questions (particularly the "referential" ones) aid the development of human cognitive potential (or are rather indispensable for it).

Considerations concerning the nature of the inquisitive character of a human being do not quite pertain to the issue of foreign language learning and teaching. However, given the high status and the frequent occurrence of questions in the communication process, particularly in face-to-face (also in reader-to-text) situations, it appears rather peculiar that in foreign language teaching relatively little heed is given to the issue of developing interrogative skills in language learners, and this observation applies particularly to teaching learners of English how to ask questions. Interrogative constructions in English are generally found to be very hard to learn, especially by those whose native languages are typologically distant. Admittedly, English questions, particularly the *yes/no* questions, can often be posed in the indicative construction and are, then, usually well comprehended on condition that they are produced with proper intonation (on a rising tone). Nevertheless, learners' interactive attempts at forming syntactically correct interrogatives (especially other than *yes/no* ones) can quite often lead to misunderstanding or even to communication breakdowns. Learners who have problems in constructing the forms admit that this inability discourages them from speaking, which, as a result, makes them withdraw from conversations.

In the light of the above remarks it seems important to emphasize that question-making is, in fact, often under-taught in the language classroom. This is admitted by 87 % teachers of English (out of the sample of 126 investigated for this chapter). This is remarkable, especially because teachers expect that their students master this skill. On the other hand, students themselves expect that they should be

able to produce questions which unmistakably convey their intended meanings. Moreover, noticing the malformations of their questions raises the affective filter in them (cf. Krashen 1982): students fear they may appear funny or uneducated in the opinion of more competent learners/users. This fear is particularly strong when learners worry that their social image (face) or position can be shattered or stigmatized. In other words, the concern about the appropriacy and/or grammatical well-formedness of their questions demotivates them so that they lose their former willingness to study the language altogether. Conversely, once students learn how to construct various types of question, they become more confident about their speaking skills, strengthen their self-esteem, manage to curb language speaking anxiety, and engage in conversations more willingly.

Similarly to the philosophies that underlie certain teaching methods, there is the postulate that teaching interrogatives rests on the aforementioned observation that asking questions serves a natural human need for satisfying one's curiosity and obtaining required information. This reflection alludes directly to Maslow's theory of basic human needs and, thus, supports the present appeal for paying appropriate attention to teaching interrogatives. Consequently, the rationale for teaching interrogatives right from the start, i.e., at the beginner stages, stems from a number of facts and convictions.

First, as documented in L1 acquisition studies, particularly on child directed speech, there is substantial evidence that it is questions (and imperatives) that dominate in caregiver talk. It seems that caregivers intuitively pose great numbers of questions—they experience the fact that questions not only establish and sustain a phatic relationship with the child but also engage it in interaction. From the communicative point of view the basic functions of this kind of input are to facilitate comprehension and to direct attention; this is particularly visible in caregivers' use of verbal reflective questions (i.e., those repeating or paraphrasing the child's previous question (Snow 1986). Apart from this, however, early and frequent exposure to interrogatives provides substantial data in the process of hypothesis testing.

Likewise, it is the communicative needs of L2 learners, particularly of adults, that call for the skill of question-asking. For communication to be successful personal interaction is normally required and involved. Learners admit that they are frequently aware of the errors that they make in forming questions and that they then feel highly embarrassed. The resulting apprehension affects communication—in a stressful situation people begin to focus on form to the detriment of content and fluency, which makes things still worse: both interlocutors feel ill-at-ease in such situations.

Next, if interrogatives are not practiced early, there is a serious danger of fossilization of ungrammatical forms that are produced by learners. In learning English as a foreign/second language actual acquisition of interrogatives proceeds in a similar sequence of structures that is observed and documented in L1 acquisition. The earliest structure, i.e., the affirmative with the rising tone, e.g., **You like it*?, **You see*? are typically retained in the learner's interlanguage system, particularly in naturalistic language learning where errors are normally not

corrected or treated. Advanced and even very proficient learners frequently do not distinguish between direct and indirect or reported questions and produce structures like, e.g., **Can you tell me what time is it*? or **She asked me why did you do it.* Learners themselves often notice this kind of blunder and openly admit that their awareness of such errors is highly embarrassing and stressful for them.

4 The Role of Questions in Language Learning

Foreign language teachers typically ask a lot of questions. They do so to learn what is going on in their students' minds and to check how well they understand the learning context. For example, in a reading lesson questions are "the means directing attention to the text. So students should refer to the text when they reply" (Nutall 1998: 182). More importantly, however, questions provoke learners to respond to them—they trigger dialogues and conversations, no matter who poses them. Therefore, their potential for developing communicative competence should be fully acknowledged and taken advantage of. Given the cognitive value of questions, their use in the classroom is invaluable as they help to clarify possible misunderstandings or ambiguities and pose a challenge to learners' language abilities.

Apart from the pedagogical value of questions, the very exposure to their frequent occurrence provides input with regard to their form. Learners, if involved in what is going on in the classroom, must notice the variety of forms. If we accept the claim that noticed input becomes uptake for mental processing, we can postulate that it is not only learners' conscious attention to form that is involved in explicit teaching; hopefully, there are also good chances that the learning of questions is simultaneously incidental as learners may naturally be interested in the flow of information that is driven and sustained by questions and answers to them.

In language classrooms most questions are asked by teachers; however it is students who need practice in formulating them so teachers should provide plenty of opportunity for such practice and train them in forming and using them.

5 Problems with Learning Questions

There is no denying that questions are not easy to master even in acquisition-rich environments. Similarly to L1 development L2 learners also go through stages in mastering skillful usage.

Teaching practice proves that English *yes/no* questions which employ a copula verb are relatively easy to learn. This can be accounted for by the fact that the transformation from corresponding affirmative constructions requires that the very same verb only be moved to the clause-initial position to arrive at the interrogative

construction. This position of the verb makes it perceptually more salient than the remaining elements of clause structure; moreover, in formal language learning settings the copula is typically used (especially when spoken to beginners) in its full form. It can also be argued that the input itself that learners are exposed to provides substantial information on copula movement as interrogatives are paired with indicatives. Due to both its position and its pronunciation, the verb is relatively easy for the learner to perceive. In consequence, all this, with great probability, has a significant bearing on forming the correct rule and on its relatively prompt internalization in the learner's early interlanguage:

She is a student. She is happy.
Is she a student? Is she happy?

Yes/no questions with main verbs are obviously more complex and thus more difficult; they require introducing an auxiliary verb that is not present in corresponding indicative constructions. The learner has nothing to 'hang on' in forming this sort of question. In early attempts to form them he makes reference to the above type assuming they are formed analogously. The required auxiliary verb seems alien and unnecessary:

*They like dogs. *Like they dogs?*
*They go home. *Go they home?*

Wh- and *relative* questions are still more complex than *yes/no* questions; this, naturally, makes learning them difficult. Learners get confused when they tackle the following forms:

**Why you are happy?*

The wh- element may function as the subject of a clause (What makes you sad?)

**What does make you sad?*

Even advanced students ask questions such as

Do you know where is it?

This kind of error stems from the learner's trivialized assumption that the *wh-*element used in the clause-initial position always signals a question; hence, he automatically extends this hypothesis to the type of interrogatives quoted above where the rule does not apply. It is also worth noting that to some extent L2 learning proceeds similarly to L1 acquisition. Studies on language development of children show that there is a stage when they also produce inaccurate structures similar to those made by EFL learners. This fact might suggest that the learners' interlanguage stage corresponds to the children's developmental stage. The two groups differ, however, in that some EFL learners fossilize the erroneous forms, while they are natural and only transitory in child language. Although questions (and commands) prevail in caregiver talk, studies show that children's first utterances are mostly simple declaratives even though they amount to only 25 % of all caretakers' utterances (e.g., Newport et al. 1977). Children are not able even

to imitate interrogative constructions before they acquire the inversion rule for *wh*-questions; in an elicitation imitation task (O'Grady and Dobrovolsky 1987: 307) a child's typical response to

- *What have you seen?* (model)

will be:

- *What you have seen?* (child's imitation).

Probably also the well-known case of Genie suggests that acquisition of syntactic structures poses problems in post-pubertal language learning. She acquired sufficient vocabulary relatively fast but her syntax, including interrogatives, showed serious deficits (Curtiss 1977).

On the ground of the studies into adult-to-child speech numerous suggestions have been made to include various features of adult-to-child speech in the input to FL learners. Since it is evident that interrogative constructions are difficult to master even for children acquiring L1 I strongly recommend that L2 learners should be both exposed to and asked as many questions and as frequently as possible.

Developing students' "interrogative competence", i.e., the ability to correctly form intended questions is of paramount importance since their perceived skill in forming questions increases their self-confidence and self-esteem. This, in turn, enhances their motivation for language learning and encourages them to engage in verbal interaction with other language users, lowering or even doing away with language anxiety. As is well known, a lack of trust in one's interactive skill is one of the causes of anxiety, which inhibits learners and kills their willingness to speak a FL, even in non-threatening situations. Thus, the ability to interrogate is an indispensable skill that determines successful discourse.

Asking questions is one, but highly important, means of communication: it, moreover, fosters language learning. Interrogating enables learners to make requests for clarifying the meanings of unknown words and dubious or ambiguous phrases and sentences, which contributes to their understanding, remembering, and, ultimately, using productively. Apart from utilizing questions for clarification purposes, they also serve language learners to verify their own output in interactive situations.

Questions asked in the classroom (or out of it) also serve as feedback to learners. If we accept the claim that in language learning (whether L1 or L2) children or adults form hypotheses about language forms then the questions posed by others in the presence of language learners contain valuable input for them.

It needs to be emphasized that apart from learner ability to form appropriate and syntactically correct questions, students should also understand the questions that they are exposed to. The very exposure to questions undoubtedly has a learning value, but their significance lies in that they also have a cognitive value. This is particularly conspicuous in developing other language skills, especially for listening and reading comprehension. Teacher's questions to students can be of varied cognitive weight or difficulty, which requires students' greater or lesser

mental effort both to understand and to answer them. The level of difficulty of a question determines the students' responses. Mere observation of teacher-student interaction shows that the less syntactically complex a question is the simpler and shorter the student's answer is. This indicates that the teacher's discretion to pose various types of question should be exercised with caution with regard to the level of difficulty of his questions.

6 Research

The recognition of the value of the skill of asking questions provokes the question of how to help learners to counter their frustration with regard to their interrogative incompetence. I have conducted research intended to provide evidence for the claim that early practice in forming interrogatives is effective. This was based on the contention that questions can be taught quite effortlessly if frequent training and rational coaching is provided in the classroom. Moreover, my personal experience in teaching English to both young and adult beginning learners of English proved that early practice in forming interrogatives is fruitful. In order to confirm this and provide evidence an experiment was conducted.

The subjects that were involved in the experiment included 421 school learners. The students were at the pre-intermediate (B1) level, and were divided into three groups, each of approximately equal number: two experimental and one control. The experiment aimed at showing how practice in forming interrogatives affects actual learning of these structures. The practice itself consisted in students' responding to the teacher's prompts which were rather simple sentences. Apart from subjects and predicates, the grammatical structure of these sentences varied with regard to the inclusion of objects, complements, and adverbials. The experiment was conducted regularly as a classroom activity by 14 teachers who agreed voluntarily to participate in the experiment.

The experimental group number 1 (138 students) practised forming questions only orally; the students were expected to respond to auditory (orally given) stimuli; group 2 (140 students) responded to visual stimuli (provided in print) in writing, and the control group (number 3) (143 students) was not given any particular or additional practice in producing questions.

For group 1: teachers played recorded sentences and nominated individual students at random asking them to respond, first by forming a yes/no question and next forming a wh- question to the prompt given by the teacher; for example (teacher's prompts—student's expected response):

T We like apples.
S Do we like apples?
T What.
S What do we like?
T Who.
S Who likes apples?

