Second Language Learning and Teaching

Andrzej Łyda
Konrad Szcześniak *Editors*

Awareness in Action

The Role of Consciousness in Language Acquisition

Springer

Second Language Learning and Teaching

Series Editor

Mirosław Pawlak

For further volumes:
http://www.springer.com/series/10129

About the Series

The series brings together volumes dealing with different aspects of learning and teaching second and foreign languages. The titles included are both monographs and edited collections focusing on a variety of topics ranging from the processes underlying second language acquisition, through various aspects of language learning in instructed and non-instructed settings, to different facets of the teaching process, including syllabus choice, materials design, classroom practices and evaluation. The publications reflect state-of-the-art developments in those areas, they adopt a wide range of theoretical perspectives and follow diverse research paradigms. The intended audience are all those who are interested in naturalistic and classroom second language acquisition, including researchers, methodologists, curriculum and materials designers, teachers and undergraduate and graduate students undertaking empirical investigations of how second languages are learnt and taught.

Andrzej Łyda · Konrad Szcześniak
Editors

Awareness in Action

The Role of Consciousness in Language Acquisition

Springer

Editors
Andrzej Łyda
Konrad Szcześniak
Institute of English
University of Silesia
Sosnowiec
Poland

ISSN 2193-7648 ISSN 2193-7656 (electronic)
ISBN 978-3-319-00460-0 ISBN 978-3-319-00461-7 (eBook)
DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7
Springer Cham Heidelberg New York Dordrecht London

Library of Congress Control Number: 2013943945

Printed on acid-free paper

Springer is part of Springer Science+Business Media (www.springer.com)

Preface

It may appear odd that in the context of language acquisition, the contribution of consciousness was originally discussed almost exclusively in terms of its absence. Indeed, the very definition of language acquisition in children stresses the unconscious nature of linguistic development accompanied by little effort or awareness.

It is no wonder then that the idea of unconscious processes took on an air of superiority also in the case of second and foreign language acquisition, and conscious reflection evident in monitoring came to be viewed as unnatural. If awareness was considered a positive at all, it was as something of a consolation prize rather than a true asset. It resembled a deficiency that is evident but is better left unmentioned, like a prosthesis for missing unconscious automaticity and intuition. As a result, in foreign language teaching, especially in communicative methodology models, direct grammar instruction was avoided or at best considered a necessary evil, as if in the hope that if conscious control is not overused, then natural processes will spontaneously kick in.

The rationale behind this attitude is sound enough. "Lower" modes of language functioning such as handling grammar or phonology should not and do not require anything like rapt attention. This makes evolutionary sense. Given that language is one of the first skills acquired by children, it must be tailored to their cognitive style marked precisely by little reflective attention.

Further, it is not just that there is no need for conscious analysis of one's production, but that such conscious analysis is often impossible, even if we chose to focus on fine details of language production. As Jackendoff (1997) observes, many aspects of language functioning are under the radar of awareness and cannot register in a person's conscious attention. "We can't be aware of the frequency analysis our auditory system performs on an incoming sound wave; we just hear a sound" and processes like this happen "as if by magic" (p. 181). Thus, listeners are unaware of features like aspiration, vowel shortening, or voicing. This does not mean that learners cannot understand the principles responsible for allophonic processes, "[b]ut even when we figure out how the brain does it, we still won't be able to catch ourselves in the act!" (p. 181). This applies to a range of examples of linguistic phenomena, and Jackendoff ventures that the lexicon and the rules of grammar are in fact opaque to conscious report.

However, in the last two decades or so, language awareness has become a fairly popular topic in the literature on second language acquisition. This has no doubt been due to the recognition that, for better or worse, awareness is a hallmark of adult intelligence and by extension, there is really no good reason why it should not aid linguistic acquisition. This about-face is, of course, contingent on one's views of language. If one accepts strictly nativist arguments of language as a predisposition to be developed within the critical period, then practice accompanied by awareness makes little difference. But if the nativist model is adopted in a weaker form, leaving some room for neuroplasticity as vindicated by recent research, language could reasonably be assumed to be like other skills mastered through diligent mindful practice.

Recent research and theorizing has largely been concerned with the role of awareness from the teacher's perspective. Briefly, scholars have looked at the correlation between the teacher's formal knowledge of the language system and the benefits that this knowledge can bring. Among the most obvious questions has been how exactly the teacher's understanding of the nature of language improves the effectiveness of teaching. Somewhat less attention, initially at least, was devoted to awareness in learners. This is probably because most L2 learners are children and adolescents, traditionally believed to benefit mostly from learning by doing rather than by reflecting on form.

This has changed significantly in the last couple of years, when increasingly more scholars began to investigate how language awareness can enable learners to attain proficiency. The present volume is a reflection and product of this surge in interest in the learner's explicit understanding of language. Studies featured here analyze the awareness in advanced learners, mostly university students—proficient users of English and learners of other languages, but above all adults capable of grasping abstract details about the structure of the language system. Most chapters in the volume look at how language awareness affects the outcomes of foreign and second language acquisition in advanced learners. The authors focus on questions such as how much linguistic knowledge is open to the learner's conscious experience, what should and should not be considered knowledge of language, how language awareness can be enhanced in the classroom, and most crucially, what effects language awareness can have on attained proficiency.

Although the chapters in this volume interlock with each other along several dimensions, the volume is divided into three parts in terms of the specific focus taken by the authors.

The first part, titled *Teaching*, opens with Hanna Komorowska's critical discussion of the development of the concept of language awareness in language teaching followed by an analysis of consciousness and awareness studies in areas other than applied linguistics. In the second chapter in this part Roger Berry considers the use of instruments designed to study language awareness and discusses the dangers awaiting LA researchers failing to distinguish terminology from metalanguage in LA tests. Zbigniew Możejko's study investigates teachers' and learners' views on language awareness, attempting to elicit exactly what they understand by the term and how the understanding affects teaching practice. In the

last chapter of this part, Ewa Guz extends the study of the relation between language awareness and teaching practice to metalinguistic awareness raising. Her report on a study on metalingustic knowledge among three groups of Polish users of English concludes with a suggestion on how to improve unsatisfactory levels in the teachers' and learners' levels of language awareness.

The second part of this volume encompasses the research of language awareness scholars with an emphasis on learning. Mirosław Pawlak opens the part with a broad overview of empirical studies on learners' awareness of the corrective feedback they receive in the process of learning and points to possible future directions of research in this area. The three chapters to follow concentrate on various aspects of language awareness and phonetics interface. Monika Grotek's chapter tackles the issue of language awareness in the university curriculum of practical phonetics and phonology, and presents the results of a study in students' perception of effectiveness of language awareness activities among English philology freshmen. Marcin Bergier's contribution presents the results of an experimental study of the impact of explicit phonetic instruction on no release burst in cluster contexts on the acquisition of the segments. The results show that metaphonetic awareness facilitates the acquisition process. Also, the research conducted by Ewa Czajka into learners' awareness of word-level stress brings similar results suggesting tentatively that theoretical instruction is conducive to the elimination of word stress errors. Aneta Kot's contribution adds to the growing literature on the use of conversational hedges. She addresses the issue of learners' preferences regarding various types of activities aiming to raise their awareness of pragmatic functions of hedges. Teresa Maria Włosowicz investigates the problem of language awareness in the context of language attrition among two groups of L3/L4 learners showing that language awareness is strongly dependent on an array of factors such as learners' motivation and needs. Ewa Guz's chapter nominates as the object of her study advanced learners' perception and recognition of formulaic sequences and shows that learners of English are largely unaware of its lexically patterned nature. The final two chapters in this part are devoted to questions related to the role of language awareness in foreign text comprehension by university learners of English. Liliana Piasecka studies how learners use their knowledge in a jigsaw reading and listening task and Katarzyna Papaja details the ways in which they apply metacognitive strategies in L2 reading tasks.

The chapters grouped in the third part, *Culture*, focus on culture-related aspects of language awareness and relate the notion to a number of theoretical backgrounds.

Danuta Gabryś-Barker falls firmly into this category with her careful analysis of restaurant naming habits in the culturally distinct contexts of Portugal and Poland. She argues that the awareness of different conceptualizations of culturally grounded phenomena is necessary for the development of intercultural communicative competence. Also concerned with the role of culture is Beata Malczewska-Webb, who examines the association between linguistic and cultural awareness and students' cultural background in Australia. The last two chapters in this volume deal with the question of English as a lingua franca. Anna Niżegorodcew's chapter

reports on the results of a study on Polish and Ukrainian students' perception of English as a lingua franca and shows that the concept of EFL is approved of by even those desiring native speaker proficiency in English. Similar results have been obtained in a study presented in the final chapter by Anna Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Jakub Bielak, whose findings show that although becoming native-like is still the objective of many learners, their perception of a native speaker as a model to follow has changed in the world dominated by English as lingua franca.

We hope that this collection of very carefully selected studies well documents the research in a thriving and dynamic field of enquiry and that it will be not only useful but also inspiring.

Andrzej Łyda
Konrad Szcześniak

Reference

Jackendoff, R. 1997. *The architecture of the language faculty*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Acknowledgments

The success of any large operation depends on the involvement of a usually unsung quartermaster, who knows everybody that matters and is ready to act as soon as—and even before—action is necessary. Our most sincere thanks go to Dagmara Gałajda, whose skills and help above and beyond the call of duty have made this project stress-free and enjoyable.

Contents

Contributors

Marcin Bergier is a Ph.D. candidate at the Institute of English of the University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland. He graduated from the University of Silesia submitting B.A. and M.A. theses in the field of phonetics. He teaches English and German. His academic teaching experience includes work in practical phonetics, practical grammar of English, and specialized text translation. His research interests are chiefly production of speech in longitudinal and imitative experiments, acoustic-segmental and suprasegmental speech analysis with a current focus on plosive sounds and stress-dependent vowel reduction, acquisition of L2 phonetic subsystem regarding Polish–English students, and didactics of phonetics.

Roger Berry is Professor in the Department of English, Lingnan University, Hong Kong, where he teaches courses in English Grammar and Applied Linguistics. His interests lie in Pedagogic Grammar, Metalanguage and Terminology, and Language Play. He has recently published two books: *English Grammar: A Resource Book for Students* (Routledge, 2012) and *Terminology in English Language Teaching* (Peter Lang, 2010).

Jakub Bielak obtained his Ph.D. in Linguistics from the School of English of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland. He teaches at the English Department of the Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts (Kalisz, Poland) of the same university. His major interest is in cognitive linguistics, cognitive grammar in particular, and its applications in other areas of language study such as SLA and Critical Discourse Analysis. He has published several articles in edited volumes and co-edited another.

Ewa Czajka is a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Wrocław, Poland. She is an English Teacher and Teacher Trainer. Her research interests include foreign language pedagogy, with special attention to foreign language pronunciation instruction. Currently, she is working on her doctoral dissertation on pronunciation perception and production training at the upper secondary school level of education.

Danuta Gabryś-Barker is Professor of English at the University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland. Her main areas of interest are multilingualism and psycholinguistics (modalities, learner profiles, and affectivity). As a Teacher Trainer she lectures on research methods in second language acquisition and TEFL projects. She has published over a 100 articles nationally as well as internationally and two books *Aspects of Multilingual Storage*, *Processing and Retrieval* (Katowice: University of Silesia Press, 2005) and *Reflectivity in Pre-service Teacher Education. A Survey of Theory and Practice* (Katowice: University of Silesia Press, 2012). She has also edited several volumes. She is the Chief Editor (together with Eva Vetter) of the *International Journal of Multilingualism* (Routledge).

Monika Grotek is a Lecturer at the Institute of English, University of Silesia in Katowice, Poland. Her research interests include age-related factors in foreign language acquisition, foreign language learning in different stages of adulthood, and sociolinguistic aspects of the processes of cross-linguistic borrowing.

Ewa Guz holds a doctoral degree in linguistics from John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin, where she is currently employed as a Lecturer at the Department of Methodology and Typhlodidactics. Her most recent research interests include: the development of academic literacy at the undergraduate level, L2 proficiency measures, formulaicity vs creativity in L2 production and acquisition, teacher training, and classroom discourse analysis.

Hanna Komorowska, full Professor of Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching at the Institute of English, University of Social Sciences and Humanities as well as at Warsaw University, is a consultant to the European Centre of Modern Languages in Graz. Her research interests are in FLT methodology and teacher education.

Aneta Kot is a Senior Lecturer at the College of Foreign Languages in Częstochowa. Since 2001 she has been working in the Department of English Language Teaching. In 2000 she graduated from the University of Wrocław with an M.A. degree. Her research interests include: the notion of fluency, the politeness phenomenon, spoken discourse, and specialist translation.

Andrzej Łyda is the Head of the Institute of English, University of Silesia, Poland. His research interests include interactional linguistics, spoken discourse analysis, and translation and interpreting. His recent publications include a book on *Concessive Relation in Spoken Discourse*: *A Study into Academic Discourse Spoken English*.

Beata Malczewska-Webb is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at Bond University, Queensland, Australia, where she lectures in Language Teacher Education and Linguistics to linguistically and culturally diverse groups of students. Her research focuses on various aspects of the internationalization of education in Australia and globally. She is also interested in discourse analysis and possession as a cross-linguistic phenomenon.

Zbigniew P. Możejko Ph.D., is Assistant Professor at the Institute of English Studies, University of Warsaw, specializing in ELT methodology and teacher training. His research interests include CLIL, discourse analysis, tokens of advanced language, language awareness, and needs analysis.

Anna Mystkowska-Wiertelak received her doctoral degree in Applied Linguistics from Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. She is a Teacher and a Teacher Educator working at the English Department of the Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts of Adam Mickiewicz University in Kalisz as well as the Institute of Modern Languages of the State School of Higher Professional Education in Konin. Her main interests comprise, apart from teacher education, second language acquisition theory and research, language learning strategies, learner autonomy, form-focused instruction, and motivation.

Anna Niżegorodcew is Professor of Applied Linguistics and English language teaching at the English Studies Department of the Jagiellonian University. She has published a number of books and articles in the areas of teaching English, second language acquisition, and second/ foreign language teacher education. Her recent interests focus on intercultural communication and the role of English as a lingua franca.

Katarzyna Papaja works in the Institute of English at the University of Silesia. She received her Ph.D. degree in Applied Linguistics. She specializes in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Bilingual Education. Katarzyna Papaja has taken part in many conferences abroad and in Poland. She has published widely on bilingual education methodologies (mainly Content and Language Integrated Learning—CLIL). She was part of the team which conducted the groundwork leading to the publication of *Profile Report-Bilingual Education* (*English*) *in Poland*. She was also awarded a few scholarships and as a result was able to gain teaching experience in countries such as Great Britain, the USA, and Germany. At the moment she is working on the development of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) syllabus.

Mirosław Pawlak is Professor of English in the Department of English Studies at the Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts of Adam Mickiewicz University, Kalisz, Poland and the Institute of Modern Languages of State School of Higher Professional Education, Konin, Poland. His main areas of interest are form-focused instruction, corrective feedback, classroom discourse, learner autonomy, communication and learning strategies, individual learner differences, and pronunciation teaching. His recent publications include *Production-Oriented and Comprehension-Based Grammar Teaching in the Foreign Language Classroom* (with Anna Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2012, Berlin–New York: Springer), *Error Correction in the Foreign Language Classroom: Reconsidering the Issues* (2012, Poznań—Kalisz—Konin: Adam Mickiewicz University Press), *Applying Cognitive Grammar in the Foreign Language Classroom*: *Teaching English Tense and Aspect* (with Jakub Bielak, 2013, Berlin–New York: Springer), as well as 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. Mirosław Pawlak is Editor of the journal *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, published by Adam Mickiewicz University, and the book series *Second Language Learning and Teaching*, published by Springer.

Liliana Piasecka is Professor at the Institute 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, the use of literary texts in foreign language learning and teaching, as well as gender and identity. She has published two books, numerous articles, and co-edited two collections of essays.

Konrad Szcześniak is an assistant professor at the University of Silesia, Poland. His research focuses on the syntax–semantics interface and cognitive aspects of language acquisition and processing.

Aleksandra Wach, Ph.D., works at the Department of English, Adam Mickiewicz University as an EFL Teacher and Teacher Trainer. Her main research interests include: learning and teaching grammar, learning and teaching pronunciation, teacher training, various aspects of classroom management, and, currently, the application of new technologies in foreign language learning and teaching.

Teresa Maria Włosowicz obtained her Ph.D. in Linguistics in 2009. Since then, she has worked at the Silesian School of Economics and Languages in Katowice, the Academy of Humanities and Economics in Lodz and the Social Academy of Sciences in Warsaw. She is currently working on her post-doctoral thesis *Selected Psycholinguistic Aspects of Multilingualism*. Her research interests include psycholinguistics, language acquisition, sociolinguistics, multilingualism, applied linguistics, and translation studies.

Part I
Teaching

Language Awareness: From Embarras de Richesses to Terminological Confusion

Hanna Komorowska

Abstract The first part of the chapter contains a discussion of the origins of the concept of language awareness looking at its role in first, second and foreign language teaching. It also examines both synchronically and diachronically issues investigated within the framework of language awareness research tracing them back to the clash of audiolingualism and cognitivism at the turn of the 1960s as well as finding synergies with those tackled under other guises in the present day. The aim of the analysis is to show tendencies to subsume most of the SLA/FLT issues under the umbrella term of language awareness as well as to critically assess the added value of reconceptualising formerly researched problems within the LA approach. In the second part of the text approaches to consciousness and awareness in disciplines other than applied linguistics are presented, i.e. the evolutionary approach to the development of acquired concepts in neurobiology, the phenomenological approach to consciousness in philosophy, the dialogic approach in sociology, the reflective approach in educational sciences as well as approaches based on Bataille's concept of transgression traced back to early Hasidic teaching and on Kristeva's concept of abjection in cultural anthropology. In the final section implications of the analysis for first, second and foreign language teacher education are discussed.

1 Introduction

The approach to Language Awareness I would like to adopt in this text consists in treating the history and the present status of the concept as an example of ways in which Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching theory and

H. Komorowska (✉)
University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: hannakomo@data.pl

H. Komorowska
University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_1,

research have been developing over the last decades. I am, therefore, interested in Language Awareness inasmuch as it would help me to develop a deeper understanding of the state of our discipline and of what motivates today's research, i.e. much like Mieczysław Porębski, a long-time director of the Institute of Art History at the Jagiellonian University, Cracow, looked at the history of art when he wrote 'I am not interested in the history of art itself. I could as well work in the field of engineering or forensic science. What I am interested in is what it tells me about the world and about how people perceive it' (Porębski 1975/2011, p. 146, transl. HK).

My interest in the problem has been growing along with the growth of classroom teachers' disappointment with SLA and FLT theory and research, a phenomenon I constantly have to face in pre- and in-service teacher education. It would be an easy option to blame teachers and accuse them of requesting recipes and waiting for ready-made solutions. We have to investigate whether the discipline itself is not at least partially responsible for this mistrust on the part of practitioners. What might be a reason for it is a considerable amount of inconclusive or straightforwardly contradictory research results in mainstream SLA/FLT, though not in its 'niches of precision' such as the age factor, languages for specific purposes, specific language impairment, or issues of bilingualism and multilingualism.

The concept of Language Awareness and its career in SLA might help us to understand these issues as it has been twenty years since the day it entered the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning—sufficient time to attempt generalisations and invite questions and answers, although most likely there will be many questions and very few answers.

In the present chapter I would, therefore, like to

- discuss the context which gave rise to the career of the concept of Language Awareness,
- analyse the way that career has been developing in the last two decades,
- look at the way the concepts of consciousness and awareness are approached in disciplines other than SLA or FLT,
- look at the present status of the concept of Language Awareness with its advantages and disadvantages, and
- make an attempt to find out what it tells us about SLA and FLT and about what it means for teacher education today.