T The girl likes dolls.
S Does the girl like dolls?
T What.
S What does the girl like?
T John went to the cinema yesterday.
S Did John go to the cinema yesterday?
T Who.
S Who went to the cinema yesterday?
T Where.
S Where did John go yesterday?
T When.
S When did John go to the cinema?
T There are some pictures on the wall.
S Are there any pictures on the wall?
T What.
S What is there on the wall?

The students were requested to provide full-sentence answers. At the beginning their tasks were facilitated by expanding the prompt; e.g., in the second example the prompts were: "where, yesterday"; "when, cinema", and the responses were requested in complete sentences; with time, however, when the students gained confidence the prompts were simple, as they are in the examples above. To vary these activities individual students were asked to provide prompts to other students they selected.

Students in group 2 received the same prompts but these were provided in written form: on flashcards, on slips, or were written on the board by the teacher or a student. Practice varied: the nominated students produced questions orally from the presented prompts, or all wrote them in their notebooks, or one wrote on the board. In oral practice individuals were given an opportunity to provide a prompt of their own choice. All this introduced an element of fun and prevented monotony. Actually, all the teachers who conducted practice this way reported that the procedure was highly involving and that even the weaker students enjoyed it.

After three months of practice a written test was administered to students in all three groups. They were requested to transform thirty sentences into as many questions about their particular elements as they were able to. The sentences ranged from simple to fully blown ones. In order to let the students focus on the task and facilitate it the sentences were only given in the Present and Past Tenses (both simple and progressive). Some examples:

The plane was landing (subject + predicate).
Your plan sounds fine (subject + predicate + subject complement).
Soldiers wear green uniforms (subject + predicate + direct object).
Alice teaches me English (subject + predicate + indirect object + direct object).
They looked at Tom (subject + predicate + prepositional object).

We find the test difficult (subject + predicate + direct object + object compliment).
He put a book on the desk (subject + predicate + direct object + predicator compliment).
There were twenty pupils in the classroom (existential clause + adjunct of place).

The results of the test proved that the kind of practice conducted with the experimental groups was highly effective. The scores obtained by the students in these groups definitely surpassed those in the control group. A detailed quantitative analysis demonstrated that the best progress was noted in experimental group 2 who scored 96 %, whereas group 1 scored 83 %. For comparison, the control group scored only 49 % of the possible points. The difference between the results of two experimental groups is not very surprising; the advantage of group 2 is attributed to the fact that their three-month practice was conducted in the same mode as in the final test. This clearly suggests that classroom practice in developing interrogative competence should be conducted as in the experiment. In spite of the results, this is however, rather impractical because it requires quite a lot of the teacher's time and effort in preparing appropriate materials and then analyzing the students' performance. Thus it is more practical to pose tasks ad hoc on the spur of the moment in the course of a lesson orally. This has two advantages: one is that all students are exposed to the task and the other, that it occurs incidentally, which attracts students' attention and diverts from routine.

7 Conclusions

The teaching/learning procedure described above resembles the regular drilling that is typical of the audio-lingual method. Yet, despite this seeming similarity, it should not be regarded as mechanical habit setting. In fact, students responding to prompts receive noticeable input which they make use of in their attempts at forming interrogatives—thus they test their hypotheses and, obtaining immediate feedback, they have opportunity to correct them on the spot.

The results obtained by group 2 students confirm the very well known fact that involving more senses (seeing and hearing) plus actual performing modes (speaking and writing) is more beneficial for learning than is employing only one sense (hearing) and one mode as practised by students in group 1. The control group was apparently at a disadvantage as it was deprived of any practice and the students were left to rely on their own cognitive (inductive) capabilities. To conclude it seems clear that classroom interaction should abound in interrogatives.

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It's All in Teachers' Hands': The English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey from a Polish Perspective

Ewa Waniek-Klimczak

Abstract This paper aims to overview the main findings from a European-wide on-line survey of English pronunciation teaching practices (English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey—EPTiES) for Polish and European respondents. The European context provided by the EPTiES is used as the background for the discussion of pronunciation teaching priorities and practices in Poland as seen through the teachers' eyes. The data from Polish respondents are summarised for major characteristics and compared to the answers from other respondents from around Europe and the results reported in earlier studies conducted in Poland. The focus is on teachers, their views and practices in pronunciation teaching, the training they received, their attitudes towards pronunciation teaching and, finally, their beliefs concerning their learners' aims and preferences in pronunciation learning. The aim is to explore the specificity of the Polish context for English pronunciation teaching in Europe, with similarities and differences highlighted and discussed in the course of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. The ultimate goal is to show that only by investigating the attitudes and practices of language teachers can we hope to improve the quality of pronunciation teaching; as it is all in teachers' hands, their training, attitudes and beliefs are crucial. And it is the training that requires most attention, as Polish teachers of English are well educated in their own pronunciation, but not in pronunciation teaching, which is virtually absent from teacher training they received.

1 Introduction

Pronunciation has long enjoyed a special, if a somewhat dubious status in the English teaching practice: on the one hand, it has been recognised as an important aspect of spoken language, obviously, one might want to add, but on the other

E. Waniek-Klimczak (✉)
University of Łódź, Łódź, Poland
e-mail: ewaklim@uni.lodz.pl

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hand all doubts concerning the choice of the model and the identity issues have made it only a potentially important language aspect, largely ignored in the teaching practice. Without going back to long-forgotten days with the focus on accuracy, overt prestige and the need to sound as native-like as possible, one needs to realise that a clear preference for communication, with the aim for pronunciation teaching specified as 'comfortable intelligibility' (Kenworthy 1987) ruins the idea of treating pronunciation as an element of a system parallel to the grammar of the language. While it has been possible to keep the myth of a standard, ideal grammar for learners of English around the world, it has not been possible to do so with pronunciation. Faced with variability, learners need to choose the model they want to imitate; later on, however, they are either told or realise on their own that their native accents in English are equally good (as long as they can communicate and do not have other linguistic or social needs). This complex context makes pronunciation teaching a particularly difficult task. It is no wonder then that teachers and researchers want to learn more about the needs and attitudes of their learners.

In the Polish context, questionnaire studies conducted among university students were the first to explore the attitudes and needs of learners with reference to the choice of the target variety, the role of the model accent and the aims in pronunciation learning (Waniek-Klimczak 2002; Sobkowiak 2002; Janicka et al. 2005; Waniek-Klimczak and Klimczak 2005). Interestingly, although the majority of these studies were conducted among English majors (with Waniek-Klimczak and Klimczak 2005 comparing English and non-English majors), native-like pronunciation was mentioned as a clear priority only in Janicka et al. (2005). Other studies suggest that although pronunciation is believed to be important, it is its use for communication, fluency and confidence in speech that have been most often mentioned as major aims in pronunciation learning. While the aims of pronunciation instruction and the attitudes of English majors towards their own pronunciation practice may be of interest, it is the effect of their training and the instruction regarding pronunciation teaching they received in the teaching-training programmes that seems of a particular interest from the perspective of teacher practice and potential modification of teacher training programmes. Consequently, rather than concentrating on the aims and personal preferences of the future teachers, the study presented here concentrates on the experience, attitudes and practices of fully qualified teachers, whose views and education may have a decisive impact on the way in which they treat pronunciation in their teaching.

The project whose results are summarised here originated in the course of discussions held during the conferences organised under the Accents heading in Łódź, Poland (2007–2009) and became a reality during the first English Pronunciation Issue and Practices conference organised in Chambery, France, in 2009. A group of researchers who met during those conferences and discussed pronunciation teaching decided that they wanted to learn more about the actual practice of what tends to be discussed on the basis of theoretical assumptions or before-mentioned studies of indirect relevance to the teaching practice. The discussions led to the formulations of key questions put into an on-line questionnaire

designed in its final form by Alice Henderson of the Université de Savoie in Chambery. Interestingly, the project was put to life without any external funding (i.e. outside the universities where conferences where held, the University of Łódź and the Université de Savoie), proving that when there is will there is a way—our shared interest and passions seemed enough to get started so that we could get evidence on which to build in the future. The results of the survey first available online and then complemented by written questionnaires were presented during further conferences (Accents 2010 and 2011 in Łódź, the 4th Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching in Vancouver in 2012). The respective publications can be found in Henderson (2012), Henderson et al. (2012), Kirkova-Naskova et al. (2013).

The present paper reports on major findings from the on-line and paper version of the survey results for Poland vis-à-vis the summarised results for Europe, with the main focus put on the training teachers received in the course of their studies, their account of how they teach pronunciation and what they believe to be useful and/or important in deciding on teaching practices. Moreover, teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the importance and aims for pronunciation teaching are briefly examined.

2 The English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey (EPTiES) Introduced

The English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey is a collaborative project with partners in ten European countries.[1] It comprises 78 open and closed questions grouped into 9 categories:

- Participant Information
- Outside the Classroom
- Pronunciation Teaching Methods
- Teaching Materials
- Evaluation of Pronunciation
- Teacher Training
- Views/Attitudes
- Teaching Context
- Model/Norm

The survey was available online through the Université de Savoie in 2010–2011. In this period, 843 participants answered the survey, out of which

[1] The following researchers collaborated in the project: Elina Tergujeff, University of Jyväskylä, Alice Henderson and Dan Frost, Université de Savoie, Alexander Kautzsch, University of Regensburg, Deirdre Murphy, Trinity College Dublin, Anastazija Kirkova-Naskova, University of Skopje, Ewa Waniek-Klimczak, Univesity of Łódź, David Levey, University of Cádiz, Una Cunnigham, University of Stockohlm, Lesly Curnick, Rias van den Doel, University of Utrecht.

481 completed the survey, The participants represented 31 countries, with the majority representing fairly experienced teachers of English (the average above 15 years of teaching experience), mostly females (63 % of all respondents), at the average age of 43. The fact that only about half of respondents finished completing the survey prompted a follow-up data collection method with the use of a written version of the questionnaire (in Switzerland and Poland).

The information about the survey was spread during teacher conferences, information leaflets were distributed through the school and personal contacts. In the case of Poland, teachers were also encouraged to complete the survey through direct contact and through teacher trainers. The methods proved not to be effective: there are only 12 completed responses out of 20 attempts (with 14 respondents answering most of the questions). The written version which was distributed in the schools in the Łódź area[2] yielded 17 responses; as the on-line version was abandoned by respondents at different points in the survey, the data presented below are based on 37 respondents, with the missing answers included as 'no response'.[3] For the purpose of the analysis to follow, the on-line and written questionnaire data have been summarized as coming from one sample; while such an approach does not satisfy methodological requirements of comparable data collection procedure, the exploratory character of the analysis aiming at searching for tendencies and directions for further studies seems to justify this decision.

The respondent information for both the on-line and written versions follows similar patterns, with the mean age of 27 (with standard deviation (SD) of 8, minimum 21, maximum 58) vs. 37 (SD 9, minimum 23, maximum 54), 75 % of females in both groups. All respondents are native speakers of Polish, with BA or MA in English studies (15 BA–5 MA degrees, many teachers working towards their MA in the on-line group vs. 3 BA–17 MA in the written version). They teach mostly teenagers (12–18 year olds) in both state and private schools (75 and 59 % respectively); their teaching experience ranges from 1 to 32 years (with the mean values 5.25 (SD 6.5) and 14.35 (6.8) respectively. Not surprisingly, it is the second group, i.e. the written survey respondents who are more homogeneous—they were recruited in the schools where they work (hence there are only 3 novice teachers in this group).

In spite of a relatively small sample from Poland and a vastly varied sample in the EPTiES, the data obtained in the survey provide interesting observations with respect to the teaching of English pronunciation across Europe. Given a state-of-the-art approach of the survey, it seems legitimate to argue that the very fact that not only did relatively few teachers decide to start the survey, but also relatively few of them completed it suggests that pronunciation teaching remains an unexplored area for teachers of English. Thus, the exploratory analysis proposed here will concentrate on this very issue, i.e. teachers' attitudes and preparation for teaching pronunciation as well their opinions regarding the learners' needs.