2 The birth of an Idea: Origins of the Concept of Language Awareness

In the field of SLA and FLT the concept of language awareness, though born around four decades earlier, was not at all popular till the beginning of the 1990s. The first texts which attracted attention were those published by Brumfit (1991),

James and Garret (1991) and Wright (1991). Breakthrough came in the years 1990–1992, when the Association for Language Awareness was established and the journal entitled *Language Awareness* was issued. A considerable number of articles appeared almost immediately afterwards (Gnutzmann 1997; Tomlin and Villa 1994; Van Lier 1994) and in 1997 the term entered the *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (Van Lier and Corson 1997; Wallace 1997). Since that time hardly any text in the field would risk ignoring the term, if not the concept.

Two questions arise here:

- What happened around the year 1990 that started the spectacular career of this concept?
- Why did it happen at this specific time?

It is worth remembering that the concept of language awareness, so popular in second and foreign language teaching and learning research of the present day, does not come from the domain in which it is now so widely used. It is a concept put forward as an attempt to answer the needs of L1 in the British school system as perceived by teachers of English, but also by renowned linguists such as Halliday as early as in the 1960s. Therefore, let us move back half a century—why that concept in that field and why at that time?

In those days falling standards of English were considered to spring from ways of teaching English in British schools. What went unnoticed or was not explicitly formulated for reasons of political correctness was the fact that English at that time was not the first language of many British school students, but the language of instruction for children and teenagers with a large variety of home languages. Huge influx of immigrants in the 1950 and 1960s was the consequence of the fact that British economy could benefit from migrant labour, while immigrants from the New Commonwealth gained a chance for a better life. In response to the influx of immigrants, and later of their dependants, successive governments—not exactly happy about unrestricted immigration—started taking steps to deal with the problem in ways which could hardly satisfy everybody at the same time, as can be seen in *The Commonwealth Immigrants Act* of 1962, *The Commonwealth Immigrant Act* of 1968, the *Immigration Act* of 1971, or *The British Nationality Act* of 1981.

The situation in schools grew more difficult, therefore specific educational provision was needed after large numbers of women and children had entered the UK to join their male relatives already living and working in Britain. The issue was addressed in the *Bullock Report* of 1975 which, showing due respect to students' mother tongues, stressed the need to improve literacy teaching in British schools. A decade later, in 1985, National Council of Language in Education stressed the need for sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language in its social, affective and cognitive domains. Although practical materials with activities related to language in use (Halliday 1971) and designed to present and analyse language varieties were already available and could easily be introduced into the curriculum, not much work was actually done in schools along those lines and the existing materials remained largely unused.

Change came in the form of the British Language Awareness Movement initiated by Eric Hawkins and promoted in his book *Awareness of Language* (Hawkins 1984). The change was officially approved of in 1988 in the *Kingman Report* as well as in the *Cox Report* published a year later, i.e. in 1989, as both documents stressed the role of Knowledge about Language (KAL) and looked at English in a wider perspective. Practical implementation followed within the frames of the *LINC* (*Language in the National Curriculum*) *Project* in the 1990s. The first links between the language of instruction and students' home languages and thus between the first and the second or even the third language were established. It was approximately at that time that the concept of language awareness was transferred to the field of second and foreign language study and since then its career has developed in a spectacular way.

Before we have a look at this development—let me attempt *conclusion 1:*

Terms which become central in SLA and FLT are likely to be born outside these disciplines as demonstrated not only by the concept of Language Awareness, but also by examples of other concepts such as those of attention *or* anxiety.

3 Terms and Definitions Used in the Field of Language Awareness

An early definition offered by the Association for Language Awareness reads as follows: 'Language awareness is a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in the human life' (quoted in Svalberg 2007, p. 287). This definition is extremely interesting for two reasons. Firstly, it breaks all the basic rules of classical defining standards by being a typical example of a circular explanation and *idem per idem* definition. Secondly, it introduces the concept of conscious awareness which implies that awareness can be conscious or unconscious—an idea both supported and contested in the literature.

More recent information from the same source states that Language Awareness can be defined as 'explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use', where conscious knowledge is even more strongly emphasized. This approach has characterised language awareness research since 1995. Over the last two decades language awareness has been defined as metacognition, as explicit knowledge, as ability to focus on form and even as a synonym of the 'back to grammar' approach (Bolitho et al. 2003, p. 257).

At present the term 'awareness' is usually used synonymously with the term 'consciousness', which is well reflected in equivalent terms in other languages: the French *prise de conscience de la langue*, the German *Sprachbewußtsein* and *Sprachbewußtheit*, the Italian *consapevolezz*a and *coscienza*, the Spanish *conciencia lingüistica*, the Polish *świadomość językowa* or the English *consciousness-raising*, though this last term has mainly been used in the United States. This

approach identifying consciousness and awareness does not come as a surprise considering the fact that the concept of Language Awareness, as discussed above, had to do with the quality of the school system and specifically with the dissatisfaction with low literacy standards in the schools of the United Kingdom. Discussions, however, often reduce the field to research on explicit and implicit learning. Juggling synonyms in the defining process adds to the confusion—*conscious* might mean *explicit* in Schmidt (1994), but *explicit* is defined as *conscious* in Ellis (1994a). An attempt to list domains for which the term *consciousness* should be used was undertaken by Schmidt as early as 1994 and resulted in the identification of four of them, i.e.

- intentional versus incidental learning,
- focal versus peripheral attention,
- controlled versus automatic processing, and
- explicit versus implicit learning.

This attempt, however, has not so far contributed to a clearer picture of the discipline as both terms, i.e. *consciousness* and *awareness*, are even today used interchangeably in plenty of writings in the field (Svalberg 2007; Turula 2011).

Yet some equivalents bring in new aspects—the English *sensitivity to language*, the French *eveil aux langues* and the Polish *uwrażliwienie na język* point to awareness which has not yet or even not at all become conscious, while the German *Sprachreflexion* emphasizes the aspect of reflecting on the way language works.

We can also find terms which demonstrate new ways of understanding Language Awareness. Malakoff states that 'to be metalinguistically aware means to know how to approach and solve certain types of problems which themselves demand certain cognitive and linguistic skills' (Malakoff 1992, p. 518) and this implies both proficiency and efficiency. Gombert identifies it with the intentional planning and monitoring of linguistic processes, which points to a fully conscious approach (Gombert 1992, p. 13) in a way similar to the path taken by James and Garret who defined awareness as an ability to reflect on language functions (James and Garret 1991, p. 3).

In certain approaches Language Awareness is related not only to consciousness, but also to the ability to verbalise and communicate one's own understanding to others: Możejko treats it as the ability to 'metalinguistically explain ungrammaticality' (Możejko 2002) and Jessner goes even further understanding metalinguistic awareness as being able to 'focus attention on language as an object in itself' and 'to be able to think abstractly about language and, consequently, to play with or manipulate language' (Jessner 2006, p. 42).

Even teaching and learning aspects find their way into the defining process with *language awareness* as explicit instruction related to the code used at lessons and *linguistic awareness* as a set of cognitive processes in learners (Masny 1997). Soon in the field of SLA and FLT new terms were introduced, *linguistic awareness*, *metalinguistic awareness*, *metalingual awareness*, *cross-linguistic awareness*, *multilingual awareness* and *critical language awareness* often overlapping with concepts of *language aptitude* and *linguistic ability*.

In the present decade ways of using the term *awareness* seem to be a bit more systematic with

- *knowledge of language* referring to both explicit and implicit learning,
- *language awareness* referring to the first language, the language of schooling or implicit learning,
- *consciousness raising* or *language awareness* referring to the teacher's perspective,
- *linguistic awareness* referring to the learner's perspective,
- *language learning awareness* referring to the enhancement of knowledge about language learning,
- *cross-linguistic awareness* referring to foreign language learning,
- *multilingual awareness* referring to awareness of language, but also to issues of pluri- and multilingualism, and
- *critical language awareness* referring to issues of language and society.

These are, however, but tendencies. The term *language awareness* is still used freely for all the above domains. The incredible definitional chaos connected with the unbelievable number of meanings of the term must, at least partially, be rooted in the type of issues the concept of Language Awareness allows to tackle. What are they exactly?

The concept of *language awareness*, as can be seen from the above, is sometimes used to describe both focus on form and focus on forms, both the teacher's and the learner's perspective, both explicit and implicit learning, sometimes even both intuition and knowledge—thus nowadays it refers to literally anything from the early start through power and gender to intercultural competence. The term is often used synonymously with *consciousness*, though the latter term seems to be used somewhat less often. Even the whole spectrum of research projects investigating benefits of bi- and multilingualism in the cognitive domain is referred to as research on multilingual awareness (Jessner 2006, pp. 37–40). In fact, looking at any list of issues covered by LA research conducted in the last two decades one starts wondering if Language Awareness has not become an umbrella term for any topic that has to do with psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, multilingualism, language policy and language education. It is worth analysing why this is so and what—if any—benefits spring from redefining or just renaming the field in this way.

Before we try to identify at least some of them—let me attempt *conclusion 2: In SLA and FLT terminological precision is not infrequently considered a straightjacket rather than a value.*

A question arises whether the terminological chaos described above is incidental or intended. In an attempt to analyse why so many terms are being used in such a confusing way, several answers need to be taken into consideration.

There, obviously, are easy—if not straightforwardly cynical—options in the interpretation process. Maybe the 'publish or perish' policy calls for new catchwords. Maybe a set of well-defined terms and systematically used terminology would annihilate the very intent of writing hundreds of articles on what language awareness is and what it is not. Maybe it is then no more than encouragement to

reformulate old ideas. In this sense the concept of Language Awareness would not prove very helpful for teachers and teacher trainers. This option—as one of the possibilities—was first analysed by Gnutzmann (1997).

It is highly probable, however, that the case is more serious and should be treated as a manifestation of considerable changes in the development of humanities. The classical paradigm consisting in forming concepts and labelling them in a convenient way to create systematic terminology has been done away with. It seems to have been replaced by another one which consists in coining new terms with no clear concepts behind them, which leads to endless debates on what these terms might mean with the hope to create theories some time later. We might call them postmodern 'evolving theories' rather than theoretical systems built on a preconceived set of assumptions. Let us hope that lengthy brainstorming eventually brings in desired benefits as it happens in radical paradigm shifts.

Yet if this is not the case, another possibility—not at all mutually exclusive with the first one—has to be considered. It is also likely that, despite easy access to huge amounts of information through a number of sources, academic disciplines do not cooperate sufficiently and there is not enough cross-fertilisation. I have already investigated this phenomenon elsewhere on the example of paradigms in language teacher education (Komorowska 2011a, 2011b). Synchronic lack of information flow seems to be accompanied by a diachronic one. There is almost no continuity in research work within the same academic discipline. Due to the influx of information from one field, it is not only that other academic disciplines are rarely visited, it is one's own field that is poorly covered by group memory. Let us, therefore, make a brief attempt to bridge this gap. Any kind of vagueness, both that coming from insufficient knowledge and that springing from intended – not to say ideological – lack of precision can only be cured by rediscovering old and finding new sources of information. Attempting this, we should not forget that while in the field of SLA/FLT both terms *awareness* and *consciousness* have been used interchangeably (Svalberg 2007), in other disciplines, to which we will soon move, the term *consciousness* is far more common.

Before we take a look at the way consciousness used to be approached in SLA and is now approached in other disciplines—let me attempt *conclusion 3:*

When a concept from another discipline is transferred to the field of SLA or FLT, it often starts a new 'limbo' life of vagueness with no links either to the discipline from which it comes or to other fields of science, as demonstrated not only by the concept of awareness*, but also—to give just one example—by that of* motivation.

4 Consciousness/Awareness in Applied Linguistics Before 1990

It is interesting to notice how certain ideas tend to be revived in predictable cycles of approximately 25–30 years, a Herodotian count of human generations. Let us look at an example relevant from the point of view of Language Awareness. The

turn of the 1960 and 1970s witnessed audiolingualism's final struggle with cognitivism, then the rising star of a theory. The battlefield was no other issue than the value of cognition and explicit language learning, especially in relation to grammar. A number of research projects were launched at that time which claimed the status of the so-called *experimentum crucis* that would identify the more efficient of the two teaching methods based on the two competing theories and in consequence point to the theory with a higher explanatory and predictive power. Well-known examples here are the *Colorado Project* conducted on 260 students and introducing grammatical commentaries within the frames of the new grammar-translation method (Scherer and Wertheimer 1964) and the *Pennsylvania Project* conducted on more than two thousand students (Smith 1970). Research projects of the time in Poland looked at the value of audiolingual and cognitive methods as well as of inductive and deductive approaches to FL learning (Komorowska 1975).

All these issues came back to us exactly a generation later in the multitude of 'back-to grammar' articles on language awareness as analysed in the state of the art review by Svalberg (2007) and the book by Jessner (2006) as well as in research projects on the role of pedagogical grammar (Piechurska-Kuciel 2005), on grammaticality judgements (Możejko 2002) and on form-focused instruction (Pawlak 2006; Turula 2011), to also quote a few of the Polish examples.

Why this reiteration? Does it take place, as Pawlak has it (Pawlak 2006), because of methodological flaws of research projects such as the Colorado and Pennsylvania ones—flaws consisting in lack of control over variables in large samples of students? It is a statement difficult to accept considering the fact that later research on classrooms demonstrated no better control over variables, plus involved much smaller samples, thus reducing the generalizability of results.

The question remains how long practitioners should wait while still remaining confident in the value of theory, considering they are offered not only inconclusive research reports but also conflicting recommendations. Researchers either postulate a *sine qua non* status of Language Awareness in the learning process or claim that it has no more than a facilitative function. The concept of conscious awareness implies that awareness can be conscious or unconscious, but the idea is both supported and contested in the literature. Information for teachers ranges from the Identity Hypothesis through Fundamental Similarity Hypothesis to Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (Bley-Vroman 1989; Ellis 1994b; VanPatten 2010), or from non-interface through weak interface to strong interface positions (Ellis 1997). One can only hope that research in the field of Language Awareness is knowledge-driven rather than decision-driven and as such contributes to the building of a theory rather than immediately informs practice. Practitioners could feel lucky at the times of pendulum swings as at least for some time recommendations they were given remained cohesive and coherent till the moment an opposite set of equally cohesive and coherent recommendations arrived. Nowadays globalization and acceleration create much more confusion and undermine the belief in the role of academy, research and theory. Even if researchers can ignore this situation, teacher educators cannot, all the more so for the fact that they themselves

encourage autonomous reflection in their trainees (Brookfield 1998; Fenner 2012; Komorowska 2011a, 2011b, 2012b).

All the above leads me to *conclusion 4:*

Basic issues of our discipline often prove impossible to be effectively investigated and the field has to fall back on psycholinguistic models—convenient because they are as numerous as they are unfalsifiable.

5 The Concept of Awareness/Consciousness Beyond the LA Field of Research

5.1 Consciousness in Neurobiology

In neurobiology consciousness is considered to be a product of our cortex which is a seat of both innate and acquired (synthetic) concepts. Concepts identified in many cultures and, therefore, treated as cross-cultural, such as colour, are considered innate, while acquired (synthetic) concepts develop both in the process of evolution and in the process of individual development.

Neurobiologists maintain that consciousness develops in the evolution process and that evolution takes place through the transfer of effective solutions rather than through problem-solving, the latter being far more time- and energy-consuming. The main evolutionary strategy of concept formation is abstraction defined as the ability to expose some selected features at the cost of others. It is interesting to note that abstraction is the only function shared by all the neural centres of the human brain. Selection criteria for abstracting processes can be modified according to the needs of the organism.

Yet, acquired (synthetic) concepts develop both in the process of evolution and in the process of individual development. This means that they can be modified by culture and experience. Projected onto a stimulus, abstract concepts help us create meanings. Ambivalence or polivalence is a consequence of several concepts being projected onto one stimulus. Stimuli, however, prove to be problematic as various brain centres are responsible for dealing with various stimuli. In consequence, our consciousness is not a unitary phenomenon. Let us look at a colourful, moving object. The brain centre responsible for colour is separate from the one responsible for movement. What is more, the colour centre processes information much faster than the movement one, therefore our brain image is in fact a product of asynchronic perception. A later phase of colour is linked to an earlier phase of movement. In fact our consciousness/awareness of a given phenomenon, i.e. our perception of a walking person, is a composite of numerous types of microconsciousness (Zeki 2009). All this leads to the concept of consciousness as a multifaceted, highly subjective and individual characteristic.

Implications for SLA are numerous. Consciousness thus understood cannot be taught. As a subjective characteristic it can only be individually developed and no

more than externally supported. It would not immediately respond to instruction treating it as just one more stimulus in the formation process. This, however, does not mean that explicit instruction is useless when it comes to the reduction of error on the way to linguistic correctness. If we define Language Awareness as the ability to make grammaticality judgments and explain one's intuitions then it could be taught. But then why use one term for so many meanings? Precision of defining certainly helps and there is deep wisdom in the evolution process in consequence of which as children we base our lexical development on the principle of contrast where a new word implies a new meaning (Gleason and Ratner 2005).

5.2 Consciousness in Philosophy and Sociology

Consciousness and perception were dealt with by most powerful phenomenological branches of twentieth century philosophy (Merleau-Ponty 2001). Consciousness was here considered as a factor which precedes knowledge in direct sensory contact and helps us to experience the outside world without cultural or intellectual preconceptions. This approach advocates immediate, authentic, personal contact with external stimuli and subsequent analysis of one's own perception. For SLA/FLT this would mean more direct exposure to language and only then—reflection on it.

In sociology consciousness, treated synonymously with reflection, is considered—as can be expected from the nature of the discipline—from the point of view of group processes. Florian Znaniecki, the Polish sociologist, maintained that the field of humanities deals with numerous manifestations of human consciousness, yet most often what we deal with is what is perceived by others, and this is the consciousness of other people, which points to the value of dialogic interaction (Znaniecki 1988, p. 25).

Jürgen Habermas and the Frankfurt school view interpersonal relationships as crucial to the understanding of consciousness. The path to it leads through reflection, seen as a dialogic process taking place in a group of people who discuss a selected issue in order to eventually arrive at an informed judgment (1974). Reflection is heuristic in the sense that it invites new issues to be further considered, but is often driven by critical intent and, therefore, brings about social change. As a social process on the one hand it is shaped by history, politics, culture and ideology and on the other it itself takes part in the shaping of new ideas (Fenner 2012). This approach gives an objectivising aspect to the concept of consciousness as perceived in neurobiology. In spite of its subjective and unique character, it can be negotiated in the communication process in order to arrive at a common image or definition. This sounds fairly optimistic in the present study of the multitude of meanings of the term *language awareness*.

In the field of SLA and FLT we cannot ignore the positive role of Language Awareness in drawing our attention to relatively new and extremely important

issues of bilingualism and multilingualism in the context of increased mobility in Europe and beyond it. This, however, cannot explain the multitude of well-known and constantly revisited research issues which have found it convenient to assume a new name and a new costume of language awareness.

5.3 Consciousness in Cultural Anthropology

In cultural anthropology consciousness can have both a static and a dynamic character and is defined as uninherited information, shaped by culture and based on social and individual memory. This corresponds to the idea of synthetic concepts in the neurobiological perspective.

A new aspect it brings into the discussion is that of transgression.

A study of consciousness as awareness started with an interesting interpretation of the Bible (Kristeva 1980). The Old Testament story of Adam and Eve was considered as an example of the famous kristevian concept of *abject—l'horreur* springing from the violation of the rule. Abjection as a reaction to sin reveals the importance of boundaries and each frontier points to the potentiality of crossing it—unfortunately at a certain cost. Yet transgression is a *sine qua non* condition for the development of consciousness as it brings about the ability to categorise, to analyse and to self-reflect, ideas presented much earlier, e.g. to the horror of many in numerous writings by Bataille (1943). Transgression facilitates development as long as the state of transgression is temporary and the new situation does not trap the transgressor in a static *cul-de-sac*. Here the role of a spiritual guide, a master-teacher, a figure known from the earliest days of Baal-Shem-Tov's Hasidism, is not to be overlooked (Komorowska 2012a).

In order to negotiate and communicate meaning we need symbols. The story of the multiplication of bread shows that satisfying physiological hunger paves the way for spiritual hunger—multiplication of bread symbolizes the multitude of perspectives and the enrichment of the human consciousness in the search for meaning (Kristeva 1980). Language plays an important role here, but is it also true for metalanguage? Anthropologists and semiologists tend to view metalanguage in its instrumental rather than independent role and as a system offering scales to measure objects and phenomena rather than as an entity in its own right (Lotman 1977).

Implications for SLA are again quite interesting. Metalanguage can prove helpful, but does not play a crucial role. What is important is the value of autonomous development with the right to trial and error. What gains new importance is the need for a combination of controlled and free practice, for a new role of the language teacher and for careful ways of introducing learners to autonomy. Yet even if it has been developed, the supportive presence of a guide who would counteract symptoms of fossilisation and provide error therapy is not to be overlooked.

5.4 Consciousness in Educational Sciences

Consciousness in educational sciences, usually referred to as 'reflection', has been considered in direct connection with Schön's concept of reflective practice which brings us very close to language teaching and learning. Philosophical and sociological approaches to reflection are here modified to incorporate both individual processes of analysing one's own activity and dialogic processes inherent in the contact of the trainee with the teacher trainer or mentor. In both cases the aim is to simultaneously engage in an activity and distance oneself from it in order to gain insight into the process and the product of the task in question. Engagement and disengagement can be exercised respectively as 'reflection-in-action' and 'reflection-on-action' (Schön 1985). But how does reflection take place? Here the contribution of the educational sciences is probably the greatest as it is in this discipline that the issue of implicit or explicit knowledge was first introduced.

Implicit or procedural knowledge, 'tacit knowledge', 'intuition' which enables a person to skilfully complete activities even though the actor might not be able to verbalize the process, are all concepts which have been analysed in the field of educational sciences for over 30 years now. This kind of knowledge was used in teacher development based on Bandura's concept of observation learning and on the craft model of teacher education (Wallace 1991).

Explicit knowledge entered the research scene relatively early, i.e. in the 1930s through the work of John Dewey, who analysed conscious decision-making and reflection from the point of view of identifying problems, suggesting alternative solutions, and formulating and testing hypotheses (Dewey 1933). Verbalisation at that time was not considered vital for the quality of reflection. Its value came together with the criticism of the Deweyan individual approach and with the arrival of the reflective practitioner concept in the 1980s. Reflection based on self-observation and self-assessment started gaining ground and this, naturally, gave a higher status to explicit knowledge and to verbalisation needed for self-reporting.

Implications for SLA/FLT point to the value of the dialogic approach and to the need for encouraging reflection and verbalisations in ways broader than the postVygotskian sociocultural perspective. Emphasis on dialogue, interaction and affect (Lantolf and Thorpe 2006) can be promoted through communicative and task-based approaches and through new tools for alternative assessment such as logs, diaries and portfolios.

6 Conclusion: Implications of Language Awareness for Teacher Education

The greatest trouble of teacher education today lies in the fact that so far Language Awareness has often been reduced to the distinction between *focus on forms* understood as traditional grammar teaching and *focus on form* understood as

communicative language teaching which includes drawing students' attention to linguistic forms (Long 1991). In consequence, teacher education has so far concentrated mainly on the part of LA research which looked at the consequences of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, especially in its strong version postulating noticing as a combination of attention and awareness, and seen as a *sine qua non* condition for converting input into intake (Schmidt 1990, p. 129). Today, this approach does not seem sufficient—not only in view of other research stances, but also to analyse the role of implicit knowledge and unconscious awareness demonstrated in very early, pre-school and kindergarten L2 learning.

Even if we remain in the realm of grammar, certain theoretical options are not easy to be integrated in teacher education. Those teaching within the frames of the communicative approach find it difficult to accept the idea of decontextualisation resulting in the teaching of isolated sentences as postulated in VanPatten's Processing Instruction (VanPatten 1996). Less radical postulates are not of great help here as form-focused instruction usually runs the danger of a largely technical, efficiency-oriented, if not straightforwardly mechanistic approach, unacceptable especially in the teaching of beginners or intermediate students.

At higher levels of instruction there is some evidence to support Swain's hypothesis (Swain 1985) that language awareness correlates with higher levels of language proficiency (Fortune 2005), though it is likely to be another 'chicken and egg' problem—higher levels of proficiency mean contact with more complex and abstract texts, more general knowledge and more grammar learning.

Whatever the approach, it is still difficult to explain to future or active teachers why it has been impossible for more than half a century to finally state whether grammatical commentaries are helpful, when and for whom. Mistrust understandably creeps in, yet hopes are also well-founded. Although my four conclusions outlined earlier point to what can be considered weaknesses in the development of SLA/FLT, there are also positive aspects, clearly shown in implications springing from contact with other disciplines and from a more solid anchorage in SLA's own history as has also been manifested above. Let us, therefore, identify benefits which can contribute to the development of teacher education.

In this field new ideas have been born within the frames of the communicative approach. In 1994 Borg formulated his five principles of LA methodology to be promoted in teacher education, i.e. ongoing investigation of language, talking analytically about the language, learners' involvement in discovery learning, learning to learn and involving learners in both cognitive and affective ways (Borg 1994)—principles which were later reformulated by Svalberg as description, exploration, languaging, engagement and reflection (Svalberg 2007).

Description and engagement—to use Svalberg's terminology—have been with us since the birth of the communicative approach. *Learning to learn* and *reflection* have been promoted by the Council of Europe and the European Union for more than two decades now. *Languaging*, a dialogic approach which encourages speaking about the way language is used, seems to be the most promising idea as has been presented on the example of developing print awareness in children

(Zawodniak 2011). Yet the concept of languaging will be helpful only on the condition that we refrain from using it to refer to formal or informal teacher commentaries as this would take us back to the eternal issue of the role of grammar in language teaching.

What is also useful is the distinction between the term *Teacher Language Awareness* and the term *Language Teacher Awareness*. In pre-service teacher education there is a considerable degree of overlap between these two types of awareness as trainees find themselves on a blurred border between learning and teaching. Both types of awareness can be seen developmentally as a passage from learner awareness to professional awareness, from acquiring knowledge of linguistic and cultural diversity to engaging in practical activity based on diversity now treated as a valuable resource (Pinho et al. 2011). A lot more attention needs, therefore, to be paid to the way professional awareness develops from awareness of oneself as a person, as a language learner and as a student teacher to the perception of oneself as a future teacher and finally as language teacher (Birello et al. 2011, p. 92; Gebhard and Oprandy 1999; Llurda and Huguet 2003). Ways should also be found to prevent professional fossilisation which is often manifested in teachers' conceptual mappings of learning and teaching and in their use of metaphors (Cortazzi and Jin 1999, 2008). The fact that Language Teacher Awareness is now high on our priority list can already be seen in recent publications (Breidbach et al. 2011; Gabryś-Barker 2012).

What emerges as one of the central issues in teacher education now that the early start in Europe is a fact is getting practitioners acquainted with the concept of ***child language awareness***. Child language awareness is manifested in comments on the speech of others, questions and comments on the child's own speech as well as in self-corrections, sometimes also in the play with words and in conscious manipulation of language or word coinages (Krasowicz-Kupis 2004; Slobin 1978). Even though language awareness thus understood is sometimes treated as a prerequisite to reading and sometimes as a variable strongly influenced by literacy (Jessner 2006, p. 45), its role in child development from implicit to explicit knowledge and from language awareness to metalinguistic consciousness (Titone 1994) is always considered significant.

Another important issue in teacher education is developing ***teenagers' and adults' language or metalingual awareness***. Now that more and more often teachers have to deal with multilingual classes, it is plurilingual awareness that needs to be developed in the first place (Gabryś-Barker 2004) as well as awareness of the value of language learning and use. Interesting paths in second and foreign language awareness development have been presented in recent research by Chik, who shows how LA starts from e.g. conceiving English as an academic subject when the learner says 'English is all about examinations' (Chik 2011, p. 29), then runs through conceptualising it as a language system as in 'English is our second language. It is not my mother tongue' (ibid., p. 31) to reach the stage of reflection on the way it is used in the social context, e.g. for self-presentation and getting things done ('English is a universal language that can be used anywhere in the world, it is like a credit card. English is my Visa Card') (ibid., p. 35).

This way of using autobiographical narratives (Pavlenko 2007) is now enhanced by various ways in which the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters* (2013) of the Council of Europe (www.coe.int) is being used in both formal and informal education. A path is then opened to the language teacher's functioning as an intercultural mediator. Mediation in this case is needed not only between the culture of the mother tongue and that of the foreign language, but increasingly also between the culture of the home language of the students and their language of schooling or between various cultures of students in a multilingual and/or a multicultural classroom. Another step is to include critical media literacy in the competences which are indispensable to effectively assume the role of intercultural mediator (Pegrum 2008; Risager 2007).

What can prove to be of great help are numerous practical materials based on concisely presented theoretical frameworks produced by the Council of Europe and the European Centre of Modern Languages in Graz, such as Renate Krüger's (2011) *Content-based modern language teaching for young learners* (http://eplc.ecml.at), Mercé Bernaus's *Content based teaching + plurilingual/cultural awareness* (Bernaus 2011), *Regional/minority languages in bi-/plurilingual education: languages from near and far* coordinated by Claude Cortier and Marisa Cavalli 2011 also available on (http://ebp-ici.ecml.at) or MARILLE—*Promoting plurilingualism. Majority language in multilingual settings* coordinated by Klaus-Börge Boeckmann (2011)—all basing on CLIL, reflection and intercomprehension.

It is worth remembering that the idea of Language Awareness started with the role of language as a harmonising agent, a bridging factor in the curriculum which today can be more appropriately referred to as transversal competence or, as Breidbach puts it, 'the cognitive tool through which all learning takes place' (Breidbach 2011, p. 11). Today a broader educational and cultural perspective, which would take us beyond the purely linguistic view of language awareness, seems far more promising. A comprehensive approach to Language Awareness embracing affective, social, political, cognitive and performative domains has already been postulated (Gnutzmann 2010).

Let us hope that such an approach will help us to understand the teachers' perspective and bridge the gap between research and the teaching practice.

References

Autobiography of intercultural encounters (AIE). http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/autobiography. Accessed 12 January 2013.

Bataille, G. 1943. *L'expérience intérieure.* Paris: Gallimard.

Bernaus, M. 2011. *Content-based teaching + plurilingual/cultural awareness.* Graz: ECML, Council of Europe Publishing.

Birello, M., C. Royer and D. Pluvinet. 2011. Reflective journals: A tool for the professional development of language teachers. In *Language awareness in teacher education,* eds. S. Breidbach, D. Elsner and A. Young, 11–19. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Bley-Vroman, R. 1989. What is the logical problem of foreign language learning? In *Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition,* eds. S. Gass and J. Schachter, 41–68. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Boeckmann, K. B., E. Aalto, A. Abel, T. Atanasoska and T. Lamb. 2011. *Promoting plurilingualism. Majority language in multilingual settings*. Graz: ECML.
Bolitho, R., R. Carter, R. Hughes, R. Ivanic, R. Masuhara and B. Tomlinson. 2003. Ten questions about language awareness. *ELT Journal* 57(3): 251–259.
Borg, S. 1994. Language awareness as a methodology. Implications for teachers and teacher training. *Language Awareness* 3(2): 61–71.
Breidbach, S. 2011. Language awareness in teacher education: cultural-political and social-educationl dimensions. In *Language awareness in teacher education,* eds. S. Breidbach, D. Elsner, and A. Young, 11–19. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
Breidbach, S., D. Elsner and A. Young, eds. 2011. *Language awareness in teacher education.* Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
Brookfield, S. 1998. *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
Brumfit, C. 1991. Language awareness in teacher education. In *Language awareness in the classroom,* eds. C. James and P. Garret, 24–39. London: Longman.
Chik, A. 2011. Language learner awareness development. In *Language awareness in teacher education,* eds. S. Breidbach, D. Elsner and A. Young, 23–39. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
Cortazzi, M. and L. Jin. 1999. Bridges to learning, metaphors of teaching, learning and language. In *Researching and applying metaphor,* eds. L. Cameron and G. Low, 149–176. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Cortazzi, M. and L. Jin. 2008. Images of teachers, learning and questioning in Chinese cultures of learning. In *Metaphors we learn by,* ed. E. Behrendt, 477–480. London: Continuum.
Cortier, C. and M. Cavalli. 2011. *Regional/minority languages in bi-/plurilingual education: Languages from near and far*. http://ebp-ici.ecml.at. Accessed 1 May 2013.
De Bot, K., R. Ginsberg and C. Kramsch, eds. 1991. *Foreign language research in cross- cultural perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
Dewey, J. 1933. *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educational process.* Chicago: Henry Regnery and Co.
Ellis, R., ed. 1994a. *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. New York: Academic Press.
Ellis, R. 1994b. *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Ellis, R. 1997. *SLA research and language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Fenner, A. B. 2012. The *EPOSTL* as a tool for reflection. In *Insights into the European portfolio for student teachers of languages (EPOSTL),* ed. D. Newby, 32–50. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
Fortune, A. 2005. Learners' use of metalanguage in collaborative form-focused L2 output tasks. *Language Awareness* 14(1): 21–38.
Gabryś-Barker, D. 2004. The role of language awareness in multi-lingual language learning. *Linguistica silesiana* 25: 87–101.
Gabryś-Barker, D. 2012. *Reflectivity in pre-service teacher education. A survey of theory and practice.* Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.
Gebhard, J. G. and R. Oprandy. 1999. *Language teaching awareness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Gleason, J. B. and N. B. Ratner, eds. 2005. *Psycholinguistics.* New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovitch.
Gnutzmann, C. 1997. Language awareness. Progress in language learning and language education or reformulation of old ideas? *Language Awareness* 6(2/3): 65–74.
Gnutzmann, C. 2010. Language awareness. In *Handbuch Fremdsprachendidaktik.* [*The didactics of foreign language teaching. A coursebook*], eds. W. Hallet and F. Königs, 115–119. Seelze-Velber: Klett/Kallmeyer.
Gombert, E. 1992. *Metalinguistic development.* New York: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
Habermas, J. 1974. *Theory and practice*. London: Heinemann.
Halliday, M. A. K.1971. *Language in use*. Nuffield: NFER.

Hawkins, E. 1984. *Awareness of language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
James, C. and P. Garret, eds. 1991. *Language awareness in the classroom.* London: Longman.
Jessner, U. 2006. *Linguistic awareness in multilinguals. English as a third language*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
Komorowska, H. 1975/1986. *Nauczanie gramatyki a interferencja* [*Teaching grammar. Facing the issue of interference*]. Warsaw: WSiP.
Komorowska, H. 2011a. Paradigms in language teacher education. In *Issues in promoting multilingualism. Teaching-learning-assessment,* ed. H. Komorowska, 13–38. Warsaw: FRSE.
Komorowska, H., ed. 2011b. *Issues in promoting multilingualism. Teaching-learning- assessment*. Warsaw: FRSE.
Komorowska, H. 2012a. 18th c. Hasidic thought and contemporary approaches to language and education. In *Reconstructing Jewish identity in pre- and post-Holocaust literature and culture,* eds. L. Aleksandrowicz-Pędich and M. Pakier, 85–96. Frankfurt am Mein: Peter Lang.
Komorowska, H. 2012b. Learner autonomy and its implications for the *EPOSTL.* In *Insights into the European portfolio for student teachers of languages (EPOSTL),* ed. D. Newby, 51–82. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
Krasowicz-Kupis, G. 2004. *Rozwój świadomości językowej dziecka. Teoria i praktyka.* [*Child language awareness development. Theory and practice*]. Lublin: UMCS.
Kristeva, J. 1980. *Pouvoirs de l'horreur. Essai sur l'abjection*. [*Powers of horror. An essay on abjection*]. Paris: Éditions du Seuil.
Krüger, R. 2011. Content-based modern language teaching for young learners. http://eplc.ecml.at. Accessed 1 May 2013.
Lantolf, J. P. and S. L Thorne. 2006. *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Llurda, E. and A. Huguet. 2003. Self-awareness in NNS EFL primary and secondary teachers. *Language Awareness*, 12(3,4): 220–233.
Long, M. 1991. Focus on form. A design feature in language teaching methodology. In *Foreign language research in cross- cultural perspective,* eds. K. De Bot, R. Ginsberg and C. Kramsch, 39–52. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
Lotman, J. 1977. *Semiotyka kultury*. [*Semiotics of culture*]. Warszawa: PIW.
Malakoff, M. 1992. Translation ability: A natural bilingual and metalinguistic skill. In *Cognitive processing in bilinguals,* ed. R. Harris, 515–530. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Masny, D. 1997. Linguistic awareness and writing: Exploring the relationship with language awareness. *Language Awareness* 6(2&3): 105–118.
Merleau-Ponty, M. 2001. *Fenomenologia percepcji* [*Phenomenology of perception*]. Warsaw: Aletheia.
Możejko, Z. 2002. *Language awareness as a factor in foreign language learning and teaching*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Warsaw.
NCLE. 1985. (National Council on languages in education: ed. Donmall, Gill) *Language awareness*: NCLE Papers and Reports 6, CILT.
Pavlenko, A. 2007. Autobiographic narratives as data in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics* 28(2): 163–188.
Pawlak, M. 2006. *The place of form-focused instruction in the foreign language classroom*. Kalisz-Poznań: UAM.
Pegrum, M. 2008. Film, culture and identity: Critical intercultural literacies for the language classroom. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 8(2): 136–154.
Piechurska-Kuciel, E. 2005. *The importance of being aware. Advantages of explicit grammar study*. Opole: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego.
Pinho, A. S., L. Gonçalves, A. I. Andrade and M. H. Araújo e Sá. 2011. Engaging with diversity in teacher language awareness: teachers' thinking, enacting and transformation. In *Language awareness in teacher education,* eds. S. Breidbach, D. Elsner and A. Young, 41–61. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
Porębski, M. 2011. *Spotkanie z Ablem*. [*Meeting Abel*]. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Literackie.