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[2] My gratitude for help in data collection goes to Anna Jarosz.

[3] The same procedure is used in the general EPTiES responses quoted in the paper. i.e. the data are based on all responses available for a given question.

3 The EPTiES Data

The presentation of the data in this section is based on on-line and written questionnaire results; in correspondence to the EPTiES organization, the following aspects are considered: participant information, pronunciation teaching methods, teacher training, views and attitudes.

3.1 Participant Information

The EPTiES participants represent 31 countries, with the largest proportion of responses from Germany (363), Finland (103) and France (65). The average age and teaching experience vary, with an average EPTiES respondent older and more experienced than the respondent from Poland (see Table 1). The group of teachers who responded to the survey in Poland does not include any native speaker of English—in fact only about 9 % of European respondents to the survey are native speakers of that language.

With respect to the context for teaching, as many as 62 % of Polish respondents (compared to 12 % for Europe) declare teaching in private schools, the result which reflects the reality of the Polish foreign language educational system, with a widespread system of private evening schools; consequently, while the question "Do you teach in the private sector" may be interpreted in terms of the major employment place in the European context, in Poland it needs to be interpreted in terms of a mixed, public and private sector experience. This complex experience of teaching in more than one educational institution, with the regular teaching post and evening classes, further affects the teaching context: Polish teachers say they teach different age groups, children, teenagers and adults.

3.2 Pronunciation Teaching Methods

The pronunciation teaching methods section of the EPTiES concentrated on teaching to recognize and/or to write phonetic symbols, the percentage of time devoted to pronunciation teaching and the desired amount of time the teacher

Table 1 Participant information on the basis of the EPTiES online and written questionnaire data

	Polish respondents (N = 37)	EPTiES respondents (N = 843)
Age (average)	33	52 (mean) 43 (median)
Gender—female	76 %	62 %
Native speaker of english	0	9 %
Years teaching english	11.3	15
Private sector	67.5 %	12.34 %

would like to have for this purpose. The questions had a close and an open format, asking respondents to comment on their answers.

The first two questions asked: Do you teach learners to RECOGNIZE phonetic symbols?/Do you teach your learners how to WRITE phonetic symbols? The results (see Table 2) point to a general preference for teaching to recognize rather than write phonetic symbols, the tendency shared by Polish teachers with their European colleagues. In fact, the proportion of positive answers in both categories is much higher for Polish teachers, with 81 % of declaring teaching at least some symbols in recognition (compared to 60 % in the whole EPTiES sample) and 36 vs. 24 % positive with respect to teaching writing all or some symbols. The negative answers are again similar across all teachers, with the Polish data suggesting a slightly smaller proportion of not using the phonetic symbols at all.

As already mentioned, in both of the above mentioned cases, closed questions were followed by open ones, asking to explain the reasons for choosing a given option. In the case of the Polish group, the most typical explanation for not teaching to read or write the phonetic symbols was the age of the learners or the difficulty level, as in the following comments:

[714] *learners I teach are usually kids aged 7–12, so I believe they are too young to teach them phonetic symbols* [575] *too difficult for them*

One of the respondents to the written questionnaire commented

[w7] *I'm going to teach my learners to recognize phonetic symbols in the future, it depends on the textbooks—if they introduce phonetic symbols I'll introduce them.*

While the [w7] comment is not very frequent, it seems interesting from the point of view of the teachers' dependence on published materials—an important trend in the Polish data (for this part of the questionnaire see Waniek-Klimczak (2013).

Positive responses to the recognition of all or some of the symbols stress the connection between phonetic symbols and learning new vocabulary, especially with the help of dictionaries, e.g.

[717] *s useful when it comes to learning vocabulary by using the dictionary*

Table 2 Answers to the questions about the use of phonetic symbols in teaching, absolute number and proportion for each category

	Polish respondents (N = 37)		EPTiES respondents (N = 843)	
I teach learners to … phonetic symbols	Recognize (%)	Write (%)	Recognize (%)	Write (%)
Yes	18 (49)	9 (24)	315 (37)	57 (7)
Some	12 (32)	27 (27)	197 (23)	142 (17)
No	3 (9)	14 (37)	98 (12)	410 (47)
Not completed	4 (10)	4 (10)	233 (28)	234(27)

[727] *if you don't teach them such things, they have no idea how to pronounce words properly and besides, once they get acquainted with phonetic transcriptions, they know how to read words that are in a dictionary.*

The recognition of phonetic symbols increases learners' independence, helps in working with dictionaries and—the least-often mentioned motivation—it helps the learners to work on their pronunciation. One teacher summarizes this position providing three reasons for teaching learners how to recognize the symbols:

[w16] (1) *I want them to be independent learners/users of English*
(2) *I believe it's necessary for effective communication*
(3) *it's fun.*

The same respondent goes on to explain why she teaches learners how to write phonetic symbols:

[w16](1) *so they can practice pronunciation at home*
(2) *it's motivating for the students*
(3) *they find it interesting and important.*

In connection with vocabulary learning, another respondent says

[w15]*They should know them* [*phonetic symbols*] *to pronounce vocabulary in the correct way.*

The above views are not shared by the majority of respondents, who tend to express their doubts about the usefulness of the skill, stressing the lack of time for anything that is not really important for the students.

Interestingly, a vast majority of Polish teachers (76 %) declare using up to 25 % of their weekly teaching time to pronunciation (the lowest proportion in the questionnaire after 0), and most of them say they would like to devote more time, as it is not enough. The same trend can be observed in the general EPTiES data, with 57 % of respondents claiming they spend up to 25 % teaching pronunciation (with 3 % not teaching it at all, as compared to a 0 response in the Polish group), but only 42 % saying that is how much they would like to teach it (and 1 % insisting they would not want to teach pronunciation at all). The fact that it is up to 50 % that teachers both in the EPTiES and in the Polish sample declare in their 'would you like' option seems intriguing. In fact it is difficult to imagine as much as 25 % of teaching time being spent on pronunciation teaching in a regular language classroom, not to mention going up to 50 %. While the verification and looking for explanation for the respondent choices is beyond the scope of this paper, it is certainly an interesting point to consider while drawing conclusions from the data.

3.3 Teacher Training

Questions exploring teacher training in relation to how to teach pronunciation proved to be difficult, if not unclear for Polish respondents. There were three questions in this part of the survey:

- In relation to pronunciation, please rate the teacher training you received from 1 to 5.
- Please tell us how much training you received specific to teaching pronunciation.
- Please explain the content and/or style of the training you received.

The results show that while the respondents rate the training at the average of 3.25, the result cannot be interpreted without knowing whether what they meant was the actual training in their pronunciation or pronunciation teaching. It is the answers to the second question that bring surprising results: out of 37 participants, only two say that they did receive training in how to teach pronunciation. Thus, the majority of Polish respondents explain that they had from 1 to 2 years of phonetics classes in the course of their studies, with the content and style on practice in individual sound contrasts, phonetic transcription, drills, controlled tasks, reading, some free production, discussions on difficult sounds, etc. The university training in pronunciation itself tends to be well-evaluated, and several respondents add that pronunciation was mentioned in their teacher training. Moreover, some of the respondents say they attended additional workshops and worked on their own in the field. As the answers to the second question in this group reveal an almost total lack of specific pronunciation teaching instruction within teacher training, the first question must have been understood differently by different respondents, who may have rated it as extremely poor for the fact that they did not receive it; still others clearly rated their training very high on the basis of the phonetic training they received in their own pronunciation during language studies. Consequently, neither the rating nor the content/style refer to pronunciation as an element of teacher training—for all respondents pronunciation training means going through at least one year of phonetics instruction.

As all the respondents declare holding a BA or MA degree in English, the answers to the second and third question make it possible to get some insights into the phonetic training offered at Polish universities and colleges. When asked to say how much training they received, the majority of respondents express doubts—they say:

> [340] *Pronunciation teaching was not part of my teacher training.*
> [434] 2 *years + self study.*
> [713] *I've attended a one-year course in English phonetics during my first year of English studies. Generally I'm interested in phonetics and phonology, my BA and MA thesis are concerned with these topics so I suppose reading books and articles about phonetics and phonology could be considered a sort of training as well.*
> [730] *It was mentioned during my MA studies which specialization was methodology, but not so much. Only* 3 *or* 4 *lectures were devoted to the issue of teaching pronunciation.*

Naturally, as the responses come from teachers who decided to complete the survey on teaching English pronunciation, their declared interest in this aspect of language teaching is in no way surprising. While this may make the responses not strongly representative for all the English teachers in Poland (so many of whom

did not answer the survey calls), it is interesting to explore what actual training experience these pronunciation-interested teachers had. With respect to the content/style of the training, the following comment seems to sum up what most respondents with no specific pronunciation teacher training say:

> [718] *University course. We used different books* (*e.g. 'Ship or sheep?'*). *We listened to the correct pronunciation of problematic words provided by native speakers and we tried to imitate it. We used headphones and special equipment in the lab. We also wrote tests (phonetic symbols) and we were recorded at the beginning and at the end of the course—then, our progress was measured and evaluated.*

The two respondents who do mention having specific training in how to teach provide an account of an ideal course in pronunciation teaching—notice that the first comment comes from the respondent who says she had only 3 or 4 lectures devoted to this topic).

> [730] *The content was more or less: When to teach pronunciation? Is it good to teach phonetic transcription? When to teach phonetic transcription? Ways of teaching and improving students' pronunciation skills (on the basis of different exercises and activities), How to combine pronunciation activities with other such as speaking* etc. *within a lesson?*
> [837] *The course began with stressing the importance of pronunciation teaching. I was familiarized with the difficulties that Polish students may encounter stemming from their native tongue. We discussed methods and techniques as well as new approaches to teaching pronunciation.*

When compared to the situation in Europe, Polish teachers seem to have received pronunciation instruction similar to that offered in many other countries, e.g. at universities in Macedonia, where pronunciation is given considerable attention and practice within English Studies—in both cases, the teacher training component, added to general English studies, does not include a separate training on how to teach pronunciation. Participants from different countries mention pronunciation teaching instruction as an element of their general teacher training program or a specific class/additional training, or they say they had no training in how to teach pronunciation, but did go through practical phonetics in their language studies (Kirkova-Naskova et al. 2013). Kirkova-Naskova et al. illustrate their discussion with the following comments:

> [857 Finland] *My teacher training was an all-round course with different aspects of teaching combined into a programme which included teaching pronunciation.*
> [450 Germany] *A training-day with a native speaker; the content was to train pronunciation and classroom methods*
> [826 France] *Lab classes: work on minimal pairs/repetitions/work on intonation.*
> [356 Spain] *Training in phonology and phonetics with consequent transcription of sounds and utterances.*

The lack of instruction on how to teach pronunciation can be expected to correspond to the belief that pronunciation teaching is difficult. It is this and related questions in the views and attitudes section of the survey that are explored below.

3.4 Views and Attitudes

The section exploring the views and attitudes of the teachers with respect to their own work and their students' attitudes complements the previous sections by looking for a possible causal relationship between teacher training, the readiness to teach pronunciation and the teaching methods used in class. The questions discussed here are the following:

- For you personally, how important is pronunciation in relation to other language skills? Please rate from 1 to 5, with 1 as 'the least important' and 5 as 'the most important'.
- For you personally, how easy is it to teach English pronunciation? Please rate from 1 to 5, with 1 as 'extremely difficult' and 5 as 'extremely easy'.
- Please rate from 1 to 5 how motivated you feel tour learners are to speak English (1 = totally unmotivated, 5 = extremely motivated).
- To what extent do you feel your students aspire to have native or near-native pronunciation? (1 = do not aspire at all, 5 = aspire to this 100 %).

The belief as to the importance of pronunciation seems to be a logical prerequisite for the readiness to teach pronunciation, devoting relatively much time for this skill. Indeed, the data in Table 3 indicate, that pronunciation is believed to be fairly important, more so for Polish teachers than the EPTiES average. This result should not be surprising given the earlier discussed grater readiness among Polish teachers to increase the time devoted to pronunciation instruction and more frequent usage of phonetic symbols. However, given the fact that a vast majority of the Polish teachers declare not having had any training in how to teach pronunciation, the very task could be expected to be viewed as difficult. This prediction proves to be correct: the proportion of teachers claiming pronunciation is difficult to teach for them is larger in the Polish sample than the EPTiES (Table 3), with no teachers believing it to be easy, and 70 % choosing 2 or 3 on the 1–5 decreasing scale of difficulty. Thus, although important, pronunciation is difficult to teach.

Table 3 Answers from EPTiES (N = 843) and the Polish respondents (N = 37)

	How important is pronunciation? 1 = not at all, 5 = the most important				How easy is it to teach English pronunciation? 1 = extremely difficult, 5 = extremely easy			
	EPTIES		Poland		EPTiES		Poland	
1	2	0.24 %	0	0	17	2 %	0	0
2	25	3 %	0	0	76	9 %	7	19 %
3	152	18 %	10	27 %	258	31 %	19	51 %
4	226	27 %	14	38 %	116	14 %	5	14 %
5	97	12 %	7	19 %	35	4 %	0	0
N	341	40 %	6	16 %	341	40 %	6	16 %

The comments put by respondents in the written versions provide a partial explanation for the difficulty: respondents blame the size of the groups, the students' difficulty in repeating the correct pronunciation, intonation or rhythm, but also their lack of motivation caused by the exam format:

[w9] *Students don't understand the importance of an accent, so they don't pay attention to pronunciation.*
[w4] [*native-like pronunciation*] *is not needed to communicate or to pass exams.*

When asked about their students' motivation to speak English and their readiness to aspire towards native or near-native pronunciation in English, Polish teachers choose answers very close to the EPTiES average, with a relatively high level of motivation in their learners to speak English and a lower level of aspiring towards native-like pronunciation (see Table 4).

The relative lack of interest in native-like accents can be expected to tie up with the answers to the last part of the survey, where teachers were asked about their own and their students' preferences for different accent of English for receptive and productive work (Table 5). Here however, a total lack of interest ('no preference') is one of the least frequent responses, matched only by some type of International English (the concept not clearly defined either in the survey or the literature). Moreover, the comparison of the teachers' declared preferences with those they believe to be true for their students brings interesting results, with slight differences in the choice of the model, but a very slight increase in the 'no preference' answer. In fact, Polish teachers seem particularly strongly attached to the traditional Received Pronunciation (RP) model of standard British English (however, it needs to be noticed that the use of the 'RP' concept in the survey did provoke several negative comments as old-fashioned), more so in productive than receptive work, and more so than they believe their students to be—but even for their students, they claim RP is preferred or almost equal to General American (GA).

The preferences declared by Polish teachers do not differ much from the ones typical for the EPTiES respondents (Table 6). With RP chosen as a priority by the teachers, who believe their choice may not be shared by some of their students, it is the same pattern, RP in the lead, followed by GA, with the difference greater in productive than receptive work, and a slight advantage of GA in receptive work of

Table 4 Answers from EPTiES (N = 843) and the Polish respondents (N = 37)

	How motivated are your learners to speak English?				Do you feel they aspire to native or near-native like pronunciation?			
	EPTIES		Poland		EPTiES		Poland	
1	5	0.6 %	0	0	26	3 %	3	8 %
2	36	4 %	4	11 %	114	14 %	8	22 %
3	173	21 %	14	38 %	210	25 %	9	24 %
4	216	26 %	11	30 %	132	16 %	10	27 %
5	69	8 %	2	5 %	17	2 %	2	3 %
N	344	41 %	6	16 %	344	41 %	6	16 %

Table 5 Frequency with which respondents from Poland pointed to a given variety—it was possible to choose more than one

	Teachers' preference		Learners' preference (teachers' view)	
	Receptive	Productive	Receptive	Productive
RP	29	29	20	20
Gen. American	23	16	21	17
Other varieties	10	0	5	1
International English	4	1	6	6
No preference	4	2	4	5

the students. The difference between the Polish respondents and their European colleagues seems to be more in the exposure and practice of other varieties of English, both in teacher and learner preference category.

The results of the final part of the survey suggest a discrepancy between the teachers' preference for a traditional model of RP or GA, a relatively low interest in other varieties of English, and a declared lack of interest in the learners to aspire towards native-like pronunciation. Given teachers' beliefs as to their students' needs and attitudes, one might expect them to embrace International English as an alternative, or to choose many different varieties in their work. Although the choice of the model may not seem the key issue in pronunciation teaching, it seems to add an important piece to the puzzle. Putting them all together, we can try to create a generalized picture emerging from the survey.

4 The Pronunciation Profile of a Polish Teacher

The fact that the EPTiES focused on teachers, their practices, attitudes and beliefs, reflects the background idea behind the project that 'it is all in teacher's hands'. Obvious as it is that it is not only teachers who affect the pronunciation of their learners, it seems equally uncontroversial to claim that they may affect their learners' pronunciation practice and attitudes to a considerable extent. What is a pronunciation profile of a Polish teacher then? This section tries to answer the question on the basis of the generalized responses from Sect. 3.

Table 6 Frequency with which EPTiES respondents pointed to a given variety—it was possible to choose more than one

	Teachers' preference		Learners' preference (teachers' view)	
	Receptive	Productive	Receptive	Productive
RP	444	425	343	335
Gen. American	376	303	348	327
Other varieties	585	56	127	27
International English	134	79	88	79
No preference	38	39	37	46

An average respondent of the survey is a young, educated female. She works in a private or public and private sector, teaching different age groups. Her main post is in a primary or secondary school, but she is likely to teach in evening schools or offer private tuition (conclusion inferred from the data and personal experience). She devotes some time to teaching pronunciation, but relies on the textbook as to the type of the practice. When she teaches phonetic symbols she does it for the purpose of making the learners more independent in learning new vocabulary from dictionaries, and often decides to teach only the symbols for the sounds that are very different in Polish and English. She believes pronunciation to be relatively important, she would not want to devote more time for teaching it than she does though, as there is too little time and pronunciation is not an important part of final exams, plus she believes it is not popular with the learners. This belief may stem from her own experience of pronunciation learning at the university, where she took pronunciation classes for a year or two, and did not feel she was fully successful. The course convinced her that RP is the best model for production, with GA second, but she is not interested in other varieties nor is she likely to accept foreign-accented English (International) as the norm. She believes the students share her views, but does not believe they aspire towards native or near-native pronunciation, which once again reflects her own experience and possible frustration with not reaching the aims in her own pronunciation instruction.

While much of the above profile needs to be treated as tentative and verges on conjecture, it is based on the data to an extent that it is believed to form a good starting point for further discussion. There are two major issues that emerge: firstly, it is teacher training in pronunciation that needs further discussion and modification, and secondly, the survey work must be continued for a more comprehensive image of an English teacher pronunciation practice profile to emerge.

5 Final Comment: It is (Almost) All in Teachers Hands After All

The teachers whose responses have formed the basis of the above analysis have all graduated from English Departments at Universities, various tertiary level institutions and/or Teacher Training Colleges. The age distribution of respondents corresponds to the degrees they hold—among 17 MA and 18 BA holders, the BA qualified teachers are the youngest and least experienced ones, with many of them enrolled in MA extramural programs at the time of the survey. It is interesting to notice in this context that it is the on-line version that has been completed by a higher proportion of BA holders, younger and less experienced teachers. It is in this group, however, that two respondents describe the pronunciation component in their teacher training—entries [737] and [830] in the on-line survey (see 3.3.). Both of these teachers received their BA degrees from teacher training colleges—both continued at the University with their MAs in progress at the time

of the survey, while many of the other respondents talked about the positive effect of their individual work or specialization in working towards the diploma (see 3.3., entry [713]).

While pronunciation teaching proves to be virtually absent from teacher training programs in the majority of institutions offering BA or MA in English Studies, it is the experience in their own pronunciation training that can be expected to shape teachers' attitudes and practice in teaching pronunciation. This experience seems to be relatively similar across the respondents: although the length and intensity of the course may vary from 1 semester to 3 years, it is 1–2 years on average. The method reported by the respondents is typical for accent-reduction courses, with language-lab activities, repetition, controlled practice, minimal pairs, reading, and finally, phonetic transcription. Although several respondents mention the analysis of difficult sounds for Polish learners and diagnostic recordings, the majority of these activities do not seem most appropriate for teaching English pronunciation as an element of general English course, at least not as the main ones. Nor is the assumed model likely to be accepted by the majority of language learners—many, if not all students majoring in English (see Janicka et al. 2005; Waniek-Klimczak 2002) aim to reach native or near-native pronunciation in the language of their specialization. Even in this group, however, there are many students who indicate ease of communication and fluency as their main aim. It is not surprising to see that when they graduate, they take their direct experience as the basis for future work and they have a whole range of opinions as to the aims and methods of pronunciation teaching to children or teenage learners. When their opinions as to the need to teach pronunciation are compared to their own experience, an interesting picture emerges. Below the answer to the question about the way they were taught pronunciation (1) is followed by the opinion whether the amount of teaching pronunciation in their practice is sufficient (2).

[721] (1) *We had classes in phonetics and pronunciation at the University. We were presented with various exercises to differentiate between the sounds.*
(2) *Yes, because I believe that Polish students don't have problems with pronunciation. Their pronunciation doesn't affect comprehension.*
[719] (1) *Course based on a textbook "sheep or ship"*
(2) *It is sufficient, because they don't have to be taught pronunciation only through such an explicit training, but also acquire pronunciation subconsciously, e.g. through listening.*

One can only hope that the attitude of these young teachers might be modified through their further experience and training; at this point, however, it seems evident that the quality of pronunciation instruction they received did not prove to be inspirational with respect to the usefulness of pronunciation and/or the need for explicit instruction. The comment made by the first respondent ([721]) seems particularly worrying coming from a teacher—this is the comment one might imagine as typical for learners, but not a fully qualified teacher.

When viewed from the perspective of teacher-training, the general picture emerging from the above discussion is far from optimistic. By not providing instruction on how to teach pronunciation within teacher training (with a notable exception of teacher training colleges, which, however, ceased to exist in the

Polish system), we leave the graduates with the belief that pronunciation teaching is what they experienced at university: accent reduction courses, specialized, often monotonous controlled practice exercises, with the frustration of the decision whether and to what extent a specialist in English can deviate from the norm in her or his language production. Thus, the responsibility for improving the quality of pronunciation teaching lies in both teacher training and practical phonetics classes. Only by improving both, i.e. separating training on how to teach pronunciation to different age-groups from the actual pronunciation training offered to English majors and revising the practice of pronunciation in practical phonetics to make a useful, meaningful experience for the students, can we hope to educate teachers well-equipped with skills needed for effective pronunciation teaching. Let us not forget how much is in their hands.

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The Role of Practicum in Shaping FL Teacher Competence

Teresa Siek-Piskozub and Aleksandra Jankowska

Abstract Teaching practice is an important stage in prospective foreign language teacher development. It is an opportunity for reflection on the teaching process as well as for the (self) evaluation of one's teaching competence. Trainees approaching their practicum should be prepared for the challenges they may face in a real school context by their educational institutions. If it is the case, needs to be studied. In the article we report on two studies undertaken to get an insight into the practicum from the trainee perspective and from the school-based mentor perspective in the hope of identifying areas which require improvement. Descriptions of the design of the two studies and the analyses of their results are preceded by a discussion of the importance of reflection on foreign language teacher competence and the place of practicum in competence development.

1 Introduction

Recently, practicum has attracted a lot of attention among foreign language (FL) teacher educators and researchers as one of the important phases of forming FL teacher competence(s). After a brief analysis of the recent understanding of the teaching theory and what is being understood as teacher competence we will focus on practicum. Two major components of practicum, i.e. observation and teaching practice will be discussed followed by two studies: a study of trainees' perspectives on their practicum (Study 1) and a study of school-mentors' opinions about the trainees and cooperation with colleges and universities (Study 2).