Risager, K. 2007. *Language and culture pedagogy: From a national to a transnational paradigm*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
Savignon, Cl. 1993. Communicative language teaching: State of the art. In *State of the art TESOL essays,* ed. S. Silberstein, 35–51. Bloomington: Pantagraph Printing.
Scherer, G. and M. Wertheimer. 1964. *A psycholinguistic experiment in foreign language teaching*. New York: Mc Graw Hill.
Schmidt, R. 1990. The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11(2): 129–158.
Schmidt, R. 1994. Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. *AILA Review* 11: 11–26.
Schön, D. A. 1985. *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: Basic Books.
Silberstein, S. 1993. *State of the art TESOL essays.* Bloomington: Pantagraph Printing.
Sinclair, A., R. J. Jarvella and W. Levelt, eds. 1978. *The child's conception of language.* Heidelberg: Springer.
Slobin, D. 1978. A case study of early language awareness. In *The child's conception of language,* eds. Sinclair, A., R. J. Jarvella and W. Levelt, 45–54. Heidelberg: Springer.
Smith, P. H., Jr. 1970. *A comparison of the cognitive and the audio-lingual approaches to FL instruction. The pennsylvania foreign language research project.* Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development. Inc.
Stainton, C. 1992. Language awareness: Genre awareness – a focused review of literature. *Language Awareness* 1(2): 109–121.
Svalberg, A. M-L. 2007. Language awareness. *Language Teaching* 40: 287–308.
Swain, M. 1985. Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In *Input in second language acquisition,* eds. S. Gass and C. Madden, 235–253. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
Swain, M. and Sh. Lapkin. 1995. Problems in output and cognitive processes they generate. *Applied Linguistics* 16(3): 371–391.
Titone, R. 1994. Bilingual education and the development of metalinguistic abilities: A research project. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics* 10(1): 5–14.
Tomlin, R. S. and V. Villa.1994. Attention in cognitive science and second language acquisition. *Studies in second language acquisition* 16: 183–203.
Turula, A. 2011. *Form-focused instruction and the advanced language learner*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
Van Lier, L. 1994. *Interaction in the language curriculum.* London: Longman.
Van Lier, L. 1994. Language awareness, contingency and interaction. *AILA Review* 14: 69–82.
Van Lier, L. and Corson, D. eds. 1997. *Encyclopedia of language and education.* Amsterdam: Kluwer.
VanPatten, B. 1996. *Input processing and grammar instruction*. Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing.
VanPatten, B. and A. Benati. 2010. *Key terms in second language acquisition*. London: Continuum.
Wallace, M. 1991. *Training foreign language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Wallace, C. 1997. The role of language awareness in critical pedagogy. In *Encyclopedia of language and education,* eds. L. Van Lier and D. Corson, 241–249. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
Wright, T. 1991. Language awareness in teacher education programmes for non-native speakers. In *Language awareness in the classroom,* eds. C. James and P. Garret, 62–77, London: Longman.
Zawodniak, J. 2011. Informal talks about writing as a constructive way to develop young L2 learner print awareness. *Glottodidactica XXXVII*: 95–106.
Zeki, S. 2009. *Splendors and miseries of the brain.* New York-London: Wiley-Blackwell.
Znaniecki, F. 1988. *Wstęp do socjologii*. [*Introduction to sociology*]. Warsaw: PWN.

Investigating Language Awareness: The Role of Terminology

Roger Berry

Abstract This chapter examines critically the way in which metalinguistic terminology has been exploited in a number of tests designed to investigate various constructs which may be loosely grouped under the heading 'language awareness'. The concept of language awareness is first discussed and a number of tests of it involving terminology are compared. Then a number of problems with such use of terminology are discussed, namely: a failure to distinguish terminology from metalanguage, a failure to question whether any kind of metalanguage is required, a failure to distinguish scientific and pedagogic terminology, and problems with the design of the tests. These points are then applied in a critical evaluation of items from two such tests, showing above all that tests using terminology are in great danger of losing their validity, of becoming tests of terminology alone and not of language awareness. The chapter concludes with suggestions for designers of tests involving terminology.

1 Introduction: Language Awareness, Terminology and Tests

In the last 20 years many instruments have been designed to investigate language awareness, and many, if not most, of these have involved the use of terminology, either wholly or partially. The list of papers predicated on such tests includes Bloor (1986); Steel and Alderson (1994); Alderson, Clapham and Steel (1997); Andrews (1994, 1998); Berry (1997, 2009); Han and Ellis (1998); Macaro and Masterman (2006); Elder (2009) and Ellis (2009).

R. Berry (✉)
Lingnan University, Hong Kong, Hong Kong
e-mail: rogerb@ln.edu.hk

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_2,

These tests vary according a number of criteria:

- the different subjects (learners, teachers, native speakers)
- the prompt involved (underlined forms in a sentence or text, terms, ungrammatical sentences)
- the subjects' task (stating the word class, identifying exponents of terms in a text, correcting and explaining ungrammatical sentences, stating the rule involved, selecting the rule from multiple choice, filling in gaps in an explanation)
- whether the task is productive or receptive
- what kind of productive language is required (terms, metalanguage, ordinary language)

It is clear that an ever-expanding range of formats is being utilised to get at language awareness. Table 1 (adapted from Berry 2010) summarises the different approaches:

There is one more crucial criterion, or variable, that differentiates these tests, namely the construct that they are investigating. What actually is language awareness? Many have questioned the usefulness of the concept, for example Komorowska (2012). Indeed, there may be nothing essential that holds together all the various enterprises that go under the heading of language awareness. It may well be that each narrow field of research, e.g. phonemic awareness, or teacher language awareness (Andrews 2007) needs its own separate definition.

For some, the concept of language awareness is useful precisely because of its vagueness, which allows practitioners from various fields to come together. However, such vagueness is not useful when it comes to devising concrete constructs that may be reliably tested. A number of researchers have attempted to operationalise language awareness as a whole, for example Schmidt, under the concept of 'noticing' (1990, 1994), or Svalborg, under the concept of 'engaging with language' (2009). But neither of these specifically mention terminology, and do not appear to have generated any such tests.

When we look at the tests that have been devised, we can discern a number of different, although not entirely distinct, purposes:

- evaluating learners' explicit knowledge and comparing it with their 'acquisition'
- evaluating learners' explicit knowledge and comparing it with that of native speakers
- testing teacher language awareness (e.g. LPATE)
- testing knowledge of terminology (e.g. Berry 1997, 2009)

The journal Language Awareness gives the following statement of its aims and scope:

> Language Awareness encourages and disseminates work which explores the following: the role of explicit knowledge about language in the process of language learning; the role that such explicit knowledge about language plays in language teaching and how such knowledge can best be mediated by teachers; the role of explicit knowledge about language in language use: e.g. sensitivity to bias in language, manipulative aspects of language, literary use of language. (inside cover)

Table 1 A comparison of different tests

Study	Subjects	Prompt	Task	Productive or receptive?	Productive language required
Andrews (1994)	Teachers	Underlined forms in text	State the word class	Productive	Term
		Terms	Identify them in a text	Receptive	
Alderson et al. (1997)	University students	Ungrammatical sentences	Correct and explain	Productive	Term plus metalanguage
		Terms	Identify them in a text	Receptive	
Han and Ellis (1998)	Adult learners	Ungrammatical sentences	State the rule	Productive	Term plus metalanguage
Elder (2009)	Native speakers and L2 learners	Ungrammatical sentences	Select the rule from multiple choice	Receptive	
		Terms	Identify them in a text	Receptive	
LPATE (1)	Teachers and trainee teachers	Underlined ungrammatical sentences	Explain using appropriate terminology	Productive	Term plus metalanguage
LPATE (2)	Teachers and trainee teachers	Underlined ungrammatical sentences	Fill in gaps	Productive	Term (or non-technical word)
Berry (1997, 2009)	University students	Terms	Tick to show knowledge	Receptive/ productive	Language examples

I have included the two versions of the Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers of English (LPATE), as developed and administered in Hong Kong. This is described in more detail below

From this authoritative viewpoint—though some may disagree—it is clear that explicit knowledge about language is an essential feature of 'language awareness'. But the central issue is: what is involved in explicit knowledge?

2 Problems with Using Terminology

The problem of how to access explicit knowledge has long been recognised (e.g. Harley 1994; Macaro/Masterman 2006). The problem is that learners may possess explicit knowledge of a language but be unable to demonstrate it because the concept is beyond their linguistic competence to articulate. To quote Macaro and Masterman:

> A difficulty also resides in measuring knowledge about language, in that learners cannot be said to lack explicit knowledge simply because they do not possess the required meta-linguistic competence to articulate it. (2006, p. 299)

The response of many to this problem has been to invoke the use of terminology. But as Carter (2003) pointed out, little research had been undertaken into the use of terminology as a research tool. Ellis's lengthy article (2004) attempts to redress this lack by listing a number of reasoned principles by which investigation into explicit knowledge, including the use of terminology, could progress; some of these are mentioned below. But still the overall problem remains: that tests of explicit knowledge using terminology are being developed without any evidence that they measure what they claim to measure. Elder (2009) is an attempt to provide this evidence, but there are problems with her attempt, as will be seen below.

A number of specific problems with the use of terminology in testing language awareness may be identified:

(1) *A failure to distinguish metalanguage and terminology*

I have argued on a number of occasions (e.g. Berry 2005, 2010) that terminology should not be equated with metalanguage. Metalanguage is basically 'language about language' according to most definitions (e.g. Johnson and Johnson 1998, p. 212). It is certainly not restricted to a limited repertoire of technical lexis, as terminology might be characterised. Metalanguage is a much broader linguistic concept, involving all of the language that is used to talk about language. So, for example, when someone says 'I don't like the way he said that', this is meta-language, but it contains not a single term. Grammars of English consist of metalanguage by definition, but one can usually distinguish quite easily between words which are terms and words which are not, as in this extract talking about possessive pronouns from the Collins Cobuild English Grammar (2011, p. 33):

> When you are talking about people or things, you often want to say how they are connected with each other. There are several different ways in which you can do this, but usually you do it by using a possessive pronoun to show that something belongs to someone or is associated with them.

There is only one term (underlined) in this lengthy text. The vast majority of it is non-terminological metalanguage. Words such as 'follow', 'omit', 'action' and 'event' are disproportionately typical of metalanguage, but they are not terms. Indeed, it is quite possible to talk about language without any terminology at all.

However, when one examines early discussion of the topic, one sees that there is an implicit link between terminology and metalanguage, as in this quote from Ellis:

> Metalingual knowledge is knowledge of the technical terminology needed to describe language. (1994, p. 714)

or in this quote from Borg (1999, p. 103), where the two words seem to be used as synonyms:

> One argument for not promoting terminology, then, was that some students had no knowledge of metalanguage…

Distinguishing between metalanguage and terminology can help us to partly overcome the 'access' problem, to recognise that when they are talking about language, subjects do not need to use terminology.

(2) *A failure to question the need for terminology/metalanguage*

Once we have established the difference between terminology and metalanguage, we can begin to question whether either is necessary in testing language awareness. Some early researchers seemed to hold the belief that metalanguage was an integral part of language awareness:

> Explicit knowledge includes the ability to state linguistic rules, at least the simpler ones. And to do this learners need a metalanguage. Indeed, it would appear that whatever the explicit knowledge looks like, it must include metalanguage, and this metalanguage must include words for grammatical categories and functions. (Alderson et al. 1997, p. 97)

The use of 'must' here suggests that metalanguage (and by extension, terminology) is an essential part of metalinguistic knowledge. An earlier statement uses a slightly weaker modality, but nevertheless supports the idea:

> What is meant by 'knowledge about language' needs to be explored, but it typically includes a knowledge of and ability to use metalanguage appropriately. (Steel and Alderson 1994, p. 92)

However, the prevailing view nowadays is that metalanguage/terminology is merely one means of accessing that knowledge. Some researchers have gone further, suggesting that terminology is not even necessary in accessing it. Thus Ellis:

> It is important to recognize, however, that verbalizing a rule or feature need not entail the use of metalanguage. (2004, p. 239) (here metalanguage = terminology)

and also:

> …the ability to verbalize a rule is distinct from conscious awareness of the rule. Learners may possess explicit knowledge of a specific rule but fail to verbalize it satisfactorily simply because they lack the necessary skill to talk about language. (2004, p. 263)

And Elder:

> … even though a command of this subject-specific lexis (verb, noun etc.) may assist the learner to display his/her metalinguistic knowledge, the knowledge of such terminology is independent of grammatical knowledge per se (…) and indeed of any cognitive or analytical skills associated with such knowledge. (2009, pp. 114–115)

Ellis (2004) makes a number of suggestions for improving the testing of explicit knowledge. Here is the first aim he gives (for measuring analyzed knowledge):

> 1. The measurement of analyzed knowledge (as opposed to metalanguage) should be the primary goal in testing explicit knowledge. (2004, p. 265)

And later:

> 1. A test providing a measure of learners' knowledge of metalanguage is of secondary importance, pending studies that demonstrate that such knowledge is an important component of L2 proficiency and/or plays a role in L2 acquisition. (2004, p. 267)

Both of these quotes seek to distance terminology from explicit knowledge.

The issue can be reformulated as a failure to distinguish two different types of knowledge: knowledge about language and knowledge about metalanguage. Elsewhere I have tried to make clear the difference by using the terms 'metalinguistic knowledge' for the former and 'metalingual knowledge' for the latter (Berry 2005, 2010). My own test, the Metalinguistic Terminology Survey (Berry 1997, 2009), is a clear attempt to evaluate the latter, in that it seeks to establish what terms learners know (and not whether the knowledge of terms indicates some form of language awareness).

(3) *A failure to distinguish scientific and pedagogic terminology*

Even when tests involving terminology are appropriate (e.g. with teachers), some fail to recognise that certain terms may be inappropriate for their subjects. A distinction can be made here between *pedagogic* terms and *scientific* terms, between the limited number of terms that are suitable in pedagogic circles and the potentially unlimited number that might be used in scientific descriptions of English (Berry 2010, pp. 31–43). The point is that some terms are simply too arcane to be thrown at subjects, teachers as well as learners, for example 'paucal' and 'multal'. Few (apart from scientific grammarians) can be expected to know these terms. Thus an 'awareness of terminology' (i.e. metalingual awareness) of which terms, if any, are suitable for a certain group of subjects is required on the part of researchers. The two critical studies below give some more examples of the use of unsuitable terms.

Of course, the distinction between the two types of terms is not an absolute; it is more like a cline, with some terms at one end or the other but most in between on a sliding scale. Some terms may fall into both categories, for example those for the major word classes such as *noun*, *verb*, etc. Moreover, there may be variation according to the context. For example, 'predicate' is a distinctly scientific concept in most circles, but amongst learners of English in Austria it is a common one (being borrowed from their L1 studies), though its meaning is somewhat different from the traditional scientific one (Berry 2009).

But even within the pedagogic domain there is no guarantee of uniformity. Many learners of English, for example, have a very limited knowledge of terminology; others, by contrast, have an extensive knowledge. The influential factor would seem to be the practices of their teachers (Borg 1999), rather than the recommended methodology and curriculum. My own research (Berry 1997, 2009) has shown great variation in the knowledge of terminology that learners have, even within such an educationally cohesive territory as Hong Kong. In a study of the knowledge of 50 pedagogic and scientific terms (among English majors who were starting their degree) the range was from 9 to 35; the range was even greater for comparable groups from Poland (7–40) and Austria (5–36). So researchers must be very cautious in assuming that learners have the required terminological knowledge for the tests that are to be administered to them.

(4) *Problems with test design (especially a lack of validity)*

It is clear that over the years there has been steady progress in the design of tests of language awareness. Many of the early tests depended on the productive use of terminology, which is not always a valid exercise, especially for language learners, since in 'real life' they would only need to understand it occasionally when it is used by teachers or in textbooks.

This distinction between receptive and productive tests (see Table 1) is an important factor for Ellis:

> … a test of metalanguage may achieve greater validity if it measures receptive rather than productive knowledge of metalanguage, as, arguably, it is learners' understanding of explicit linguistic constructs rather than their ability to articulate metalinguistic rules that is important where language acquisition and use are concerned (…) (2004, p. 267).

There is a whole range of receptive test formats that researchers have started to exploit, such as selecting a rule from multiple choice, or filling in gaps (see Table 1), in order to increase validity. However, such tests of language awareness need to satisfy the same stringent criteria that tests of language face. For example, in a multiple choice format the distractors should be carefully worded so as to present plausible alternatives; there is no point in claiming that all subjects are able to identify a correct rule if the other options are implausible.

Increased objectivity of marking (see the discussion of LPATE below) may be another aim, or consequence, of such novel formats. However, as in regular language testing, the designer needs to be aware of the tension that may exist between validity and objectivity, in that an increase in one may lead to a decrease in the

other (Bachman 1990). Thus great care is needed to ensure that tests of explicit knowledge fulfill all the criteria of good tests.

3 Critical Studies

Two very different instruments have been chosen for a closer examination of their construction, by way of illustrating some of the problems outlined above.

3.1 Critical Study 1: Elder's (2009) Metalinguistic Knowledge Test

This test is part of a study whose aim is not only to investigate explicit knowledge, but also to attempt to validate the techniques that are used to investigate the same (by comparison with other tests).

The first part of the test involves the explanation of errors, but instead of requiring subjects to identify them first (which leads to problems when they focus on the wrong point), it presents the errors as already identified (as with the LPATE below). Furthermore, learners do not have to produce any terminology or meta-language themselves; all they have to do is select from a set of choices; it is therefore receptive and, as such, can claim to be valid.

However, not all the items have been carefully constructed. Elder gives the following example:

> If Jane had asked me, I would give her some money.

Out of the four options given, the 'correct' choice is:

> When 'if' clause is in the past perfect tense, main clause verb is in the past conditional.

The first problem with this is that the prompt sentence is in fact not erroneous. It is possible to conceive of a situation where the opportunity for asking occurred in the past (but was not taken up), with the contingent event (not) occurring in the future (cf. 'If you had asked me about it yesterday, I would give you the money tomorrow'). It would appear that Elder has bought into the myth of the 'three (or four) conditionals' in English (cf. 'If Jane asks me, I will…', 'If Jane asked me, I would…', 'If Jane had asked me, I would have…'), and since the prompt is a mixture of the third and second has considered it incorrect. But 'mixed' conditionals are common (Lewis 1986, pp. 48–149; Willis 1994, p. 59). Willis gives this example paralleling the above 'error':

> If United had won, they'd be top of the table.

Of course, it can be argued that L2 learners (one target group of the test), under the same misapprehension, should have no problem with the item, but then this hardly constitutes a test of their language awareness; it is more a test of their knowledge of

artificial rules. Moreover, there is surely no excuse for grammatical inexactitude. And native speakers (the other target group) may indeed have a problem.

The second problem with this item is the use of rather arcane terminology in the correct option. 'Clause' is largely a scientific term, and 'past conditional' as a concept is rarely encountered nowadays, even in scientific circles, since the 'conditional' (with its past and present variants) is no longer considered a valid verb form (*would* and *would have* being more fittingly consigned to modal auxiliary constructions). Even as a label for the three (or four) constructions described above it has to compete with '*if* sentences'. One wonders what kind of teaching the learners have undergone, not to mention the native speakers. The item therefore seems to be more a test of grammar than of language awareness.

The second part of the Metalinguistic Knowledge Test requires subjects to identify examples of given terms in a sentence, following (Alderson et al. 1997). From one prompt, 'definite article', the subjects are supposed to identify 'the' in the text, but of course many would not need a text to make this connection; they could write down 'the' without seeing the sentence. This kind of item is appropriate when there is no one-to-one relationship between form and term, as with other prompts in the item, for example 'verb' and 'noun'.

Moreover, the term 'definite article', even though it can be considered pedagogic in nature, is more relevant for teachers and less so for learners. My research (Berry 2009) shows that there is vast variation in the knowledge of 'definite article' and the related 'indefinite article' among learners of English. In Hong Kong only 28 and 35 (respectively) out of 123 beginning English university majors knew the terms, whereas in Poland, out of 98 comparable subjects, 82 and 93 (respectively) were familiar with them.

The difference can be explained by the fact that it is quite possible, even in a grammar-oriented class, to avoid these terms and to refer iconically to the definite article as 'the', and to the indefinite article as 'a' (though with some potential for misunderstanding). This is indeed a common practice in Hong Kong. In other words, while there seems a difference in metalingual knowledge (the knowledge of terms) between students in Poland and Hong Kong, there is no evidence of a difference in metalinguistic knowledge.