T. Siek-Piskozub (✉) · A. Jankowska
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland
e-mail: piskozub@amu.edu.pl

A. Jankowska
e-mail: ajank@amu.edu.pl

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2 Learning to Become a Teacher

Theories of teaching need to take account of the theories of learning. A new understanding, based on extensive research, of the processes and practices involved in learning have resulted in an evolution of teaching theories. The recent shift from the positivist paradigm, reflected in the transmitting theory of teaching based on the concept of learners as receptive agents, to a (social) constructivist paradigm, which emphasises the active role of the learner in the process of learning, has been followed by a shift in the teaching theory where learner/teacher autonomy and self-development are valued (Nunan 1989; Breen and Mann 1997; Siek-Piskozub 2006: 159–172).

The recently dominating concept of FL teacher education rooted in constructivism has been based on recognising the need to develop in prospective teachers an ability to reflect on what happens in the FL class. Boody (2008) enumerates different understandings of reflection, as: retrospection, problem solving, critical reflection and reflection-in-action. For example, reflection as problem-solving is rooted in Dewey's (1933) view that teachers are provoked to analyse their previous experience when they face a problem about finding a solution to a troublesome event, which may happen either during the action or after its completion.

Wallace's (1991) reflective practice model of teacher education consists of four elements which lead to professional competence: received knowledge, previous experiential knowledge, practice and reflection, with the last two elements constantly influencing one another (1991: 15). However, as the author warns, professional competence is "a moving target or a horizon, towards which professionals travels all their life but which is never finally attained" (1991: 58). Burton's (2009: 302) overview of reflective practice leads him to conclude: "(...) it is evident that teacher reflection in different forms is now considered central to teacher learning processes".

Zeichner and Liston (1996: 6 in Bailey 2010: 20–21) define reflective teaching as "recognition, examination and rumination over the implications of one's beliefs, experiences, attitudes, knowledge and values as well as the opportunities and constraints provided by the social conditions in which a teacher works". Bailey (2010) refers to Richards and Lockhart's (1994: 1) explication that "reflective teaching entails 'teachers and student teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching'". The ability to reflect has thus become a feature of teacher competence.

Another recent concept of teacher education is one based on competences, i.e. the competence based teacher education model, popularised in the 1990s (Grenfell et al. 2003). Following Zawadzka (2004: 110), competence can be defined as an ability to use knowledge effectively due to critical reflection upon the decisions made. Teaching competence is thus more than just the declarative knowledge of teaching theories. It needs procedural knowledge (abilities and skills) as well. Part of the competence are also affective factors reflected in a teacher's attitudes and

finally in a teacher's value system. A well known dynamic taxonomy of affectivity designed by Bloom and his associates for educational purposes (Krathwohl et al. 1964) and extending Bloom's (1956) earlier taxonomy of cognitive goals shows how the learner goes through consecutive stages of development, i.e.: receiving > responding > valuing > organising values > acting according to one's value system. While declarative knowledge can be developed as a result of explicit instruction (receiving values), procedural knowledge (responding, organising values, acting according to one's own value system) and attitudes (valuing) develop as a result of practice. This concerns both the language learner and prospective teacher.

The dynamic development of competence is also reflected in Anderson's (1983) information-processing model of learning. The author posits that after the initial cognitive stage, where the learner is involved in conscious activity resulting in declarative knowledge, comes the associative stage, where the connections among various components of the skill are strengthened resulting in more efficient production sets, followed by the automatic stage, where execution becomes more or less subconscious and autonomous.

Teacher competences have been described in many documents. For example in 1998 the Committee on Pedagogical Sciences of the Polish Academy of Sciences prepared a list of standard teacher competences compiled of six core categories of competences, i.e. praxeological, communicational, cooperational, creative, IT, moral; each described in terms of knowledge and abilities (cf. Denek 1998: 215–217). Documents specifying FL teacher competences are also available. The results of a project run by experts from the University of Southampton provided an overview of language teacher training in Europe based on reports from thirty-two countries (Kelly et al. 2002). The report addressed to the European Commission Directorate General for Education and Culture later led to the development of the *European Profile for Language Teacher Education. A Frame of Reference.* It comprises a set of forty key concepts significant for language teacher education courses divided into four sections: structure, knowledge and understanding, strategies and skills, each describing the necessary elements of FL teacher education. Identification of the FL teacher competences further led to the development of a document worked out under the auspice of the European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz, i.e. the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (EPOSTL) (Newby 2012). One of the experts taking part in the project was Hanna Komorowska (Newby et al. 2007). It is a tool which stimulates reflection and enables self-assessment. The EPOSTL is structured around three sections: personal statement referring to the personal details of the user, self-assessment referring to seven core categories (further subdivided into several subcategories): context, methodology, resources, lesson planning, conduction of a lesson, independent learning, assessment of learning and finally, a dossier, i.e. a section enabling the student to collect examples confirming self-assessment. All together it includes 193 descriptions. Due to the fact that it is downloadable from the Internet the EPOSTL is user friendly. We can also conclude that it brings together the two

recent yet different concepts of education, the one based on reflectivity and the second based on competences.

In Poland the document was used by Urbaniak (2012) to evaluate the processes of reflection and self-evaluation by prospective teachers receiving education in three Polish FL teacher education institutions. The author concludes that the "the success or failure of the EPOSTL as a reflective tool in teacher education is grounded in the tutors' attitude and their eagerness to incorporate the EPOSTL (…) [it] should be introduced at the beginning of the initial teacher education programme and should accompany student teachers throughout the course" (Urbaniak 2012: 225–226), although her respondents disagreed as to whether the document should be a compulsory element of the teacher training course.

3 Practicum

An important role in the development of prospective teacher competences is played by school practicum, as we have emphasised in our four-staged model of teacher education (Fig. 1).

The goal of practicum for prospective teachers is first to observe experienced teachers in their classroom practices and then to use all the knowledge resulting from their theoretical study offered by academic courses and the supervised observation in their own teaching practice (TP). Ideally this should be completed with a diploma (DL) lesson observed by the students' academic supervisor. The EPOSTL can also be used to identify dynamic changes in the trainees' competences resulting from their school practice.

According to current regulations introduced by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (Dziennik Ustaw 2012), teacher training programmes at Polish universities must include at least 150 h of TP divided into practice focusing on

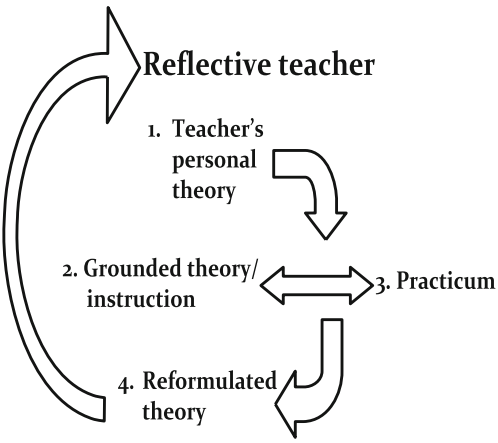

Fig. 1 A four-staged model of teacher training (Siek-Piskozub, Jankowska 2012: 541)

pedagogy (30 h) and methodology of teaching a specific subject (120 h). The aim of the pedagogical practice is getting acquainted with the major tasks of a school and the way it is organized and run. Trainees are expected to observe both learners and teachers in a variety of situations, paying special attention to interactions between pupils and between teachers and pupils. Observation should be followed by more active cooperation with the mentor and, finally, taking on the role of the care-taker.

During the didactic part of the TP trainees continue the process of getting familiar with the general processes involved in the functioning of a school. They still closely observe the process of interaction and interpersonal communication in class with added focus on methods, techniques and materials used by teachers, ways of activating and assessing learners, assigning and checking homework and organizing the classroom environment. As in the case of pedagogical practice, the trainees move from observation to cooperating with the mentors in planning and conducting lessons, organizing group work, preparing materials, checking homework and helping students with special educational needs. This leads to independent teaching based on carefully prepared lesson plans incorporating appropriately selected methods, techniques and materials and activating all the students.

During both parts of the TP the trainees are obliged to analyze and interpret their experiences through a variety of activities such as record keeping, self-evaluation and discussions with teachers and peers. This requirement is clearly in line with the reflective approach which is advocated in this paper.

On their part, universities are expected to prepare their students for the practicum and create opportunities for the students to discuss their experiences during classes. They should also maintain close contacts with the schools in which their students carry out the practicum and appoint a lecturer who should act as a supervisor/tutor of the practicum.

3.1 Classroom Observation

In a recent publication on classroom research Nunan and Bailey (2009: 258) define *classroom observation* as "a family of related procedures for gathering data during actual language lessons or tutorial sessions, primarily by watching, listening, and recording (rather than by asking)". Such an observation can serve research goals but also teacher (self) development. For the sake of prospective teacher development, apart from the above mentioned ways of observing, we can also find value in 'asking' as the practical solutions developed by the observed teachers may not necessarily be rooted in the grounded theory the trainees receive in academia. They will then be facing a cognitive challenge which needs to be discussed with their mentors to eliminate a potential cognitive dissonance. Chamcharatsri (2010: 89) posits that "[o]bserving classroom teaching through the beginner's mind (…) will also help supervisors to become explorers in the classroom (…) Later when the observers and the observed talk to each other; they will act as explorers in seeking different teaching methods to help students learn efficiently".

If the observation is to stimulate reflection the trainee should collect data during their observations. Bailey (2010) discusses various ways of manual recordings (i.e. various observation systems designed by researchers and open-ended note-taking). However, the goals of reflection on the effectiveness of teaching and reflection for prospective teacher development are different. The prospective teacher needs to learn to proceduralize (sometimes also to verify) their declarative knowledge about teaching in general and FL teaching in particular. The process of teaching entails whole person development and this is a complex issue. The goals for prospective teacher observation need to be specified for each observation event so that the observers can concentrate on a selected, however, important for classroom functioning, event (e.g. maintaining classroom discipline, approaching language errors in free communication). Unfocussed observation may confuse the learner who may not necessarily see the connections between events. Electronic recordings of the observed lessons would be a good solution as learners could observe the same lesson several times with different focuses for each observation getting a fuller picture of classroom teaching. However, it may be difficult to arrange for different reasons.

3.2 Practicing and Evaluating Teaching

To develop teaching skills it is important to get involved in the process of teaching. During real time teaching trainees can develop a different kind of reflection, namely reflection-in-action. Referring to his earlier work Farrell (2010) suggests using reflection tools also for teaching in which the teachers will comment on the method used (what the teacher is doing), reason for why she is doing this, evaluate the result of action, and provide justification for decisions concerning the possible need to introduce change. The instruments anticipated by the author are a teaching journal and recording of the teacher's own lessons. As the author explains, a teaching journal enables reflection on one's own practice, confronts believes (espoused theories) with actual actions (theories-in-use). It can also assist the teacher to focus on specific aspects of their development and provide new insights into their work. The audio- or video-recorded lessons after transcribing can be analysed and so they can serve as an observation of one's practice.

What Farrell recommends for teacher self-development may be of use for trainee development during the teaching phase. The teaching journal may be replaced with the EPOSTL as a document which may serve a double function, i.e. a self-evaluation tool to the trainee and an insight to trainee's competences for the tutor who may offer her/him some further advice.

To complete the process of TP the trainees' skills have to be evaluated. Two issues need to be addressed here: who conducts the evaluation and what is the weight of the grade for TP as compared with other grades the trainees get during the course of their studies. The grade for TP should count towards the final grade for the whole college or university education. This can be done by treating it on a par with all examination grades.

4 Practicum from Trainees' and School-Mentors' Perspective

Practicum is the moment when reflection and self-evaluation become important issues for prospective teachers. To get an insight into how (prospective) teachers (already BA holders in English as a FL) recall and evaluate their school practicum a survey was carried out among graduates, from different institutions (Study 1). The insights from the respondents (referred to as trainees) were to help evaluate the effectiveness of both the methodology course and the practicum experience for teacher competence development. For the sake of triangulation school teachers referred to as mentors were also surveyed for their opinions on the trainees that they had worked with (Study 2).