So what is being tested here appears to be partly knowledge of terminology, rather than of explicit knowledge of language. The test could be improved with more careful design, as well as greater grammatical knowledge and an appreciation of the different status of terms. But we should be at least grateful that Elder has made the test partly available for scrutiny, unlike some other researchers.

3.2 Critical Study 2: The Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers of English (LPATE)

This exam was introduced in Hong Kong 2000 (Coniam and Falvey 2002) in response to a widespread perception in the community that the linguistic and

metalinguistic skills of many teachers of English were inadequate (due mostly to the fact that many were not subject-trained in English). All practising primary and secondary teachers of English were required to pass it, as well as all entrants to the profession. It is therefore a very high-stakes exam, and was surrounded by much controversy and opposition at its introduction.

It consists of five papers: reading, writing, listening, speaking and classroom language assessment. It is one part of the writing paper that is of interest here.[1] In Task 2A, testees are required to detect and correct errors from an authentic student essay. In Task 2B they are required to explain such errors. In the original version the errors were the same as those they had corrected in 2A, but this led to difficulties since if they had made a mistake with error correction they would be unable to explain; effectively they were being punished twice for the same mistake. So in the new version the errors for explanation are different from those for correction (though taken from the same text). The two versions of Task 2B are summarised in Table 1 at the start of this chapter.

Another change is that, while in the earlier version the answers were open-ended, in the newer version the majority of the answer is supplied, with testees only being required to fill in two gaps per item. This was done for greater objectivity of marking, since with the earlier version much of the markers' time was devoted before and after the paper's administration to deciding on the range of permissible answers. However, even with gap-filling objectivity is not absolute and alternatives are possible, as the suggested answers below indicate. And one can ask whether the increase in objectivity has led to a corresponding decrease in validity.

What did not change was the general principle on which marking was based, namely that an effective explanation consisted of two steps (corresponding to the two gaps in the later version): firstly, classifying or locating the error (in order to make a generalisation), which would involve the use of terminology, and secondly, providing a reason for the error, which might not involve terminology. A typical answer might look like the following:

The present perfect is wrong as the event has no relevance to present time.
LOCATION/CLASSIFICATION REASON/JUSTIFICATION

That the use of terminology is advisable in this task is not in doubt, as the current rubric for it (Education Bureau, Hong Kong 2007) makes clear:

> You should demonstrate to the examiners your understanding of the underlying rules or generalisations, using grammatical terms where appropriate.

However, the rubric does not clarify what kind of terminology is advisable. Is the task seeking the presentation of terminology that is suitable for learners (i.e. it

[1] From 2001 to 2002 I was Chief Examiner for the writing paper of LPATE.

is pedagogic) or for grammarians (i.e. it is scientific)? Is the aim to test teachers' ability to give appropriate explanations (a pedagogic skill) or to demonstrate their explicit knowledge (a linguistic one)? In fact, it is clearly the latter, as this list of terms in the in the suggested answers for the sample paper makes clear:

('to') infinitive
adverb
subject-verb agreement / single (sic) verb
subject, plural / noun, plural
relative pronoun / subordinator
(non-defining) relative clause / subordinate clause / adjective clause
(present) participle
past continuous tense
past perfect
(subordinating) conjunction / conditional / connective
adverb(ial) of time / adverbial phrase / prepositional phrase / connective / adverbial / adverb
verb

(Slashes indicate alternative answers to the same item.)

Terms such as *subordinating conjunction*, *non-defining relative clause* and *adverbial phrase* are clearly scientific in nature and beyond the competence of most teachers. In fact, for some answers, there is no pedagogic option.

Here is an example from the later version of the test. In one item, shown below, the student error is highlighted as 'to feel very frightened'. Testees are given the following text in which most of the metalanguage has been supplied, only leaving two single-word gaps:

> The problem is with the (a) _____ 'to feel'. It should be replaced by 'feeling' because the writer wishes to describe (b) _____, rather than an intended action.

Intended answers are 'infinitive' for (a) and 'a mental state' (or some similar noun phrase) for (b). (The full text of the error was 'I remember to feel very frightened'.)

The problem lies with the answer for (a), in that testees can supply it without reference to the actual error (cf. the identification of 'the definite article' in Elder's test above). And 'infinitive' is not the only possible answer; another, classifying 'to feel' as a 'verb'—equally without needing reference to the error—would also need to be considered correct. Again, it seems that a test of metalinguistic knowledge has been (at least partly) reduced to one of knowledge of terminology. So while the use of gap-filling in the second version has possibly increased objectivity (in that the answers are relatively easier to mark), there has been a concomitant decrease in validity.

4 Conclusions

Based on the above, the following conclusions may be drawn, by way of offering advice to all those who are contemplating the use of terminology in investigating some form of language awareness:

- to demonstrate awareness of language, you do not need to talk about it
- to talk about language, you do not need terminology; in other words, metalanguage and terminology are not the same thing
- if you want teachers or learners to use terminology in tests, be aware of the distinction between pedagogic and scientific terminology
- if terminology is to be used in tests, make sure that it is only the means and not the end (unless it really is the end); i.e. be aware of the distinction between metalingual and metalinguistic knowledge. Tests that involve terminology are in great danger of winding up as tests of terminology.
- if you design tests involving terminology, subject them to the same critical scrutiny that is given to language tests; i.e. make sure they are good tests, particularly in respect of their validity; in particular do not expect learners of language to produce terminology.

Designers of tests of language awareness involving metalinguistic terminology need to possess a range of abilities. In addition to a proper understanding of the construct they are investigating, they should also possess a knowledge of:

- the principles and techniques of test design (especially validity)
- the various constraints on terminology (limited learner knowledge, the pedagogic/scientific dimension)
- the grammar connected to the terminology

Hitherto, these qualities have not always been evident.

References

Alderson, J. C., C. Clapham and D. Steel. 1997. Metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude and language proficiency. *Language Teaching Research* 1/2: 93–121.

Andrews, S. 1994. The grammatical awareness and knowledge of Kong Kong teachers of English. In *Language and learning*, eds. N. Bird, A. B. M. Tsui, D. Allison and A. McNeill. Hong Kong: Institute of Language in Education.

Andrews, S. 1998. 'All these like little name things': A comparative study of language teachers' explicit knowledge of grammar and grammatical terminology. *Language Awareness* 8/3 & 4: 143–159.

Andrews, S. 2007. *Teacher language awareness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bachman, L. 1990. *Fundamental concepts in language testing*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Berry, R. 1997. Teachers' awareness of learners' knowledge: The case of metalinguistic terminology. *Language Awareness* 6/2 & 3: 136–146.

Berry, R. 2005. Making the most of metalanguage. *Language Awareness* 14/1: 3–20.
Berry, R. 2009. EFL majors' knowledge of metalinguistic terminology: A comparative study. *Language Awareness* 18/2: 113–128.
Berry, R. 2010. *Terminology in English language teaching: Nature and use*. Bern: Peter Lang.
Bloor, T. 1986. *University students knowledge about language, CLIE working papers number 8.* British Association for Applied Linguistics/Linguistics Association of Great Britain.
Borg, S. 1999. The use of grammatical terminology in the second language classroom: A qualitative study of teachers' practices and cognitions. *Applied Linguistics* 20: 95–126.
Carter, R. 2003. Key concepts in ELT: Language awareness. *ELT Journal* 57/1: 64–65.
Collins Cobuild English Grammar. 2011. Glasgow: Harper Collins, 3rd edn.
Coniam, D. and P. Falvey. 2002. Selecting models and setting standards for teachers of English in Hong Kong (third edition). *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*.
Education Bureau, Government of the Hong Kong SAR. 2007. *Language proficiency assessment for teachers (English Language) handbook*.
Elder, C. 2009. Validating a test of metalinguistic knowledge. In *Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing and teaching*, eds. R. Ellis, S. Loewen, C. Elder, R. M. Erlam, J. Philp and H. Reinders, 113–138. Bristol – Buffalo – Toronto: Multilingual Matters.
Ellis, R. 1994. *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Ellis, R. 2004. The definition and measurement of L2 explicit knowledge. *Language Learning* 54/2: 227–275.
Ellis, R. 2009. Implicit and explicit learning, knowledge and instruction. In *Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing and teaching*, eds. R. Ellis, S. Loewen, C. Elder, R. M. Erlam, J. Philp and H. Reinders, 113–138. Bristol – Buffalo – Toronto: Multilingual Matters.
Ellis, R., S. Loewen, C. Elder, R. Erlam, J. Philip and H. Reinders, eds. 2009. *Implicit and explicit knowledge in language learning, testing and teaching*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
Han, Y. and R. Ellis. 1998. Implicit knowledge, explicit knowledge and language proficiency. *Language Teaching Research* 2/1: 1–23.
Harley, B. 1994. Appealing to consciousness in the L2 classroom. *AILA Review* 11: 57–68.
Johnson, K. and H. Johnson. 1998. *Encyclopedic dictionary of applied linguistics*. Oxfrod: Blackwell.
Komorowska, H. 2012. Language awareness—is the concept really needed or useful? Paper delivered at the 24th *International Conference on Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning*, Szczyrk, Poland, May 2012.
Lewis, M. 1986. *The English verb*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
Macaro, E. and L. Masterman. 2006. Does intensive grammar instruction make a difference? *Language Teaching Research* 10/3: 297–327.
Schmidt, R. 1990. The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11: 17–46.
Schmidt, R. 1994. Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. In *AILA Review* 11: 11–26.
Steel, D. and J. C. Alderson. 1994. Metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude and language proficiency. In *Language in a changing Europe*, eds. D. Graddol and T. Stephen, 92–103. Clevedon: BAAL and Multilingual Matters.
Svalborg, A. 2009. Engagement with language: Interrogating a construct. *Language Awareness* 18/3 & 4: 242–258.
Willis, D. 1994. The lexical approach. In *Grammar and the language teacher*, eds. M. Bygate, A. Tonkin and E. Williams, 56–66. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall International.

Is Language Awareness Actually Part and Parcel of FL Teacher Training?

Zbigniew P. Możejko

Abstract The title question offers an opportunity to investigate the extent to which the notion and practice of "language awareness" is present in EFL teacher training (TT) in selected TT Colleges in Poland. The chapter comprises two parts. The opening part reviews the development of the concept of "language awareness" in the last two decades (cf. Schmidt 1990, 1995, 2010), with particular attention devoted to practical applications of the notion. The second part investigates current beliefs and attitudes of pre-service TT College graduates (ca. n = 80) concerning the role that language awareness may play in the process of FL instruction and in their own teacher-development. The study relates to an earlier project (cf. Możejko 2009), which has demonstrated that pre-service EFL teachers often are *un*aware of the presence of certain instructional approaches (e.g. CLIL instruction) in the training they receive in TT Colleges. The study examines which aspects of language awareness have had an effect upon teaching practice.

[C]onsciousness is the issue that refuses to die.
Bialystok 1994, p. 163

1 Introduction

The aim of the chapter is to discuss the notion of language awareness, especially from the perspective of foreign language (FL) teacher training. It also turns to teacher trainees for their opinions on "language awareness" and places the trainees in a position where they actually need to demonstrate whether they are linguistically aware or not. This is done with the underlying intention of improving FL teacher education so as to construct a program which would assist teachers in

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

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_3,

becoming facilitators of language learning through creating "language sensitive" learners.

The chapter has the following structure. It commences with an overview of the notion of language awareness (LA) by offering a survey of definitions and signaling notions which are related to it. It then reports the results of a small scale study conducted among nearly 100 pre-service teachers, which tapped their attitudes towards LA.

And the opening motto. The present chapter is hoping to demonstrate that despite various attempts at burying the notion, it is still alive and contributing to the field of applied linguistics.

2 Setting the Grounds

Discussions of such ephemeral notions as "awareness" – Gass (1983), for instance, likens it to the German *Sprachgefühl*, "one's *feel for* the language" (1983, p. 285, adapted, emphasis added) – certainly benefit from a theoretical straightening out. This is intended in the opening sections.

2.1 "Language Awareness" and Related Notions

"Language awareness" (LA) is often treated as an umbrella term which subsumes the following distinctions in FL learning and teaching: declarative versus procedural knowledge, implicit versus explicit instruction; the role of consciousness versus unconsciousness in FL teaching; incidental versus intentional learning; the role of noticing; or the roles of controlled versus automatic processing.

When considering the declarative versus procedural dimension (cf. Table 1), one would readily expect LA to appear in the former category, as awareness calls for a certain metalinguistic ability, often requiring naming the processes occurring in language (be it cases of ill-formedness, be it cases of multiple meaning, to name just two). On the other hand, there may be attempts at defining the notion of LA as pertaining to language production, to fluency, thus, to procedural knowledge.

When investigating the role of consciousness in FL learning and teaching, one can identify three clusters of beliefs: one saying that consciousness is an important

Table 1 The difference between explicit/implicit and declarative/procedural knowledge (adapted from: Ellis 1993, p. 94)

	Declarative	Procedural
Explicit	TYPE A conscious knowledge of L2 items	TYPE B conscious knowledge of learning, production and communicative strategies
Implicit	TYPE C intuitive knowledge of L2 items	TYPE D ability to employ learning, production and communicative strategies automatically

Table 2 Three stances on the role of consciousness/unconsciousness in FL learning and teaching (adapted in part from Schmidt, Schmidt 1990)

Consciousness is significant	Unconsciousness only	Avoid the distinction
•Bialystok's (1978) model allows for conscious accrual of knowledge	•Behaviorism's skepticism towards consciousness	•McLaughlin et al. (1983): Krashen's distinction between acquisition versus learning is unsupportable
•Rutherford and Sharwood Smith's (1985) C-R facilitates FL learning	•Krashen's (1981, 1982) unconscious acquisition versus conscious learning	•Odlin (1986, p. 138) "divorce it all from the 'slippery notion of consciousness'"; also Odlin (1994b)
•Fotos (Fotos 1993) tracing C-R back to ancient pedagogic tools of studying Latin	•Seliger (1983, p. 187) "learning takes place at an unconscious level"	

component of the process, another claiming that only unconsciousness is valid, and a third position inviting the avoidance of the distinction altogether (cf. Table 2).

In an attempt to trace the application of the notion of "consciousness" to the field of L2 learning, Schmidt (1994a) offers an analysis of the construct from the perspective of four sub-notions, which, as he claims, are more readily operationalizable than "consciousness" itself. He distinguishes "consciousness as intentionality", "consciousness as attention", "consciousness as control", and "consciousness as awareness" (Schmidt 1994a, pp. 15–21). See Appendix 1 for a figure presenting the four dimensions of consciousness (Al-Hejin 2004); see also Schmidt (1995) for a comprehensive treatment of what he calls "the problem of consciousness".

Svalberg (2007) proposes inspecting consciousness as awareness from the perspective of attention and noticing. After Posner and Petersen (1990), she describes attention as consisting of three components: alertness, detection and orientation; attention is usually acknowledged to be a necessary condition for learning to occur. Noticing, on the other hand, can be defined as consisting of "the registration (detection) of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory" (Schmidt 1994b, p. 179, italics removed). Though the concepts of attention and awareness are inherently connected, they can be operationally distinguished (Al-Hejin 2004); both, however, "facilitate learning" (Svalberg 2007, p. 289). In order to identify the role of awareness in learning, one needs to distinguish between learning (a process) and knowledge (a product), (Al-Hejin 2004). This difference may be paralleled by the notions of implicit versus explicit learning (Reber 1989), and implicit versus explicit knowledge (Paradis 1994). On the explicit side, explicit learning may be defined as a type of learning "where the learner is aware of, and actively involved in, processing the input", and explicit knowledge—as a type of knowledge "which (…) the learner is aware of and can access on demand (e.g. metalinguistic knowledge of grammar)" (Al-Hejin 2004, p. 3).

2.2 *"Language Awareness": A Survey of Definitions*

Let us briefly turn to a survey of selected definitions of LA, with the aim of locating these components which may be applied to FL teacher training and eventually to FL instruction. The 1985 National Council of Language Education (NCLE) Report defines LA as "a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of language and its role in human life" (Donmall 1985, p. 7, quoted after James 1996, p. 21). This definition seems somewhat circular ("awareness is (…) conscious awareness"). It also stresses the role of language in very broad terms ("in human life"), thus making it difficult to implement in the FL classroom.

One of the early definitions of LA, and one which certainly has school application in mind, was offered by the founder of the British Language Awareness Movement, Hawkins (1981); it sees LA as a "bridging subject between MT study and FL study" (after James 1996, p. 21). This is an important avenue, since FL learners may benefit from drawing on two reservoirs: their sensitivity of the MT and their budding awareness of the FL. For an overview of the British Language Awareness Movement, cf. Hawkins (1992), and Piechurska-Kuciel (2005).

In an attempt to establish the stage at which to introduce LA work in the FL classroom, one can analyze the following definitions of the notion. Levelt et al. (1978, p. 5) state that LA is "implicit knowledge that has become explicit" (quoted after James 1996, p. 23); Read (1978, p. 73) asserts that it is "focusing attention on something that one knows" (quoted after James 1996, p. 23). This seems an important tendency in defining LA, as it leads to demonstrating that LA work should be implemented in the classroom *gradually*, when learners are *linguistically ready*. James (1996) puts it as follows, "[LA is] possessing METACOGNITIONS about a language over which one already has a degree of control and about which one will therefore have developed a coherent set of intuitions (James 1996, p. 23; capitals in the original). Both a certain "degree of control" over the language and a "set of intuitions" can be expected of advanced learners of English, who are the subject of the current empirical research.

To set a direction in which to develop LA, one may consider the following definition by de Villiers and de Villiers (1972) "[LA is] generally defined as the ability to attend to the forms of language independently of meaning. (…) [This ability] has been designated responsible for developing skills such as literacy and certain types of grammatical analysis" (quoted after Bialystok 1981, pp. 38–9). In the 2004 overview of LA, Al-Hejin describes awareness as "refer[ing] to an individual's subjective experience of a stimulus or cognitive content" (2004, p. 3), and specifies, after Allport (1988), three conditions that are needed to become aware of an experience: (a) a person should show a behavioral or cognitive change as a result of the experience; (b) the person should report that they were aware of the experience; (c) the person should be able to describe this experience. Such conditions may be reenacted during teacher training course; the training may also involve the stipulations entailed by the final definition. "[L]anguage awareness [are] intuitions about the language that can be verbalized" (Możejko 2002, p. 48).

See also Svalberg (2007), for a state-of-the-art article that overviews 20 years of LA in FL education.

2.3 LA in FL Teacher Education

In the present project, I will be arguing for establishing LA-related activities as pivotal components of FL teacher education. Let the "Introduction" to Bolitho and Tomlinson's (1995) *Discover English*, a workbook that is often employed during pre-service teacher-training, act as an opportunity to offer practical suggestions for training programs. The authors use the following expressions while describing the notion of language awareness: "[to] *talk about* English", "to sensitize [language users] to the language", "to develop their own understanding of the language" (Bolitho and Tomlinson 1995, p. iv, original emphasis). These activities may become a feasible program for both teachers and (advanced) FL learners, as is expressed further on: "[LA] work seeks to bring to the surface (…) pulling together the descriptions of linguistics, the needs of teachers and the insights of every language user" (Bolitho and Tomlinson 1995, p. iv).

How may this happen? First of all, teachers should set an example for their learners; "[i]f teachers are to help students become independent analysts, they must be competent analysts themselves" (Odlin 1994a, p. 14). A similar proposal is put forward by Bolitho and Tomlinson, "once they have discovered and acknowledged the diversity and complexity of language, teachers will be able to share this with their learners and help them to face the challenge of thinking about language and progressing to be increasingly self-reliant" (1995, p. iv) as independent language discoverers. Thus, LA may be said to promote—amongst others—both learner- and teacher-autonomy (cf. Komorowska 2011).