In both studies a questionnaire as a data collection tool was used due to the fact that it is "easy to construct, extremely versatile, and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processable" (Dörnyei 2010: xiii).

4.1 Study 1

Study 1 aimed at providing answers to three research questions:

Q1 Do educational institutions perform well their duty to prepare trainees for their practicum?
Q2 Do mentors perform their duty well in the opinion of the trainees?
Q3 How do trainees self-evaluate themselves as FL teachers?

4.2 Design of the Study

The first questionnaire was distributed among 41 graduates of EFL programmes at BA level offered by different institutions from different regions of Poland. However, 40 questionnaires were used for data analysis due to the fact that one questionnaire was not fully completed. The research subjects were 26 candidates for MA seminars in EFL methodology offered in an extramural programme and 14 were first-year-students in a regular programme, both run by the Faculty of English of Adam Mickiewicz University.

The questionnaire comprised of 17 core questions, often supplemented with supportive questions to give the respondent a chance to comment on and explain the answers given to the main question. Consequently, comments made in small numbers can only provide information enabling to identify certain tendencies or the range of the phenomenon. All the questions were in Polish to eliminate

possible misunderstandings of specialised terminology. Some questions required additional information. Some core questions or supportive questions were of the YES or NO type, some required marking the level of respondent's agreement with statements on a 5-point Likert-type scale, while still others were of the open type.

Item 1 concerned the educational background of the respondents. The majority of them came from the teacher training colleges (n = 25), then from tertiary level state vocational schools (Pol. PWSZ) (n = 8), private tertiary level vocational schools (Pol. WSJO) (n = 5) while only 3 respondents were from a university. Thus, we have got an insight into a variety of teacher training situations.

The remaining data from Study 1 will be grouped according to the three research questions.

4.3 Results of Study 1

Seven items addressed various issues related to the support offered by the trainees' EFL teacher education institutions (Q1), i.e. items: 2, 3, 7, 11, 12, 13 and 15.

When asked about the number of hours for different parts of the practicum (item 2) respondents gave different answers with 2 openly admitting they could not recall that. Psycho-pedagogical practice was given from 0 h (n = 32) to 90 h (n = 2), while 60 h was mentioned by 5 respondents, 10 h and 80 h was mentioned once each. The observations of the EFL classes received equally varied data—from 20 h (n = 2) to 180 h (n = 1) with possibilities of 150 h (n = 2), 120 h (n = 9), 90 h (n = 4), 70 h (n = 3), 60 h (n = 13), 50 h (n = 4) and 40 h (n = 1). The same concerned practice in FL teaching, it ranged from 30 h (n = 9) to 160 h (n = 1) with 35 h reported by five respondents, 45 h by three, 48 h by two and 50 h and 55 h reported by one respondent each, 60 h by 7, 90 h by 4. For 12 respondents (30 %) the practicum was shorter than the required 150 h. This means that not all institutions give enough attention to the importance of practicum for competence development. The need for practice in the general psycho-pedagogic function of the teacher is particularly neglected as 80 % of the respondents stated that they did not have any practice in this respect.

Students also pointed to the type of school they practiced in. Seven respondents (17.5 %) did not mark any of the enumerated in the questionnaire types of school; practice in all: primary, lower secondary and upper secondary school was marked by 18 respondents (45 %); 15 respondents (37.5 %) gave different configurations of the three types of schools: primary school only (n = 3), primary and lower secondary schools (n = 6), primary and upper secondary schools (n = 2), lower secondary and upper secondary (n = 1), however, this respondent marked that the upper secondary was in fact a vocational secondary school. Upper secondary school only was appointed by 3 respondents. Thus, different trainees get different kinds of experience which may make them better or worse prepared for teaching in a particular context.

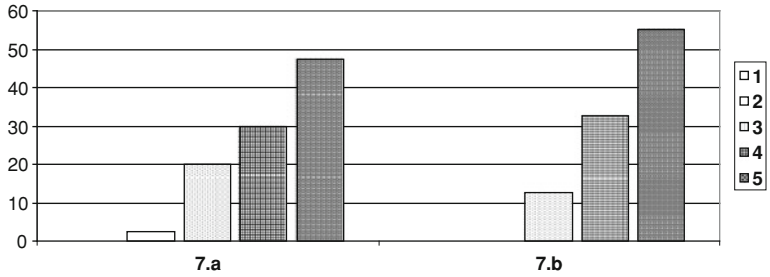

Fig. 2 Evaluation of the methodology course on a 5-point scale

When answering the question concerning decisions of choosing school(s) for practicum (item 3), 13 respondents (32.5 %) reported that it was the institution (methodology teacher, college practicum tutor), while 31 (77.5 %) wrote that they had made the decision themselves, of which 4 admitted that they were partly advised by their college.

Item 7 aimed at finding out how trainees evaluate their methodology course as far as preparing them for the practicum: (a) for the observation phase, (b) for the teaching phase. No respondent gave the lowest value (1 point) for either of the phases however, one respondent marked an observation with 2 points. 20 % of the respondents had no opinion as to how well they felt prepared for the observation and 12.5 % for teaching. The majority of the students felt well (30 %) or very well (48 %) prepared for an observation. For teaching: 32.5 % and 55 % of the respondents felt well or very well prepared respectively (see Fig. 2).

Referring to their observations respondents were to name tools used by them to systematise their knowledge (item 15). Two examples of what was understood as tools were given however, we did not mention the EPOSTL on purpose, expecting that if it were used the respondents would write that. 25 % of the respondents ($n = 10$) explicitly admitted that they did not have any. The most popular instruments were observation sheets ($n = 21$), student's own notes ($n = 5$), practicum diaries (logs) prepared by the institution ($n = 4$) and regular reports prepared for college supervisors ($n = 1$). Some students were using more than one instrument, usually a practicum diary and observation sheets. No one mentioned using the EPOSTL.

Three questions addressed the issue of cooperation between the tutor and the trainee during the period of practicum (items 11, 12 and 13).

Item 11 addressed the possibility of tutor support for preparing the trainee's own lessons and/or the DL. Five respondents (12.5 %) reported having no support from their tutors, 4 respondents (10 %) did not get support for preparing their lessons, while 3 (7.5 %) for preparing their DL. This gives 70 % of trainees that were happy with the cooperation between themselves and their tutor.

Because DLs are important for trainee teaching competence evaluation two questions addressed this issue. Item 12 concerned the way the lesson was evaluated, whether by observation carried out by the tutor or after the recording of the lesson.

Five respondents (12.5 %) reported neither being observed nor recorded, 25 (62.5 %) being observed while 8 (20 %) being recorded. Item 13 sought to answer the question whether the result of DL was discussed by the tutor with the trainee. Seven respondents (17 %) informed that there was no reflection upon their DL.

Various forms of support available from the school mentor (Q2) were a concern of items 6, 8 and 9.

Item 6 asked whether the practices the respondents observed were in line with the recommendations of modern methodology, and if not, whether the teacher's practice was effective. Nine respondents (22.5 %) reported dissonance between 'theory' and 'practice', however, only 5 (12.5 %) evaluated teachers' decisions as ineffective. Among the observed discrepancies the most often mentioned ones were lack of attempts to motivate their learners and ignoring the lead-in-stage while introducing activities. Extensive use of L1 and lack of spontaneous communication in L2 was mentioned twice, lack of feedback, boring lessons, poor time management during lessons, a teacher having problems with maintaining discipline occurred only once each in the collected data. One respondent did not mention anything commenting that it would be easier to point to moments of congruence between 'theory' and observed teacher's 'practice', yet at the same time s/he positively evaluated the effectiveness of the teacher's decisions.

We also wanted to find out if in cases of incongruence the trainee had a chance to discuss the problem with their mentor. It is very difficult to draw conclusions from the respondents' answers as many of them seem to have confused discussions of the observed lessons with the discussion of the problem, for those who had not seen any dissonance marked the possibility of a discussion with their mentor. Of the 9 respondents who noticed incongruence only 2 wrote they had no chance to talk about it with their mentor and 1 did not mark the answer.

Respondents were to inform if they were provided with the mentor's support (item 8). 37 respondents (92.5 %) had a possibility of a discussion with their mentor before the lesson, 97.5 % after the lesson with 90 % having both options. Referring to other kinds of support available from their mentor 5 respondents (12.5 %) provided additional information concerning the issue: provision of (supplementary) teaching materials ($n = 3$), ideas on using games with elementary learners, individual contact via phone or email, advice on how to react in challenging situations ($n = 1$ each).

Additionally, the respondents were to evaluate on a 5-point scale how satisfied they were with this cooperation (item 9). Only 7 respondents (18 %) had no opinion about it, with the majority expressing satisfaction (4 points given by 6 respondents and 5 points by 26, i.e. satisfied 26 % and very satisfied 65 %).

Finally, the trainees were to self-evaluate their competence and practicum experience (Q3) as required in items 4, 10, 14, 16.

Trainees were to inform if they had appointed any goals for their observation for each lesson observed (item 4). Nine respondents (22.5 %) marked the answer that they had not set any goals. Having to evaluate on a 5-point-scale different aspects of teacher competence they focussed their attention on (item 5) with seven categories given: (a) teaching grammar competence, (b) teaching lexis,

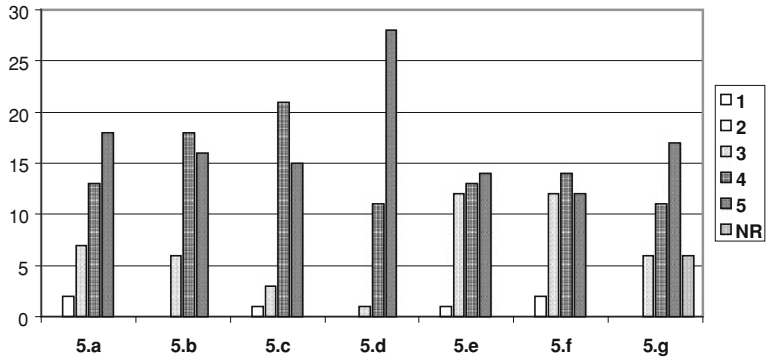

Fig. 3 Focus of classroom observation by 40 trainee-respondents

(c) developing receptive skills, (d) developing interactive skills, (e) approaches to errors, (f) developing learner autonomy, (g) class management, the highest value was ascribed to interaction (28 % gave 4 points and 70 % 5 points), the next was the development of receptive skills (53 % and 38 % respectively). Respondents were most undecided about their focus on error correction and learner autonomy, categories which received 3 points from 30 % of respondents each. Figure 3 presents all the answers in the bar charts.

Respondents could also add additional information on their focus, an opportunity opted for by 3 respondents, each giving different ideas. These were: activating a class as a group as well as each individual learner, teacher-learner rapport, ability to motivate learners to completing a task, the use of audiovisual materials.

We also asked if the respondents had faced any problems with conducting their own lessons (item 10). 12 respondents (30 %) admitted to having problems with running their lesson(s). The major problem was maintaining discipline (n = 5) and managing the time of the lesson (n = 4), also teaching grammar was problematic to some (n = 2). One practitioner also felt at a loss when a student fainted during the lesson.

The respondents were to evaluate on the 5-point-scale how important for them was reflection upon their experience, i.e. (a) reflection after the observation, (b) reflection after their own teaching (item 14). The majority admitted having reflected during both phases of teaching: both much and very much by 40 % each during observation with 17.5 % sometimes, while 28 % much and 65 % very much after their own lesson with no-one having admitted no reflection.

Respondents were also to reflect upon their benefits from participating in the practicum (item 16). All together 104 different entries were collected. They were grouped into the following categories:

- cognitive development and raised awareness were the most popular comments (n = 65)—this concerned approaches to errors, new/effective ways of teaching various aspects of language competence, maintaining discipline in the classroom and approaching problems, planning a lesson, getting to know how a school

functions, relating 'theory' to 'practice', becoming aware of how well they function as teachers etc.;
- development of skills and abilities (n = 21)—the respondents mentioned teaching skills, coping with different language levels and age groups, adaptation of materials, maintaining discipline;
- social benefits (n = 7), e.g.: contact with professionals, the possibility of reflection on one's own teaching stimulated by one's teachers and supervisors, contact with young people;
- emotional benefits (n = 6), e.g.: getting used to public speaking, gaining confidence in one's language and teaching skills, satisfaction from well run lessons, coping with one's stress.

There were also entries which could not be easily categorised, as for example one respondent noted that the benefits were many and varied, however, without giving any examples.

Item 17 concerned the biggest problems that respondents experienced during their practicum. Only 6 trainees reported about not having any problems. We collected 53 entries from the remaining respondents. The range of problems mentioned was wide and included:

- coping with difficult teaching conditions—big classes, different levels within a class, learners with deficits (ADHD, dyslectics) (n = 10);
- process of planning lessons—a time consuming activity, difficulty with finding interesting activities particularly for classroom interaction, difficulty in finding (interesting) teaching materials (n = 8);
- process of teaching—managing time during lessons (mentioned as the least practiced component during their methodology classes), providing instruction, involving all students (n = 8);
- managing stress (n = 6);
- organisational problems—managing studies and practicum, negotiating a time-schedule for practicum, transportation (n = 4);
- cooperation between practitioner and teacher-mentor, practitioner and practicum tutor—lack of contact with tutors, imposing teacher's/tutor's own concepts onto trainees' lessons (n = 4).

4.4 Conclusions from Study 1

Answering the first research question, we can conclude that teacher training institutions provide different levels of support to their trainees. While some assist their students in choosing appropriate schools for practicum, equip them with necessary tools which aid observation, monitor trainee's development, ensure the appropriate intensity of practicum experience, others leave their trainees to their

own initiative and effort, and thus, do not perform their role as specified in Ministry requirements (see section 3).

The fact that psychological and pedagogical education may be offered by other department(s) than the foreign language methodology departments (units), and possible poor cooperation between them, may be responsible for ignoring the need to get experience in psycho-pedagogical issues frequently faced in the school context. No wonder that maintaining discipline is the major problem for the trainees.

But there may also be reservations concerning the involvement of foreign language methodology specialists. Apart from difficulty in managing a class trainees report having problems with planning a lesson, maintaining learners motivation on tasks. It is also astonishing that 25 % of the respondents were not assisted by any observation tools which could serve the process of reflection. It seems that the process of reflection is not attracting enough attention in teacher preparation, despite the fact that the EPOSTL is easily available. This corroborates Urbaniak's (2012: 147ff) observation, as in her study 21 % of respondents (26 trainees out of a population of 104) informed that reflection was an unfamiliar experience to them and self-assessment was even less frequent. Many of her respondents also reported not using any tools for reflection on their teaching competence (p. 151).

Also not all educational institutions seem to maintain contacts with schools in which their trainees receive practical training which is evident from the fact that 67.5 % of the trainees chose the school for their practicum themselves, unassisted by their educational institution. This conclusion is supported by answers to item 6 concerning trainees cooperation with their mentor. It reveals that in many cases the goal of practicum is not negotiated between the tutor and the mentor and as a result trainees may be exposed to practices which are not recommended by modern methodology.

Answering the second research question concerning the issue of mentor's assistance the answers are more optimistic. Over 90 % of the respondents expressed their satisfaction with their mentors, were assisted by them in the process of reflection by the possibility to discuss lessons (before or after), offered some teaching materials, etc. If there were better cooperation between colleges and schools the answers may be even more positive.

Answering the third question of how trainees self-evaluate their ability to cope with practicum we can conclude that they are rather optimistic about their competences confronted with the experiences they had during their practicum. 78 % of the respondents think that their institutions prepared them (very) well for the class observations and 87 % for teaching. Only 1 person openly admitted that she did not feel prepared for practicum in its observation phase.

For over 90 % of the respondents the focus during their observation was mostly on developing communicative competence (receptive skills—91 % and interaction—98 %) which reflects recent tendencies in FL methodology. Yet, another often raised issue is learner autonomy. 30 % of the respondents could not decide if it was for them an important issue during their observation. This may either mean

that autonomy was not emphasised during their studies and/or they could not observe attempts at autotomising learners in the classes they had observed.

However, the problem that concerned the respondents the most was handling discipline. The problem of discipline appeared 28 times in the collected data: when referring to the respondents problems in running a lesson (items 10—n = 5), benefiting from taking part in practicum (item 16—n = 9) and referring to the biggest problem experienced during conducting their lessons (item 17—n = 14). This shows that more attention should be paid to issues of managing a class during their formal education, as problems with discipline often result from poor planning and managing activities as these issues were emphasised by some respondents.

4.5 Study 2

The research questions for this study are as follows:

Q1 What is the profile of FL teachers who agree to become mentors?
Q2 How do mentors evaluate their trainees?
Q3 What improvements in the cooperation between the educational institutions and schools receiving trainees are desirable ?

4.6 Design of the Study

Poor cooperation between educational institutions and schools which was a tentative conclusion from Study 1 motivated us to undertake yet another study. The questionnaire used in Study 2 is part of a project aiming at improving the cooperation between teacher training institutions and school-based mentors by gathering the mentors' opinions on a variety of issues involved in this cooperation. The questionnaire was sent out to mentors working with students from several teacher training colleges and one university. The process of data collection will be an on-going one but even a preliminary analysis of the questionnaires returned so far (34) reveals some opinions of the mentors which may be relevant to our current discussion.

The questionnaire consisted of 19 items, with items 1–5 aiming at gathering some background information on the respondents and items 6–19 focusing on their experience as mentors. Most of the questions used a 5-point Likert-type design. The last two questions were open and asked for suggestions on possible improvements in the cooperation between colleges and universities and schools.

4.7 Results of Study 2

Items 1–7 of the questionnaire referred to the teachers' qualifications, type of schools they taught in and experience supervising trainees during their TP. Over 40 % (n = 14) of the respondents were graduates of MA programmes at university departments of philology, 30 % (n = 10) were graduates of teacher training colleges who then went on to complete their MA degrees at universities. Two respondents had only teacher training college diplomas and the remaining eight had completed postgraduate courses.

Most of the respondents (n = 28) teach in secondary schools (*liceum*) with half of them (n = 14) teaching also at the lower-secondary level (*gimanzjum*). Only two of the respondents were primary school teachers and four worked both in primary and lower secondary schools.

The professional experience of the teachers varies from 8 to 26 years and their experience supervising students on teaching practice from 4 to 18 years.

On average, the teachers supervise three students each year with four teachers reporting supervising as many as ten trainees. When asked about the optimum number of students one teacher could supervise, almost 60 % of the teachers (n = 20) reported it is two, with three teachers claiming that they could supervise as many as ten students per year.

In items 7–8 the respondents were asked to evaluate, on a scale of 1–5 (from very poor to very good), trainees preparation for the TP with reference to language, methodology and pedagogy as well as their overall engagement in tasks involved in completing the practicum. Generally, the mentors rated students' linguistic and methodology preparation quite highly (with 70 % (n = 23) and 65 % (n = 22) 4 and 5 points respectively) while their pedagogical skills were evaluated as good and very good by only 40 % (n = 14) of the respondents. On a more positive note, 80 % of the mentors found students' engagement in their work to be high and very high.

In answer to item 9, the mentors reported that they do assign students some teaching responsibilities (40 %–4 and 5 points on a scale from never to very often) with the most common activities being monitoring students work (70 %), checking homework (40 %) and distributing teaching materials (35 %). Individual teachers mentioned also such tasks as helping students with special needs during lessons, acting as teacher assistants and conducting classes and extracurricular activities.

The last issues covered in the survey (items 10–19) were related to the cooperation of the mentors with the teacher training institution where the trainees studied.

In items 10–13 the mentors were asked if they were familiar with the principles of organization of the TP as stated in the documents of the colleges, criteria for the evaluation of the DL, whether they were present during the DL and whether the college supervisor kept in touch with them before, during and after the practicum. A vast majority of the teachers (75 %) reported that they were familiar with the organization of the TP, however, only 50 % of the mentors were well acquainted with the criteria for the evaluation of the DL, with almost the same number (55 %) stating that they were always or almost always present during the DL. As for

contact with the college tutors, over 50 % of the mentors reported that such contacts occur often or very often before the commencement of the TP, with the number of positive answers dropping to 40 % when it comes to the time after the TP. The exact nature of the communication between the mentors and college supervisors will be the focus of further investigations.

Item 14 asked if mentors were familiar with the current syllabus of the EFL methodology courses offered by the colleges. Only 25 % stated that they knew the syllabus well or very well (4 and 5 points assigned), with almost 60 % admitting no knowledge of the syllabus and at the same time expressing interest in getting to know it (item 15).

The respondents were also asked if they would be interested in taking part in training sessions devoted to the techniques of lesson observation and ways of providing feedback (item 16) and almost 80 % said that they would (4 or 5 points assigned).

Finally, almost 75 % of the respondents evaluated their cooperation with the colleges as good or very good and there were very few suggestions for improvements in that area (item 17). The mentors who included comments expressed their wish to be informed about the grades for the DL lessons the trainees under their supervision get. As one of them put it 'the student's grade for the diploma lesson is in a way an evaluation of my work', so knowing how and why the lesson was evaluated by the college tutor would be helpful. The need for closer cooperation and improved communication between the colleges and schools was also mentioned.

4.8 Conclusions from Study 2

In answer to question 1 we can say that a typical mentor holds an MA degree in English philology (70 % of the respondents) with 50 % of that group being college graduates as well. Most of the mentors who completed the survey teach in secondary schools with half of them working at the lower-secondary level. This could pose a problem in the near future (2013/2014) when, following new regulations, teacher training courses at the BA level will prepare their graduates only for teaching in primary schools. The average length of teaching experience of the respondents is 15 years, with the average length of experience of working as a mentor being 8 years. On average mentors supervise three trainees each academic year, which is close to the number most of them find most suitable, i.e. two.

The results of the questionnaire show that the mentors are generally satisfied with trainees' preparation and attitude (question 2), although they rate the trainees linguistic and didactic competence slightly higher than their pedagogical competence.

The mentors taking part in the survey are generally satisfied with the overall cooperation with teacher training institutions (question 3). At the same time the results point to the need of informing the teachers in more detail about the principles of the organization of the TP in those institutions, criteria for the evaluation

of DL and the grades students get for these lessons. The teachers would also like to know more about the current syllabi of the methodology courses followed by their trainees and would be interested in participating in training sessions devoted to effective lesson observation and ways of providing feedback to the trainees. It seems that there is a need for developing strong and stable channels of communication both at the institutional (school–college/university) and personal (school-based mentor–college/university tutor) level.

5 Conclusions

We can conclude from our both studies that the practicum serves the trainee development generally well. Yet, there are areas where improvement is required. Both groups of respondents observe trainees' poorer general pedagogic skills in comparison to their language and language teaching competences. Although pedagogic skills are being developed while one begins to work as a teacher, still more emphasis on training during the formal education period is needed.

There is also a need to concentrate more on trainees' reflection processes. Each school should have worked out observation instruments as involving trainees in on-going reflection is required. If teacher training institutions are not able to work out their own tool(s) they could easily introduce and recommend to their trainees the EPOSTL. Urbaniak's (2012: 193ff) research shows that approximately 75 % of her respondents (students in the BA programme in the third year of their studies in three institutions), who got acquainted with the tool, found it useful for the reflection and self-evaluation of their teaching competence. If tools as the EPOSTL were used from the beginning of teacher training gaps in trainee teaching competence (e.g. problems with planning a lesson) might be more easily recognised by their tutors.