A number of didactic innovations begin with the figure of the teacher. Please recall the quote about "independent analysts" above, or consider the following extract about autonomy. "If (…) learner autonomy and teacher autonomy are interdependent, then the promotion of learner autonomy depends on the promotion of teacher autonomy" (Little 1995, p. 179). By the same token, it may be concluded that learner LA depends on the degree of sensitivity to language as demonstrated by their teachers: the more language aware the teachers are, the greater the chance for learners to develop FL linguistic awareness. For this to happen, pre-service teacher-training courses need to involve LA development, which should cover five domains: the affective domain, the social domain, the 'power' domain, the cognitive domain, and the performance domain (James and Garrett 1991, pp. 12–17); see also Brumfit (1991) for a discussion of the place of LA in teacher education.

Let us now consider what effects such LA development may have on actual teaching techniques by examining two glottodidactic situations. The first one concerns the pronunciation of the {Z} morpheme (as in the plural marking, the 3rd person singular, and the possessive). The teacher has several options, two of which

are entertained by Westney (1994), when he compares the outcomes of a pedagogical versus a linguistic type of explanation. The latter may take the form of the following algorithm: "based on the final sound in the stem (…), (a) sibilant versus nonsibilant (and if sibilant, then/iz/), and (b), for nonsibilants, voiced (then/z/) versus voiceless (then/s/)" (Westney 1994, p. 81). Obviously, such a formula would leave most learners (*and* teachers) perplexed. The former may yield the following set of pedagogical grammar rules based on spelling: "[i]n the case of {Z}, words like *miss*, *chance* and *fix* are to be singled out by their spelling and assigned/iz/as their plurals, and the rest left to take/s/or/z/– a matter of phonetic detail for a later stage of learning" (Westney 1994, p. 81, original italics).

The second example concerns the explanation of contrastive word order in complex noun phrases, as in "*słownik chemiczny* [a dictionary of chemistry]" versus "*nowoczesny słownik* [a modern dictionary]", i.e. the use of a classifier versus an epithet, respectively (Gozdawa-Gołębiowski 2010, p. 47). The author states, "obviously, it is difficult to expect of the learner and the teacher alike familiarity with such detained terminology. An informal account of the phenomenon is sufficient" Gozdawa-Gołębiowski 2010, p. 47, footnote 5, trans. by ZM). On the one hand, the presentation of such noun phrases, (or linguistic examples in general) in isolation evokes VanPatten's (1996) concept of Processing Instruction, which argues for the removal of all cues and the supplying of a linguistic prompt completely bereft of context, thus forcing learners to rely solely on focus-on-form (after Svalberg 2007). On the other hand, from the point of view of advanced language learners (and such are the pre-service teacher respondents in the present study), language advancedness is the stage at which they should be able to wholly appreciate *textual* nuances; textual, which entails reliance *also* on the neighboring *co-text*. The development FL teachers' LA (both pre- and in-service) should prepare them for making well-informed decisions as to the degree of metalinguistic sophistication, remind them at the same time that the identification of a phenomenon is much more important than its verbalizations, and that the latter *need not* employ formal terminology.

3 The Study

3.1 Aims and Research Questions

The aim of the study was to investigate beliefs concerning "language awareness" and its applicability in FL education. The research turned for opinions to two groups of respondents – both graduate level students – majoring in Linguistics or American Studies. The main research questions addressed by the study were as following.

R.Q.1: What are the declared opinions of the respondents concerning various aspects of LA? Is there a difference between majors in Linguistics (LING) and

majors in American Studies (AMER-STUD) in terms of their views on LA? How is LA defined by teacher-trainees?

R.Q.2: What is the performance of advanced learners of English on grammaticality judgment tasks (GJTs) such as recognition, paraphrase and verbalization? Is there a difference between LING and AMER-STUD in terms of performing GJTs? How does their performance on GJTs compare against that of naïve NS informants?

3.2 Subjects

The study was conducted during the Spring semester of 2011/2012 at the Institute of English Studies, University of Warsaw, among 92 first-year graduate students (MA extramural studies), majoring in Linguistics (applied or formal; variable: LING) or American Studies (literature or culture; variable: AMER-STUD); cf. Table 3.

While characterizing the respondents, the following supplementary variables have been identified: the students' current and prospective teaching career (whether they teach and intend to do so, IS-TEACH and WOULD-TEACH, respectively; what are their preferred target groups of learners, TEACH-WHO), the students' degree of multilingualism, the students' evaluation of the applicability of knowledge gained during BA studies (Table 4).

The degree of respondents' multilingualism (defined here as "low", if comprising 2 foreign languages or less, incl. English, and "high", if 3 or more) was established at: mean = 2.47; s.d. = 0.79; median = 2 (an aggregated result for LING and AMER-STUD), with one respondent indicating a maximum of five languages and six respondents indicating 4.

The aggregated results for the declared views concerning respondents' BA studies as measured on a 5-point Likert scale (questionnaire item: "How do you perceive the applicability of knowledge gained during BA studies for your current MA studies?", where 1 = low applicability; 5 = high applicability) were as follows: mean = 3.79; s.d. = 0.96; median = 4. The same scale applies to all subsequent results, unless indicated otherwise.

Table 3 Characteristics of the respondents by sex (F/M) and type of institution granting BA-degree (TTC, Teacher Training College; UNIV, public university; OTHER-HE, other institution of higher education); tally (frequency)

	LING (incl. 1 n.a.)	AMER-STUD	Total (incl. 1 n.a.)
TTC	32	21	53 (56 6 %)
UNIV	15	9	24 (26.1 %)
OTHER-HE	12	2	14 (15.2 %)
Total (F/M)	60 (48/12)	32 (25/7)	92 (73/19)

Table 4 Characteristics of the respondents by their views on the teaching career (variable TEACH-WHO allowed for multiple selections, hence the percentages do not add up to 100; PS = Primary School, grades 1–3, grades 4–6; LO/UP HS = Lower/Upper High School); tally (frequency)

		LING (n = 60)	AMER-STUD (n = 32)	TOTAL (n = 93)
IS-TEACH (no. of answer "yes")		38 (63.33 %)	17 (53.12 %)	55 (59.14 %)
WOULD-TEACH (no. of answer "yes")		48 (80.00 %)	22 (68.75 %)	70 (75.27 %)
TEACH-WHO	PS-1–3	20 (33.33 %)	5 (15.62 %)	25 (26.88 %)
	PS-4–6	19 (31.66 %)	8 (25.00 %)	27 (29.03 %)
	LO-HS	15 (25.00 %)	7 (21.87 %)	32 (34.41 %)
	UP-HS	21 (35.00 %)	10 (31.25 %)	31 (33.33 %)
	ADULT	22 (36.66 %)	9 (28.12 %)	31 (33.33 %)

Additionally, for R.Q.2, in order to contextualize the intuitions offered by Polish advanced learners of English concerning GJTs, the study made use of intuitions of linguistically naïve NSs (n = 85), undergraduate students at Indiana University, Bloomington, majoring in subjects other than Linguistics.

3.3 Procedure and Instrument

The study employed a chapter-and-pencil questionnaire, which was distributed by the researcher in person or by a colleague. The questionnaire was not timed; on average, it took 10 min to complete.

The research instrument comprised items of a mixed format, including a 5-point Likert scale (where, 1 = no, low, or hardly ever; 5 = yes, high, or always) and open-ended items; cf. Appendix 2 for an excerpt of the research instrument.

While tackling R.Q.1, the study made use of eight Likert scale items asking about "liking" languages (English and other FLs), "reflecting upon", "working with" and "playing with" language, and "noticing" language ambiguity. Respondents were encouraged to deliberately call upon English *and* Polish. Additionally, the LING-group was asked to provide own definition of "language awareness".

For the GJTs (cf. R.Q.2), the study employed three items selected from a pool of 30 sentences subjected to a group of naïve NSs of English (n = 85) for an ambiguity-recognition task (cf. Możejko 2002). All three items contain different instances of structural ambiguity, where ELLIPS stands for ambiguity resulting from the use of ellipsis, ING—from the use of a gerund, and BY—from the use of a *by*-phrase (in the original instrument, each item appeared in its own table as the "cue sentence", cf. Appendix 2):

- [LA-ELLIPS] My brother visited Japan in 1960, and my sister in 1961.
- [LA-ING] Flying planes can be dangerous.
- [LA-BY] The unfortunate deer hunter was killed by the tree.

3.4 Results and Discussion

The presentation and discussion of the results follows the research questions.

3.4.1 Results Relating to the First Research Question

The first research question concerned the perception of various aspects of language awareness, predominantly connected with reflecting upon language and instances of using language. When it comes to further exploring English [MR-ENG] or learning new languages [MR-LGS] (MR stands for "more" in "More-English" and "More-Languages", cf. Appendix 2 for the formulation of test items), the respondents were quite uniform in their views, regardless of the group (LING vs. AMER-STUD), with answers ranging from mean = 4.62; s.d. = 0.69 (for MR-ENG in LING) to mean = 4.15; s.d. = 1.16 (for MR-LGS in AMER-STUD).

When it comes to views on language awareness as characterized through reflection upon language, Table 5 shows the results of the two sub-groups.

Language awareness (LA) as exposed though the declared readiness to reflect upon the lexical and structural aspects of language seems to be more strongly represented in the LING-group, than the AMER-STUD-group. This may indicate that the former group's interest in formal and applied linguistics is related to metalinguistic reflection. It may also imply that these two aspects, semantic and syntactic, will be more readily activated, when such reflection should occur in the FL classroom. Interestingly, both groups of respondents seem to share a similar affinity for phonetic aspects of LA, though, at the same time, these have the highest heterogeneity.

When it comes to views on language awareness as characterized through instances of using language, Table 6 summarizes the beliefs of the groups of respondents.

Table 5 Perception of aspects of language awareness: reflection upon language; mean (s.d.)

	LING (n = 60)	AMER-STUD (n = 32)
LA-ETYM	4.11 (0.94)	2.81 (1.20)
LA-STR	3.75 (0.98)	2.53 (1.01)
LA-RHYT	3.55 (1.09)	3.25 (1.27)

Table 6 Perception of aspects of language awareness: instances of using language; mean (s.d.)

	LING (n = 60)	AMER-STUD (n = 32)
LA-EXPLAIN	4.28 (0.84)	3.84 (1.16)
LA-PLAY	3.66 (1.20)	3.40 (1.36)
LA-AMBIG	4.16 (0.84)	3.96 (0.89)

Language awareness as reflected though various instances of using language seems to be most differentiating in the domain of explaining how language works, (while translating or while producing written texts). The other two instances (LA-PLAY and LA-AMBIG) seem to gain similar acclaim and the preference may be connected more to individual differences among learners.

When it comes to own definitions of LA in the LING-group, only 25 % of the respondents (15/60) provided such a definition. The definitions can be divided into those relating to the following categories (with no. of similar occurrences in brackets): associated with KAL [knowledge about language] (5), associated with fluency (1), associated with accuracy (2), associated with KAL *plus* fluency (1), associated with a sense of "un-conscious-awareness" (3), associated with a sense of "conscious-awareness" (3). Limitations of space permit me to quote only two definitions here; both seem to offer a curious mixture of conscious awareness and intuitive feelings.

> [LA is] a sense of feeling of what one actually knows, what one can do, how well one knows the language, and how far one can move within this language, as well as a desire to develop further one's linguistic abilities. A pursuit of an ideal, of perfection, of self-development.
>
> (Respondent no. 10, trans. by Z.M.)
>
> [LA is] knowing what I *like* about language and language learning, and what I *don't*. How much I know and how much is still ahead of me.
>
> (Respondent no. 59, trans. by Z.M., added emphases)

3.4.2 Results Relating to the Second Research Question

The second research question was to be answered on the basis of students' performing an actual grammaticality judgment task (GJT). In the case of each "cue sentence", respondents were asked to recognize (JUDGE) whether the sentence has "one", or "two" meanings, or is "bad"; they were to provide a paraphrase (PARAPHR) to show its ambiguity ("yes" means it has been provided); they were

Table 7 Results of GJTs of a sentence containing ellipsis; tally (frequency)

[LA-ELLIPS] My brother visited Japan in 1960, and my sister in 1961.

	LING (n = 60)	AMER-STUD (n = 32)	NS (n = 85) (%)
JUDGE	Two = 43 (71.7 %)	Two = 22 (68.7 %) One = 3 (9.4 %)	Gram = 84.9
	One = 10 (16.7 %) Bad = 7 (11.6 %)	Bad = 7 (21.9 %)	Two = 45.3
PARAPHR	Yes = 48 (80.0 %)	Yes = 16 (50.0 %)	Yes = 45.3
EXPLAIN	Yes = 38 (63.3 %)	Yes = 10 (31.2 %)	Yes = 33.0

Table 8 Results of GJTs of a sentence containing a gerund; tally (frequency)

[LA-ING] Flying planes can be dangerous.

	LING (n = 60)	AMER-STUD (n = 32)	NS (n = 85) (%)
JUDGE	Two = 48 (80.0 %)	Two = 14 (43.8 %)	Gram = 84.9
	One = 3 (5.0 %)	One = 3 (9.4 %)	Two = 59.4
	Bad = 9 (15.0 %)	Bad = 15 (46.8 %)	
PARAPHR	Yes = 48 (80.0 %)	Yes = 9 (28.1 %)	Yes = 46.2
EXPLAIN	Yes = 50 (83.3 %)	Yes = 15 (46.8 %)	Yes = 37.7

Table 9 Results of GJTs of a sentence containing a *by*-phrase; tally (frequency)

[LA-BY] The unfortunate deer hunter was killed by the tree.

	LING (n = 60)	AMER-STUD (n = 32)	NS (n = 85) (%)
JUDGE	Two = 29 (48.3 %) one = 16 (26.7 %) bad = 15 (25.0 %)	Two = 8 (28.1 %) One = 9 (28.1 %) Bad = 15 (46.8 %)	Gram = 85,9 Two = 43.4
PARAPHR	Yes = 35 (58.3 %)	Yes = 5 (15.6 %)	Yes = 25.5
EXPLAIN	Yes = 30 (50.0 %)	Yes = 11 (34.3 %)	Yes = 29.2

to offer a verbalization (EXPLAIN) of the source of ambiguity ("yes" means it has been provided); in the case of NS informants, they were asked to indicate the sentence's grammaticality status ("gram"). For the results, cf. Tables 7, 8, and 9.

When it comes to judgments, the performance of the two non-NS groups of informants is similar; differences occur in the case of more linguistically complex operations such as paraphrases and explanations, in which case, the LING-group outperforms the AMER-STUD-group.

In the next two cases (LA-ING and LA-BY, Tables 8 and 9, respectively), the non-NS groups have shown a further discrepancy in the domain of judgment of sentence grammaticality; markedly more AMER-STUD respondents than LING respondents erroneously judged the two grammatical sentences as ill-formed.

Finally, a word of comment dedicated to the performance of the NS-group. In all three cases, their judgments seem more akin those of the AMER-STUD-group. This may indicate that the LING-group is truly more sensitive to examples of language requiring for their interpretation the use of language awareness and/or has had more (pre-service) training in the area of language awareness. This last observation is particularly relevant for our conclusions.

4 Conclusions

Let me bring the chapter to a close with two sets of tentative conclusions. The first—relates to LA of the group of respondents, advanced FL learners/users.

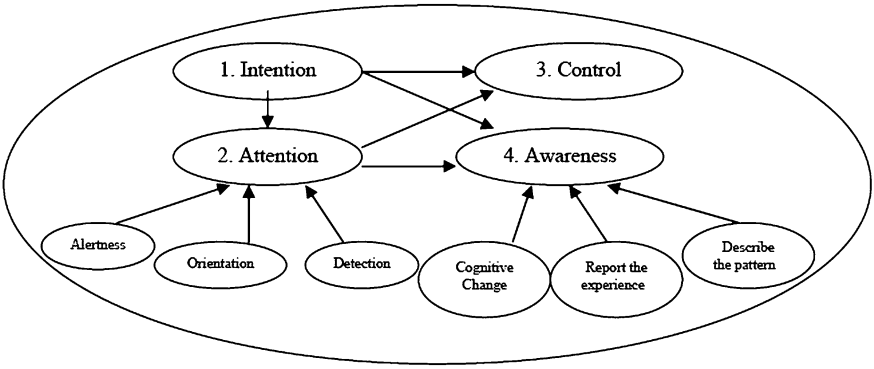
- The declared views on language awareness indicate that the LING-group seems to perceive language awareness more strongly in terms of etymology and structure and in terms of a readiness to offer linguistic explanations.
- The results of the grammaticality judgment tasks indicate that, depending on the type of cue, the LING-group tends to do better at tasks requiring recognizing ambiguity; they are also often ready to provide more paraphrases and verbalizations.
- Regardless of the respondents' future careers (in the teaching profession, in translating/interpreting, in publishing houses, etc.), LA seems to play a vital roles. Hence, since their results on GTJs are slightly lagging behind, the AMER-STUD learners would benefit from more exposure to LA-work.

The second set of conclusions addresses the research questions; specifically those that pertain to FL teacher-training.

- It seems beneficial to involve pre-service teachers more in tasks aiming at developing LA, especially those relating to verbalizations, understood as the ability to comment on a certain linguistic phenomenon even without, or *specifically* without making reference to formal metalinguistic terminology, in hope that the teacher trainees will be able to implement these skills in their future practice.
- It seems beneficial to supplement LA-work carried out in the realm of semantics and syntax, with other levels of (meta) linguistic analysis, notably, phonetic or pragmatic.
- It seems beneficial to extend LA-work as realized through explanation, so that it encompasses not only cases of ill-formedness (more readily expected of teachers, and more readily available to teachers through their past experience as FL learners), but also cases of structural and/or systemic linguistic peculiarities (including such cases as ambiguity, or markedness).
- It seems beneficial to increase the frequency of LA-related activities during teacher-training courses; i.e. activities whose aims is to equip teachers not so much with "knowledge (*savoir*)", but with "skills and know-how (*savoir-faire*)" (CEFR 2001, p. 11), so that teachers receive ample opportunities to experience and practice "LA at work" (ambiguity intended!).
- Finally, since didactic innovations are often set in motion by the figure of the teacher, it seems beneficial to begin LA innovation in FL teacher education with the figure of the teacher-*trainer*, so that LA can percolate through teacher-*trainees* to actual in-class learners.

A.1 5 Appendix 1

The four dimensions of consciousness and the factors affecting them based on Schmidt (1994a) and Allport (1988). Figure adopted from Al-Hejin (2004, p. 4).



A.2 6 Appendix 2

Excerpt of the research instrument relating to research questions one and two

INSTRUCTION: Express your opinion on the scale 1–5 (1 = no, never; 5 = yes, always)	
[MR-ENG] Do you enjoy exploring English further?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5
[MR-LGS] Do you enjoy learning new languages?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5
[LA-ETYM] Do you like reflecting upon language: upon word etymology, common roots of certain words (in Polish or English)?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5
[LA-STR] Do you like reflecting upon language: upon the structure of language, upon how languages are built, what rules operate in languages?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5
[LA-RHYTHM] Do you like reflecting upon language: upon its pronunciation, its sound system, rhymes, rhythm?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5
[LA-EXPLAIN] Do you like using language: explaining how language works, translating, writing, creating something?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5
[LA-PLAY] Do you like using language: playing with Polish or English, creating language puns, creating neologisms?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5
[LA-AMBIG] Do you like using language: do you ever notice potential ambiguities in Polish or English, ambiguous words, ambiguous sentence structures?	1.…..2…..3…..4…..5

Square brackets contain names of the variables (where: MR = more; LA = language awareness)

"Cue sentence" (cf. main text for examples of cue sentences)	
☐ A good English sentence.	☐ A bad English sentence.
It has: ☐ ONE ☐ TWO meaning(s)	
Paraphrase (i) ……	I don't like it because ……
Paraphrase (ii) ……	
I think the ambiguity lies in ……	Instead I would say ……

References

Al-Hejin, B. 2004. Attention and awareness: Evidence from cognitive and second language acquisition research. *Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics* 4(1): 1–22. http://journals.tc-library.org/index.php/tesol/article/view/43/50. Accessed 24 January 2012.