Although the majority of the trainee-respondents are satisfied with their mentors and the majority of mentor-respondents with their trainees better cooperation of the two educational institutions may still improve the results. The exact nature of the cooperation between the two parties involved will depend on local circumstances and could include incorporating the mentors' assessment of trainees' teaching during the whole period of TP as well as involving them in evaluating the DL. It seems reasonable to suggest that the final grade could be a composite of mentors' formative assessment, college/university tutors' evaluation of trainees' reflection processes as demonstrated during class discussions and through the use of such instruments as diaries and the EPOSTL, and the grade for the DL lesson agreed on by both the mentor and the supervisor.

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About the Authors

Halina Chodkiewicz is Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Department of English, Maria Curie-Skłodowska University, Lublin, Poland. She teaches psycholinguistics, second language acquisition and ELT courses and supervises M.A. and Ph.D. dissertations. Her research interests focus on second/foreign language reading development, vocabulary learning and teaching, and content-based instruction. She is the author of numerous papers and three books on issues of developing reading competence and vocabulary acquisition in English as a foreign language. Her recent publications concern the implementation of reading to learn tasks in academic EFL settings, as well as the development of readers' strategic behaviour.

Maria Dakowska is Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Department of English Studies, University of Warsaw. Her research interests range from teaching and learning English as a foreign language in the global society, especially the field's articulation as an academic discipline with specialized levels and pure as well as applied goals, to psycholinguistic processes in second/foreign language learning and teaching, various aspects of foreign language teacher training and task design, as well as cognitive conceptions of human information processing, verbal communication and human development.

Anna Ewert is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of English, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. She has also worked for a number of tertiary education institutions as consultant and programme coordinator. Her research interests are second language acquisition and bilingualism, especially cognitive aspects of second language acquisition and bilingualism. She has published articles and chapters in edited volumes as well as a book on L2 users' L1 as seen from a multicompetence perspective. She is an active member of European Second Language Association and organizer of the annual conference of the association in 2012.

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Danuta Gabryś-Barker is Professor of English at the University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland, where she lectures and supervises M.A. and Ph.D. theses in applied linguistics, psycholinguistics and especially in second language acquisition. She also works as a teacher trainer. Her main areas of interest are multilingualism (especially at the level of mental lexicon and syntax), neurolinguistics and psycholinguistics (modalities, learner profiles and affectivity). As a teacher trainer she lectures on research methods in second language acquisition and TEFL projects. Her major concern is the role of action research in teacher development. Prof Gabryś-Barker has published approximately a hundred articles nationally as well as internationally and a book *Aspects of multilingual storage*, *processing and retrieval*, Katowice: University of Silesia Press, 2005. She has edited among others a volume *Morphosyntactic Issues in Second Language Acquisition*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 2008. A book *Action research in teacher development* edited by her was published in 2011 by University of Silesia Press. Her book on *Reflectivity in pre-service teacher education* came out this year. She is the chief editor (together with Eva Vetter) of the *International Journal of Multilingualism* (Routledge).

Romuald Gozdawa-Gołębiowski is a professor of linguistics at the Institute of English Studies, Warsaw University. His research interests include applied linguistics (testing, pedagogical grammar, formulaic competence, applied contrastive syntax), theoretical linguistics (the generative paradigm) and recent developments in language teaching methodology, in particular Content and Language Integrated Learning, Intercultural Communicative Competence, lingua francas, and Euro-English(es). He has written a book on interlanguage growth, four manuals of English grammar for Polish secondary schools and adult learners and numerous papers in academic journals in Poland and abroad. He co-authored a testing manual and six collections of tests of English for Polish learners and co-developed attainment standards and the model of foreign language testing at Warsaw University.

Aleksandra Jankowska is the head of The Centre for English Teacher Training at the Faculty of English, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. For 20 years (1992–2012) she was the head of The Teacher Training College at AMU and from 1994 to 2008 the leader of the Wielkopolska Region of *INSETT*, the national in-service teacher training programme run by The Centre for Teacher Development in Warsaw. She is an experienced EFL teacher and teacher trainer. Her interests include teacher education, foreign language teaching at the advanced level, task-based teaching, classroom interaction, vocabulary acquisition and the place of culture in the process of foreign language learning.

Professor **Anna Michońska-Stadnik**, Ph.D., works at the Institute of English Studies, University of Wrocław in Poland and at the Philology Section of the Karkonosze Higher State School in Jelenia Góra. She is a graduate of the University of Wrocław (1977) and Victoria University of Manchester, UK (MEd TESOL in

1985). Professor Stadnik teaches mostly diploma courses, M.A. and B.A., and ELT methodology. She is a member of IATEFL, of Modern Language Association of Poland (deputy chair), and Wrocław Scientific Society. Her scholarly interests include psycholinguistics, SLA studies, foreign language teacher training, and SLA research methods. She published four books and more than sixty research articles in Poland and abroad.

Zbigniew P. Możejko, Ph.D., is Assistant Professor at the Institute of English Studies, University of Warsaw, specializing at ELT methodology and teacher training. His research interests include CLIL, discourse analysis, language awareness, and needs analysis. Among his recent publications are: "Student needs assessment in teaching English at the tertiary level: An individual learner differences perspective" In. In Arabski, J. and Wojtaszek, A. (eds) 2011. *Individual Learner Differences in SLA*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp. 184–196 and "How much CLIL is there in CLIL? A study of the approach on the example of CLIL provision in a junior highschool", *Acta Philologica* 2011/40: 69–81.

Joanna Nijakowska, Associate Professor in the Department of Pragmatics, Institute of English, University of Łódź, Poland. She holds a Ph.D. in linguistics. A specialist in psycholinguistics, foreign language acquisition and didactics, and learning difficulties, she runs teacher training courses for ELT students and practitioners. She has authored and edited books and papers on EFL and dyslexia (including *Dyslexia in the Foreign Language Classroom,* Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 2010) and presented her research at European and American academic centres. Her research interests include learning difficulties, pragmatics and language learning as well as pragmatic language disorders. Her current focus is on metadiscourse and (im)politeness in written academic discourse.

Anna Niżegorodcew took her Ph.D. at the Philosophical Faculty of the Jagiellonian University, Krakow, Poland. She is professor of English and head of the Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching Section of the Department of English Studies at the Jagiellonian University. She was founder and head of the Jagiellonian University Foreign Language Teachers' Training College. Prof. A. Niżegorodcew has published a number of books and articles in the areas of teaching English, second language acquisition and second/foreign language teacher education. Recently she has participated in two intercultural teacher training projects: the European Master for Teacher Training Project and the Polish-Ukrainian Project: Developing Intercultural Competence through English. Her main areas of interest are SLA theory and research, L2 classroom discourse, communication strategies, intercultural communication and English as a lingua franca. E-mail: annanizegorodcew@gmail.com

Mirosław Pawlak is Professor of English in the Department of English Studies at the Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts of Adam Mickiewicz University in Kalisz, Poland and the Institute of Modern Languages of State School of Higher Professional Education, Konin, Poland. His main areas of interest are SLA theory

and research, form-focused instruction, corrective feedback, classroom discourse, learner autonomy, communication and learning strategies, individual learner differences and pronunciation teaching. His recent publications include *The place of form-focused instruction in the foreign language classroom* (2006, Kalisz–Poznań: Adam Mickiewicz University Press), *Production-oriented and comprehension-based grammar teaching in the foreign language classroom* (with Anna Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2011, Heidelberg, New York: Springer), *Error correction in the foreign language classroom*: *Reconsidering the issues* (2012, Poznań, Kalisz, Konin: Adam Mickiewicz University Press), and several edited collections on learner autonomy, language policies of the Council of Europe, form-focused instruction, speaking in a foreign language and individual learner differences.

Liliana Piasecka is Professor of English, Opole University, where she works as an applied linguist, researcher and teacher trainer. She teaches SLA and ELT courses, and supervises M.A. and Ph.D. theses. Her research interests include second/foreign language acquisition issues, especially L2 lexical development, relations between L1 and L2 reading, gender and identity. She has published two books, numerous articles, and co-edited two collections of essays.

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel is Professor of English at the Institute of English, Opole University (Poland), where she teaches EFL methodology and SLA courses. She specializes in the role of affect in the foreign language learning process (anxiety, motivation, willingness to communicate in L2). Her interests also include special educational needs (developmental dyslexia, autism and AD/HD). She has published papers in Poland and worldwide, two books, and co-edited three others, as well as a special issue of *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, entitled *Affect in second language learning*.

Stanisaw Puppel is Professor of English and Applied Linguistics at the Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, Poland. He is head of the Department of Eco-communication and author of many publications in the areas of contrastive English-Polish phonology, teaching of English as a foreign language, psycholinguistics, ecolinguistics and rheolinguistics. His main publications are: *A handbook of Polish pronunciation for English learners* (1977 and 1979), *Aspects of the psychomechanics of speech production* (1988), *The dynamics of speech production* (1992), *A concise guide to psycholinguistics* (1966 and 2001). He has supervised 20 doctoral theses and served as supervisor in over 230 master's theses.

Teresa Siek-Piskozub is Professor Ordinarius in the unit of English Applied Linguistics and English Didactics of the Faculty of English, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań and was its head till 2012. She is an author of many articles and five books on foreign language teaching and learning of which one was translated into Romanian. Her research and scholarship addresses applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, theories of language learning and teaching. She (co)edited collections on applied linguistics and EFL pedagogy. For many years

she was the editor of the Modern Language Association of Poland's journal *Neofilolog* and of the newsletter of the Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes *FIPLV World News.* She lectured in many countries and took part in a big number of national and international conferences. Contact information: Piskozub@amu.edu.pl

Magdalena Szpotowicz, Ph.D., University of Warsaw, Poland, graduate of the Institute of English at the University of Warsaw. Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Education at her alma mater. She also works at the Educational Research Institute in Warsaw where she is involved in a national research project devoted to the monitoring of pupils' foreign language achievement in school education. In years 2006–2010 a country manager of a multinational longitudinal research study Early Language Learning in Europe (ELLiE). Co-author of the Polish national curriculum for foreign languages and author of academic publications on early language learning and teaching. She also authors coursebooks, school curricula and didactic materials.

Ewa Waniek-Klimczak is Professor of English Linguistics and Head of the Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics at the University of Łódź. Her main areas of interest are second language phonetics and phonology, sociolinguistics and pronunciation teaching. She organizes annual conferences on native and non-native Accents of English every December. She has edited and co-edited collections of papers on applied phonetics, with the most recent publication co-edited with Linda Shockey on *Teaching and researching English accents in native and non-native speakers* (2012, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Verlag). Her main previous publications include the book on *Temporal parameters in second language speech*: *An applied linguistic phonetics approach*. (2005, Łódź University of Łódź Press) and *Issues in Accents of English I and II* (2008 and 2010, Cambridge Scholars Publishing). She is an editor-in-chief of *Research in Language*, an international journal published by the University of Łódź.

Jan Zalewski is Professor of English at Opole University, Poland. He received his M.A. in English philology from the University of Wroclaw, Poland, and his Ph.D. in English studies from Illinois State University. He is the author of two books (*Enhancing linguistic input in answer to the problem of incomplete second language acquisition* and *Epistemology of the composing process*) and the editor of three. His current research interests focus on the acquisition of academic discourse in English as a foreign language.

Jerzy Zybert is Professor of English and Applied Linguistics at the University of Social Sciences, Warsaw, and the University of Warsaw. He teaches courses in SLA and EFL methodology. These two fields are his main academic interests. Prof. Zybert has published a few dozen articles in Poland and abroad and is the author of two monographs (*Errors in foreign language learning. The case of Polish learners of English*, 1999, and *Efektywność w szkolnej nauce języka obcego* [*Effective language learning in the foreign language classroom*], 2012). He has

edited the collective monograph *Issues in foreign language learning and teaching*, 2006. He has supervised 12 doctorates and about 300 M.A. theses. Member of several scholarly organizations and editorial boards.