Allport, A. 1988. What concept of consciousness? In *Consciousness in contemporary science*, eds. A. J. Marcel and E. Bisiach, 159–182. London: Clarendon Press.

Bialystok, E. 1978. A theoretical model of second language learning. *Language Learning* 28(1): 69–83.

Bialystok, E. 1981. The role of linguistic knowledge in second language use. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 4(1): 31–45.

Bialystok, E. 1994. Analysis and control in the development of second language proficiency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 16(2): 157–168.

Bolitho, R. and B. Tomlinson. 1995. *Discover English. A language awareness workbook*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Brumfit, C. 1991. Language awareness in teacher education. In *Language awareness in the classroom*, eds. C. James and P. Garrett, 24–39. Harlow: Pearson.

Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. 2001. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

de Villiers, P. A. and J. G. de Villiers. 1972. Early judgments of semantic and syntactic acceptability by children. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* 1: 299–310.

Donmall, G. ed. 1985. *Language awareness* (NCLE Papers and Reports No. 6). London: CILT.

Ellis, R. 1993. The structural syllabus and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly* 27: 91–113.

Fotos, S. 1993. Consciousness raising and noticing through focus on form: Grammar task performance versus formal instruction. *Applied Linguistics* 14(4): 385–407.

Gass, S. 1983. The development of L2 intuitions. *TESOL Quarterly* 17(2): 273–290.

Gozdawa-Gołębiowski, R. 2010. Intergracja czy dezintegracja? O roli systemu gramatycznego w kształceniu typu CLIL. [Integration or disintegration? On the role of grammatical system in CLIL provision]. *Języki Obce w Szkole [Foreign Languages at School]* 6: 43–52.

Hawkins, E. 1981. *Modern languages in the curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hawkins, E. 1992. Awareness of language/knowledge about language in the curriculum of England and Wales. An historical note on twenty years of curricular debate. *Language Awareness* 1(1): 5–17.

James, C. 1996. Language awareness and consciousness of contrast. In *Bangor research papers in linguistics* no. 7, 20–27. Bangor: University of Wales.

James, C. and P. Garrett. 1991. The scope of language awareness. In *Language awareness in the classroom*, eds. C. James and P. Garrett, 3–23. Harlow: Pearson.

Komorowska, H. 2011 Learner autonomy and its implications for the EPOSTL. In *Insights into the European portfolio for student teachers of languages (EPOSTL)*, ed. D. Newby, 51–82. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Krashen, S. 1981. *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
Krashen, S. 1982. *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
Levelt, W., A. Sinclair and R. Jarvella. 1978. Causes and functions of linguistic awareness in language acquisition: Some introductory remarks. In *The child's conception of language*, ed. A. Sinclair, R. Jarvella and W. Levelt, 1–14. Heidleberg: Springer.
Little, D. 1995. Leaning as dialogue: The dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. *System* 23(2): 175–181.
McLaughlin, B., T. Rossman and B. McLeod. 1983. Second language learning: An information-processing perspective. *Language Learning* 33: 135–158.
Możeko, Z. P. 2002. *Language awareness as a factor in foreign language learning and teaching (as exemplified by the learning and teaching of English)*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Warsaw.
Możejko, Z. P. 2009. Z badań nad kształceniem zawodowym i językowym przyszłych nauczycieli języka angielskiego. In *Kształcenie językowe w szkolnictwie wyższym*, ed. H. Komorowska, 255–270. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Academica.
Odlin, T. 1986. On the nature and use of explicit knowledge. *IRAL* 24: 123–144.
Odlin, T. 1994a. Introduction. In *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar*, ed. T. Odlin, 1–14. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Odlin, T. 1994b. The introspective hierarchy: A comparison of intuitions of linguists, teachers, and learners. In *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar*, ed. T. Odlin, 271–292. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Paradis, M. 1994. Neurolinguistic aspects of implicit and explicit memory: Implications for bilingualism and SLA. In *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*, ed. N. Ellis, 393–420. New York, NY: Academic Press.
Piechurska-Kuciel, E. 2005. *The importance of being aware. Advantages of explicit grammar study*. Opole: Opole University Press.
Posner, M. I. and S. E. Petersen. 1990. The attention system of the human brain. *Annual Review of Neuroscience* 13: 25–42.
Reber, A. S. 1989. Implicit learning and tacit knowledge. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* 118: 219–235.
Rutherford, W. and M. Sharwood Smith. 1985. Consciousness-raising and universal grammar. *Applied Linguistics* 6(3): 274–282.
Schmidt, R. 1990. The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11(2): 129–158.
Schmidt, R. 1994a. Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. *Consciousness in second language learning* (Special Issue eds. J. Hulstijn, and R. Schmidt) *AILA Review* 11: 11–26.
Schmidt, R. 1994b. Implicit learning and the cognitive unconscious: Of artificial grammars and SLA. In *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*, ed. N. C. Ellis, 165–209. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
Schmidt, R. 1995. Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning*, ed. R. Schmidt, 1–63. Honolulu, Ha: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.
Schmidt, R. 2010. Attention, awareness, and individual differences in language learning. In *Proceedings of CLaSIC 2010*, Singapore, December 2–4, eds. W. M. Chan, S. Chi, K. N. Cin, J. Istanto, M. Nagami, J. W. Sew, T. Suthiwan and I. Walker (eds.) Proceedings of CLaSIC 2010, Singapore, December 2–4, 721–737. Singapore: National University of Singapore, Centre for Language Studies.
Seliger, H. W. 1983. The language learner as linguist: Of metaphors and realities. Applied Linguistics 4(3): 179–191.
Svalberg, A. M-L. 2007. Language awareness and language learning. *Language Teaching* 40(4): 287–308.
VanPatten, B. 1996. *Input processing and grammar instruction*. Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing.
Westney, P. 1994. Rules and pedagogical grammar. In *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar*, ed. T. Odlin, 72–96. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Language Awareness in EFL Teachers, Teacher Trainees and Advanced Learners

Aleksandra Wach

Abstract The article focuses on the presentation of the results of a study conducted on three groups of Polish users of English: EFL teachers, English majors (who were at the same time teacher-trainees), and advanced EFL learners, students of Economics, who had no intention of becoming teachers. The main aim of the study was to investigate the levels of the participants' metalinguistic knowledge (including the knowledge of grammar rules and metalinguistic terms) and their ability to provide explanations concerning English grammar. Moreover, the research aimed at pinpointing any significant differences among the three groups of participants. In line with previous assumptions, the findings showed that the teacher-trainees' and teachers' overall levels of language awareness were higher than those of the advanced learners. There were, however, considerable differences with regard to the participants' performance on particular tasks in the tests. Although most of the differences in favor of the English majors or the teachers were statistically significant, their levels of metalinguistic knowledge may seem largely disappointing and bring up relevant questions about the role of metalinguistic awareness raising in teacher education.

1 Introduction

The concept of language awareness, which is very broad in scope and thus difficult to define in simple terms, is usually associated with other related concepts, such as knowledge about language, explicit knowledge, metalinguistic awareness and metalinguistic knowledge. Nowadays, with the revival of interest in grammar learning and teaching (Burgess and Etherington 2002; Swan 2011), and with the

A. Wach (✉)
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland
e-mail: waleks@wa.amu.edu.pl

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_4,

emergence of focus-on-form instruction which postulates embedding grammar instruction into communicative activities and opens up numerous instructional options in the teaching of grammar (Nassaji and Fotos 2011; Pawlak 2007), the role of language awareness in learners and teachers continues to be a relevant line of research. Although many proponents of the communicative approach in foreign language teaching strongly believe in the effectiveness of a strictly implicit approach to grammar teaching that requires little use of a teacher's explicit knowledge of the target language, the positive role of language awareness in enhancing effective learning and teaching is generally acknowledged by research and teaching practice. For learners, being aware of language seems to facilitate the learning processes, as it stimulates curiosity about how language works, leads to enhanced autonomy and generally fosters positive learning outcomes (Carter 1995). For teachers, possessing a high level of language awareness is conducive to more effective instruction and better suited to learners' needs, and also fosters the pursuit of professional development (Andrews 1999a, b, 2001, 2003, 2007; Elder et al. 2007; Erlam et al. 2009). In this article, after a brief overview of the concept of language awareness and its relevance to learning and teaching grammar based on the literature on the subject, the results of a study which investigated the levels of language awareness in EFL teachers, teacher trainees and advanced learners will be presented and discussed.

2 The Definition of Language Awareness and Associated Concepts

According to the Association for Language Awareness, language awareness is "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (http://www.language-awareness.org/web.ala/web/about/tout.php). As can be seen from this definition, the notion of explicit knowledge, explained by Roehr and Gánem-Gutiérrez (2009, p. 165) as "knowledge that can be brought into awareness, that is potentially available for verbal report, and is represented declaratively", appears to be at the core of the various definitions of language awareness offered by different researchers (Andrews 2007; Thornbury 1997).

The concept of language awareness is very broad and, thus, overlaps with other related concepts. Andrews (2007, p. 10), for example, notices that the term "language awareness" is often used interchangeably with "knowledge about language", as many researchers treat the two terms as synonymous to a considerable degree (e.g. van Essen 2008; James 1999). The broad character of the concept of language awareness opens up many possibilities for its interpretation.

"Metalinguistic awareness" and "metalinguistic knowledge" are other terms which denote a similar meaning (Roehr and Gánem-Gutiérrez 2009; Ziętek and Roehr 2011). According to Renou (2001, p. 248), metalinguistic awareness is

defined as "conscious knowledge of the formal aspects of the target language (e.g. grammar)", while Sharwood-Smith (2004, p. 269) defines metalinguistic knowledge as "the kind of knowledge to which we may have access and which we can make increasingly sophisticated by consciously studying the intricacies of language in a more or less academic, analytic fashion".

Although the concept of language awareness relates to many areas of language, including grammar, lexis, discourse, pragmatics, and culture (Bolitho et al. 2003; Carter 1995; Andrews 2007), it is mainly used in relation to teaching of the grammatical system, and will be referred to in this manner in the present article.

3 Language Awareness in Teaching L2 Grammar

Different approaches in foreign language teaching have assigned different roles and places for grammar instruction. Thus, while in structuralist approaches explicit grammar teaching was the key element in teaching a language, within the strong version of the communicative approach it was almost completely abandoned. Nowadays, with the relatively recent increase in interest in grammar teaching, a number of instructional options have arisen that involve both implicit and explicit paradigms in grammar instruction (Ellis 2007; Pawlak 2007; Sheen 2003). Although the main recommendations stress the communicative aspect of grammar teaching, with meaning-orientation and contextualization as its major qualities (Celce-Murcia 2007; Nassaji and Fotos 2011), the final shape of grammar instruction will depend on certain variables. Swan (2011) concedes that whether it is appropriate to provide systematic explicit teaching of grammatical structures or whether learners best acquire them incidentally through engaging in communicative activities depends on a number of factors, such as the nature of the target structure, learner variables, and the learning context. It has been suggested by some researchers (e.g. Andrews 2007; Swan 2011) that, in general, more explicit teaching of grammar may be more appropriate in EFL than in ESL contexts.

Explicit teaching of grammar naturally brings about the question about using metalinguistic terminology, which is a controversial issue in today's primarily meaning-oriented language instruction (Berry 1995; Hu 2011; Serrano 2011). For many teachers, use of metalanguage contradicts the principles of Communicative Language Teaching, as it can distract learners from focusing on the meaning of utterances, focusing their attention on the linguistic structures in a decontextualized way, and, therefore, should be avoided. However, as demonstrated by research, careful and prudent use of metalinguistic terminology, adjusted to learners' needs, preferences and developmental stages, is considered desired and helpful (Berry 2008; Basturkmen et al. 2002). Precise metalinguistic explanations constitute a desired mental shortcut, a clear point of reference and a cognitive basis for discovering form-meaning mappings for learners, and thus facilitate self-study (Berman 1979; Swain 1998). Moreover, providing metalinguistic feedback is a valid error correction technique (Nassaji and Fotos 2011).

Therefore, in order to be ready to face the challenges arising from the different options available in form-focused instruction, teachers need to possess high levels of language awareness. Teacher language awareness is defined by Thornbury (1997, p. x) as "the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively". As such, it is "essentially concerned with subject-matter knowledge and its impact upon teaching" (Andrews 2001, p. 76). Borg (2005, 2011) lists knowledge about language among the elements of a teacher's competence, while Andrews (2001, 2007) stresses that it belongs to the more general concept of "pedagogical content knowledge" and contributes to teacher professionalism (Andrews 2003). Lantolf (2009, p. 270) argues that ensuring a solid explicit knowledge of the target language should therefore be a vital component of teacher training courses. Andrews (2007, p. 28) notices a relationship between knowledge about language and a teacher's level of proficiency in the target language. He notes that "[t]he language knowledge/awareness required by the teacher of a language is qualitatively different from that of the educated user of that language", highlighting the specific role of a teacher as a model for learners and as a provider of instructionally useful input. However, although teachers' language awareness can lead to better teaching, it needs to be remembered that it has to be combined with other aspects of a teacher's knowledge base, such as knowledge about teaching, in order to bring positive effects (Andrews and McNeill 2005).

Teachers' language awareness helps them appropriately diagnose learners' problems, provide adequate explanations matched to learners' immediate learning needs, adjust explanations by referring to concepts and terminology that learners are familiar with and ready to process, provide rich and well-formed input and skillfully mediate this input to learners, and, in general, allows them to make optimal use of all the available options of form-focused instruction (Andrews 2001, 2003, 2007; Erlam et al. 2009). The incorporation of a learner's perspective is a crucial characteristic feature of a teacher's language awareness, as learner factors must be taken into account first of all when deciding how a teacher's explicit knowledge of the language system is to be used in the process of teaching.

Because language awareness in teachers performs so many crucial functions in enhancing learning and teaching processes, as argued by Andrews (2007, p. 167), there exists a strong link between teacher language awareness and effective learning. He states that "the language-aware L2 teacher is more likely to be effective in promoting student learning than the teacher who is less language-aware", although he asserts at the same time that teacher language awareness is just one of many factors influencing success in learning.

Several highly insightful studies have been conducted to investigate various aspects of language awareness in foreign language teachers and teacher trainees in different educational contexts. For example, Erlam et al. (2009) compared explicit knowledge of English grammar in native-speaker (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) teacher trainees, and found their ability to provide grammatical rules and their command of metalanguage to be largely unsatisfactory, with the NS generally performing more poorly (although on some tests their performance was at similar

levels) than the NNS. The researchers concluded that this was due to the type of instruction, including the amount of exposure to metalinguistic terms, that NNS and NS received in preparation for the teaching profession. A similar conclusion was also formulated in other research (Andrews 2007; Derwing and Munro 2005; Liu 2005; Llurda 2005). Shuib (2009) investigated the explicit grammatical knowledge of Malaysian primary school teachers of EFL and found largely unsatisfactory results on tests measuring metalanguage recognition and production, error correction and rule explanation abilities. In Wong's (2011) study, as a result of longitudinal collaborations between researchers and teachers, the aim of which was enhancing the latter's language awareness, the teachers developed a deeper understanding of language structures and improved their teaching practices, such as inductive teaching or error correction. Morris (2003) in her study conducted on Canadian TESL trainees discovered a correlation between their scores on a metalinguistic knowledge (grammatical explanation) task and their academic success in the teacher training course; moreover, their scores improved at the end of the course, although no work on grammar was done in the meantime. The researcher formulated an interesting conclusion that metalinguistic knowledge and success in academic courses, even those not related to grammar in any way, may be correlated in that they both require certain metacognitive abilities. Berry (2009) investigated knowledge of metalinguistic terminology among English majors in Poland, Austria and Hong Kong, and found that the participants generally knew 40–50 % of the terms in the test, but substantial differences were revealed in individual performance and knowledge of individual items, and across the three groups of participants. Pahissa and Tragant (2009) focused on the use of metalanguage by Spanish teachers of English in secondary school, concluding that heavy reliance on terminology in providing grammatical explanation may be a "defense mechanism" resorted to by NNS teachers in order to compensate for lacks in their L2 proficiency.

4 The Study

4.1 The Aims of the Study

The main aim of the study was to investigate the levels of explicit knowledge in English grammar of Polish EFL teachers, teacher trainees and advanced learners. In order to achieve this general aim, the study investigated the extent to which the participants would be able to:

- detect grammar mistakes in selected sentences,
- formulate rules explaining why the sentences were ungrammatical,
- productively use metalinguistic terminology in providing the rules, and
- recognize metalinguistic terms and match them to examples of structures.

Moreover, the study aimed to find out whether there would be differences in the above mentioned abilities among practicing teachers, teacher trainees and advanced learners.

4.2 Participants

A total of 153 participants took part in the study. They belonged to three groups: practicing teachers of English (Ts; $N = 65$), teacher trainees (TTs; $N = 54$) and advanced learners of English as a foreign language (Ls; $N = 34$). The teachers taught English at primary, middle and secondary schools (some of them at different kinds of schools at the same time), and their teaching experience was from 0.5 to 7 years. The trainees were all students of English at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, enrolled in the 2nd and 3rd years of the Department's BA program. Apart from courses in the Didactics of English, they took courses in linguistics, literature, culture, and EFL, which included the following components: English grammar, pronunciation (up to the 2nd year of study), speaking, writing and translation. Their English proficiency was assumed to be at the B2/C1 level. The advanced learners were students at the University of Economics who did not intend to become teachers of English. They were in the 3rd year of the BA program and were taking an intensive integrated English course. Their proficiency, as in the case of the trainees, was assumed to be at the B2/C1 level.

4.3 Data Collection

The test used in this study was an adapted version of the test used by Erlam et al. (2009). The instrument consisted of two major parts, which are described below, and samples of the tasks, together with a sample scoring procedure, are included in the Appendix:

- A Grammaticality Judgment Test, which consisted of 40 sentences, some of which were ungrammatical. The participants' task was to mark a sentence as either grammatical or ungrammatical. The maximum score for this test was 40 points.
- Metalinguistic Knowledge Test, which consisted of three parts:
  1. Rule formulation: The participants were supposed to write a rule explaining why each of the 15 sentences was ungrammatical. The maximum score for the test was 15.
  2. Metalinguistic terminology use: While formulating the rules in the Rule Formulation Test, the participants were expected to use metalinguistic terminology. They could score 15 points for this part of the test. For each of the

sentences, a list of expected terms was created. The participants had to use at least one of those terms in order to score a point.

3. Metalinguistic terminology recognition: The participants read a brief text and afterwards were supposed to identify examples of 19 grammatical categories in it; then they identified grammatical categories in 4 sentences. The maximum score for this part of the test was 23.

Statistical analysis using a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted on the test scores in order to find out whether there were differences among the results obtained by the three groups of participants. The study findings are presented in the subsequent section.

4.4 Results

In this section, the scores obtained in particular tests will be presented under separate headings.

4.4.1 Grammaticality Judgment Test

As can be seen in Table 1, the group of teacher trainees (TTs) scored the highest number of points out of the three groups on the Grammaticality Judgment Test (with a mean score of 83.3 %), while the group of learners (Ls) achieved the lowest score (68 % on average). Moreover, the standard deviation value for the TTs was the lowest, indicating the highest uniformity among the scores of the group's participants. It should also be noted that in all groups there were individuals who obtained almost the maximum score (the maximum obtained score in the Ls group was 37 points, 38 in the Ts group and 39 in the TTs group). The lowest score on the test was obtained by participants in the Ls group (18 points).

According to the data in Table 2, the main effect of group was statistical, $F(2, 150) = 27.08$, $p = 0.000$. Since the result of the one-way ANOVA analysis was statistically significant, a post hoc test was computed. Comparisons using LSD contrast found a statistical difference between the Ts and TTs groups (mean difference $= -2.13$, $p = 0.005$), between the Ts and Ls groups (mean difference $= 3.74$, $p = 0.000$), and between the TTs and Ls groups (mean difference $= 5.87$, $p = 0.000$).

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the grammaticality judgment test (maximum score = 40)

Group	M	Percentage mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Range
Ts (N = 65)	31.18	78.0	3.682	0.457	21−38
TTs (N = 54)	33.31	83.3	2.502	0.340	28−39
Ls (N = 34)	27.44	68.5	4.913	0.842	18−37

Table 2 Omnibus one-way ANOVA for the grammaticality judgment test

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	720.512	2	360.256	27.076	0.000
Within groups	1995.815	150	13.305		
Total	2716.327	152			

The data included in Tables 1 and 2 indicate that the TTs group had the best performance out of the three groups in judging the grammatical acceptability of sentences containing a variety of grammatical structures.

4.4.2 Rule Formulation Test

Tables 3 and 4 contain descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA analysis of the results obtained by the participants on the test in which they were required to write down rules accounting for grammatical errors in 15 sentences. As indicated by Table 3, the mean score of the TTs group was higher than in the remaining two groups ($M = 10.93$ out of the maximum of 15 points, which constituted 84.1 % of the maximum score). The percentage mean values obtained by the Ts and Ls groups (53.7 and 36.7 %, respectively) showed that their performance was lower than on the Grammaticality Judgment Test. It is worth highlighting that in the Ts and Ls groups there were individuals who scored 0 points, while the lowest score in the TTs group was 6. The highest score obtained in the TTs group was 15 (the maximum score; while in the Ts and Ls groups it was 13 and 12, respectively). This is further confirmed by the relatively low standard deviation levels in the TTs group.

As indicated in Table 4, there was a significant effect of group on the scores obtained by the three groups of participants: $F(2, 150) = 39.64$, $p = 0.000$.

Post hoc comparisons using the LSD test indicated that the differences in the mean scores of the Ts and TTs groups were statistically significant (mean difference $= -2.86$, $p = 0.000$), similar to the differences between Ts and Ls (mean difference $= 2.56$, $p = 0.000$), and between TTs and Ls (mean difference $= 5.42$, $p = 0.000$). These data show that the groups' performance on the Rules Formulation Test varied considerably.

Finally, it is interesting to note some of the examples of the rules formulated by the study participants as a response to the following sentence: "Does Jim has a Chinese wife?" (the mistake is underlined). This example stimulated the following responses:

- "You should use 'have' because you started the question with 'does'" (a rule formulated by a member of the Ts group).
- "The auxiliary 'does' points to the present tense 3rd person singular, so the verb 'have' should be in the base form" (a rule formulated by a member of the TTs group).
- "We don't put 's' in 'have' since this 's' went to 'do'" (a rule formulated by a member of the Ls group).

Table 3 Descriptive statistics for the rule formulation test (maximum score = 15)

Group	M	Percentage mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Range
Ts (N = 65)	8.06	53.7	3.092	0.383	0–13
TTs (N = 54)	10.93	84.1	2.118	0.288	6–15
Ls (N = 34)	5.05	36.7	3.278	0.562	0–12

Table 4 Omnibus one-way ANOVA for the rules formulation test

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	636.291	2	318.145	39.637	0.000
Within groups	1203.958	150	8.026		
Total	1840.248	152			

4.4.3 Metalinguistic Terminology Tests

Tables 5 and 6 collectively present the results of the two tests which measured the participants' knowledge of metalinguistic terminology, both productively (incorporating appropriate terms in the rules they formulated) and receptively (matching appropriate examples found in a text and a set of sentences to grammatical categories provided). According to Table 5, the productive metalanguage-use task was quite problematic, as the mean scores for all the groups were relatively lower than those obtained on other tests. Nevertheless, the TTs group obtained the highest score (8.31 points out of the maximum of 15, which is 55.4 %). The mean scores obtained by the other groups were lower (36.8 % for Ts and 16.7 % for Ls). In each of the groups, the lowest obtained score was 0 points, while the highest obtained score on this test was 13 (by a TTs group member).

The mean scores were considerably higher for the recognition task. Here, the percentage mean score for the TTs reached 85.2 %, while for the Ts and Ls groups it was 73.1 % and 51.8 %, respectively. The standard deviation level was

Table 5 Descriptive statistics for the metalinguistic terminology (production and recognition) tests

Group	Maximum score	M	Percentage mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Range
Metalanguage use						
Ts (N = 65)	15	5.52	36.8	3.327	0.413	0–12
TTs (N = 54)		8.31	55.4	2.568	0.350	0–13
Ls (N = 34)		2.50	16.7	2.300	0.394	0–9
Metalanguage recognition						
Ts (N = 65)	23	16.82	73.1	4.433	0.550	3–23
TTs (N = 54)		19.59	85.2	2.544	0.346	8–23
Ls (N = 34)		11.91	51.8	4.033	0.692	3–18

Table 6 Omnibus one-way ANOVA for the metalinguistic terminology tests

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Metalanguage use					
Between groups	716.551	2	358.276	43.608	0.000
Within groups	1232.364	150	8.216		
Total	1948.915	152			
Metalanguage recognition					
Between groups	1232.208	2	616.104	43.234	0.000
Within groups	2137.557	150	14.250		
Total	3369.765	152			

considerably lower for TTs than for the other groups, suggesting greater internal consistency in the sores within this group. This was also reflected in the ranges of scoring obtained by the groups, as in the case of TTs the range was the narrowest (and the minimum score obtained by this group participants was the highest).

It is clear from Table 6 that a one-way analysis of variance revealed significant differences for the metalanguage production test, $F(2,150) = 43.60$, $p = 0.000$, and for the metalanguage recognition test, $F(2, 150) = 43{,}23$, $p = 0.000$.

Post hoc comparisons through the LSD tests confirmed statistically significant differences between the mean scores across all conditions on both tests. For the metalanguage use test, the mean difference between TTs and Ts was 2.79, $p = 0.000$, between Ts and Ls it was 3.02, $p = 0.000$, and between TTs and Ls it was 5.82, $p = 000$. Similarly, for the recognition test, the difference in the mean scores of the TTs and Ts groups was 2.78, $p = 0.000$, between Ts and Ls it was 4.9, $p = 0.000$, and between TTs and Ls it was 7.68, $p = 0.000$. Therefore, the data clearly indicate that the TTs group significantly outscored the Ts and Ls groups on Metalinguistic Terminology Tests, demonstrating the highest ability both in using and recognizing terms denoting grammatical categories.

4.5 Discussion

The study results showed that the levels of language awareness understood as explicit knowledge about grammar and metalinguistic knowledge varied considerably among the three groups of participants. While the teacher trainees demonstrated high levels of language awareness, the teachers' abilities in this respect were significantly lower and the advanced learners did not show very high levels of explicit grammatical knowledge. This is not a very surprising finding and a rather positive one. The trainees could be expected to score high on the explicit knowledge tests because of their intensive language study: they still had instruction in EFL, including a grammar-oriented course, and in linguistics, which probably often involved the use of metalinguistic terminology. The learners' performance on the tests was not surprising, either. Although their language was at

an advanced level, they focused more on using English effectively in meaning-oriented contexts rather than studying linguistic forms explicitly. In fact, two of the learner participants wrote their comments on the tests (although they were not required to), stating that they did not need to know the names of structures, but merely how to use them. Even though, as highlighted by some researchers (Bolitho et al. 2003; Carter 1995; Elder and Manwaring 2004; Renou 2001), high levels of language awareness may contribute to enhanced learning outcomes, language awareness may be demonstrated in other ways, not necessarily in the ability to formulate rules or to know metalinguistic terminology.

The study results suggest that the two groups of study participants, teacher trainees and advanced learners, although similar to a certain extent (both consisted of learners of EFL at a high proficiency level), differed significantly in their motivations to learn English and in the ways they learned and were taught. While the trainees concentrated more on the language itself "as an object to be studied and analyzed and (…) as a tool for engaging in effective communication" (Batstone and Ellis 2009, p. 199), perhaps in order to be able to teach it effectively in the future, the students of Economics focused on being able to communicate effectively in English, perhaps for job-related or leisure purposes.

The performance of the teachers' group appeared to be the most surprising and the most disappointing. Although their results were significantly higher on all tests than those obtained by the advanced learners, on some of the tests the results can be considered less than satisfactory. They performed better on tasks which demanded receptive rather than productive knowledge, i.e. the Grammaticality Judgment Test and the Metalanguage Recognition Test, while their performance on the Rule Formulation Test and Metalanguage Use Test was much weaker. It may be inferred on the basis of these data that the teachers were not properly equipped with explicit knowledge of English grammar to be able to benefit from all options within the currently recommended focus-on-form approach, as the explanation of rules, especially with the use of metalinguistic terminology, may be too challenging for them. It may be argued that not all teachers will ever need to use metalinguistic terms to offer explicit explanations (e.g. those who teach children will probably not resort to their explicit knowledge in their lessons). On the other hand, possessing such knowledge does not have to automatically lead to transferring it directly to learners; it may build up the knowledge base of a teacher, which may be useful in pursuing professional development, teaching grammar in other educational contexts, etc.

Another point worth mentioning is that the ability to formulate rules and use metalinguistic terms demonstrated by the teacher trainees does not mean that they are well prepared to teach grammar. On the contrary, their explicit knowledge may overshadow other ways of providing grammar instruction, as a result of which their teaching may be too explicit, too rule-driven and not always adjusted to a teaching context and learners' needs. As noted by Borg (2011), there are many elements of successful teaching apart from knowledge about the target language.

5 Conclusions and Implications

A few conclusions and teaching implications can be formulated on the basis of the study's findings. One of them is that since the focus-on-form approach offers so many different options for teaching grammar, it is important to diagnose learners' needs and expectations, as well as their developmental stage, in order to make efficient use of explicit knowledge about the language system. In fact, in most classroom situations, explicit teaching with the use of terminology will be needed only to modest degrees.

Moreover, the relatively unsatisfactory levels in the teachers' levels of language awareness naturally have some implications for foreign language teacher education. Perhaps pre-service teacher training and in-service teacher development programs need to diagnose prospective and practicing teachers' metalinguistic knowledge more strictly, and offer supplementary training in this respect. While the trainees in this study had received sufficient training in all areas of teacher language awareness, this may not be the case in many other institutions which offer teacher education. A similar conclusion, concerning the need to diagnose trainees' explicit knowledge more strictly, has been drawn by other researchers (e.g. Elder et al. 2007; Erlam et al. 2009), but it needs to be noted here that the need for teachers to possess high levels of explicit knowledge about the language they teach is a controversial issue and many researchers and teachers may reject the idea as not useful. Another suggestion is that pre-service teacher training programs need to highlight the relevance of such knowledge for teaching purposes, paying special attention to a variety of grammar teaching approaches and techniques, including those that focus on implicit teaching. Since, as many studies indicate, EFL teachers tend to hold rather traditional views on the desired shape of grammar instruction, more innovative, communicative teaching ideas need to be promoted in teacher training courses. Finally, it needs to be concluded that whatever beliefs about grammar teaching a teacher holds, a teacher's ongoing, constant self-development within the area of knowledge of the language and about the language is a necessity to prepare them for the challenges of the contemporary EFL classroom.

A.1 6 Appendix

Sample tasks from the tests used in the study (adapted from Erlam et al. 2009):

Grammaticality Judgment Test

Please mark the following sentences as either grammatical (✔) or ungrammatical (X).

1. It's the first time I've eaten Mexican food.
2. I hate that you can swim so well and I can't.

3. The teacher explained the problem to the students.
4. Mark says he wants buying a car next week.
5. Martin completed his assignment and print it out.

Rule Formulation Test

Below there are 15 sentences. They are all ungrammatical. The part of the sentence containing the error is underlined. For each sentence, if you know a rule that explains why the sentence is ungrammatical, write it in the space provided. If you do not know a rule, leave it blank.

1. I must have to wash my hands.
2. Hiroshi wants visiting the United States this year.
3. If Jane had asked me, I would give her some money.
4. Learning a language is more easier when you are young.
5. Mary grew some rose in her garden.

Metalanguage Recognition Test

Part 1. *Read the passage below. Find one example in the passage for each of the grammatical features listed in the table. Write the examples in the table in the spaces provided. It may be possible to choose the same example to illustrate more than one grammatical feature.*

The materials are delivered to the factory by a supplier, who usually has no technical knowledge, but who happens to have the right contacts. We would normally expect the materials to arrive within three days, but this time it has taken longer.

Grammatical feature	Example
Definite article	*the*
Verb	
Noun	
Preposition	
Passive verb	
Conditional verb	

Part 2. *In the following sentences, underline the item requested in brackets:*

1. Poor little Joe stood out in the snow. (SUBJECT)
2. John had nowhere to stay. (INFINITIVE)
3. The policeman chased Joe down the street. (DIRECT OBJECT)
4. The woman gave him some money. (INDIRECT OBJECT)

A sample scoring procedure for the Rules Formulation Test:

1 point for an appropriate rule, 1 point for using at least one of the suggested terms.

- His school grades were improved last year.

Rule: 'improve' should take the active form even though the subject is not the agent.

Terminology: active/passive/agent

- Jessica happen to meet an old friend yesterday.

Rule: the sentence refers to the past, so a regular verb past tense ending is needed.

Terminology: regular verb/past tense

- Because he was late, he called taxi.

Rule: 'taxi' is a countable singular noun, and it's not specific, so the indefinite article is needed.

Terminology: countable/singular/indefinite article.

References

Andrews, S. 1999a. 'All these like little name things': A comparative study of language teachers' explicit knowledge of grammar and grammatical terminology. *Language Awareness* 8: 143–159.

Andrews, S. 1999b. Why do L2 teachers need to 'know about language'? Teacher metalinguistic awareness and input for learning. *Language and Education* 13: 161–177.

Andrews, S. 2001. The language awareness of the L2 teacher: Its impact upon pedagogical practice. *Language Awareness* 10: 75–90.

Andrews, S. 2003. Teacher language awareness and the professional knowledge base of the L2 teacher. *Language Awareness* 12: 81–95.

Andrews, S. 2007. *Teacher language awareness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Andrews, S. and A. McNeill. 2005. Knowledge about language and the 'good language teacher'. In *Applied linguistics and language teacher education,* ed. N. Bartels, 159–178. Boston: Springer.

Basturkmen, H., S. Loewen and R. Ellis, R. 2002. Metalanguage in focus on form in the communicative classroom. *Language Awareness* 11: 1–13.

Batstone, R. and R. Ellis. 2009. Principled grammar teaching. *System* 37: 194–204.

Berman, R. 1979. Rule of grammar or rule of thumb? *IRAL* 17: 279–302.

Berry, R. 1995. Grammatical terminology: Is there a student/teacher gap? In *Language awareness in language education,* eds. D. Nunan, R. Berry and V. Berry, 51–68. Hong Kong: Department of Curriculum Studies, University of Hong Kong.

Berry, R. 2008. Talking terms: Choosing and using terminology for EFL classrooms. *English Language Teaching* 1: 19–24.

Berry, R. 2009. EFL majors' knowledge of metalinguistic terminology: A comparative study. *Language Awareness* 18: 113–128.

Bolitho, R., R. Carter, R. Hugh, R. Ivanič, H. Masuhara and B. Tomlinson. 2003. Ten questions about language awareness. *ELT Journal* 57: 251–259.

Borg, S. 2005. Experience, knowledge about language and classroom practice in teaching grammar. In *Applied linguistics and language teacher education*, ed. N. Bartels, 325–340. Boston: Springer.

Borg, S. 2011. Language teacher education. In *The Routledge handbook of applied linguistics*, ed. J. Simpson, 215–228. London and New York: Routledge.

Burgess, J. and S. Etherington. 2002. Focus on grammatical form: Explicit or implicit? *System* 30: 433–458.

Carter, R. 1995. How aware should language aware teachers and learners be? In *Language awareness in language education*, eds. D. Nunan, R. Berry and V. Berry, 1–16. Hong Kong: Department of Curriculum Studies, University of Hong Kong.

Celce-Murcia, M. 2007. Toward more context and discourse in grammar instruction. *TESL-EJ* 11: 1–6.

Derwing, T. and M. Munro. 2005. Pragmatic perspectives on the preparation of teachers of English as a second language: Putting the NS/NNS debate into context. In *Non-native language teachers. Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession,* ed. E. Llurda, 179–191. New York: Springer.

Elder, C., R. Erlam and J. Philp. 2007. Explicit language knowledge and focus on form: Options and obstacles for TESOL teacher trainees. In *Form-focused instruction and teacher education. Studies in honour of Rod Ellis*, eds. S. Fotos and H. Nassaji, 225–240. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Elder, C. and D. Manwaring. 2004. The relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and learning outcomes among undergraduate students of Chinese. *Language Awareness* 13: 145–162.

Ellis, R. 2007. Explicit form-focused instruction and second language acquisition. In *The handbook of educational linguistics*, eds. B. Spolsky and F. Hult, 437–455. New York: Wiley-Blackwell.

Erlam, R., J. Philp and C. Elder. 2009. Exploring the explicit knowledge of TESOL teacher trainees: Implications for focus on form in the classroom. In *Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing and teaching*, eds. R. Ellis, S. Loewen, C. Elder, R. Erlam, J. Philp and H. Reinders, 216–236. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Hu, G. 2011. A place for metalanguage in the L2 classroom. *ELT Journal* 65: 180–182.

James, C. 1999. Language awareness: Implications for the language curriculum. *Language, Culture and Curriculum* 12: 94–115.

Lantolf, J. P. 2009. Knowledge of language in foreign language teacher education. *Modern Language Journal* 93: 270–274.

Liu, J. 2005. Chinese graduate teaching assistants teaching freshman composition to native English speaking students. In *Non-native language teachers. Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession,* ed. E. Llurda, 154–177. New York: Springer.

Llurda, E. 2005. Non-native TESOL students as seen by practicum supervisors. In *Non-native language teachers. Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession*, ed. E. Llurda,131–154. New York: Springer.

Morris, L. 2003. Linguistic knowledge, metalinguistic knowledge and academic success in a language teacher education programme. *Language Awareness* 12: 109–123.

Nassaji, H. and S. Fotos. 2011. *Teaching grammar in second language classrooms: Integrating form-focused instruction in communicative context.* New York: Routledge.

Pahissa, I. and E. Tragant. 2009. Grammar and the non-native secondary school teacher in Catalonia. *Language Awareness* 18: 47–60.

Pawlak, M. 2007. An overview of focus on form in language teaching. In *Exploring focus on form in language teaching*, ed. M. Pawlak, 5–26. Poznań–Kalisz: Adam Mickiewicz University Press.

Renou, J. 2001. An examination of the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and second-language proficiency of adult learners of French. *Language Awareness* 10: 248–267.

Roehr, K. and A. Gánem-Gutiérrez. 2009. The status of metalinguistic knowledge in instructed adult L2 learning. *Language Awareness* 18: 165–181.

Serrano, R. 2011. From metalinguistic instruction to metalinguistic knowledge, and from metalinguistic knowledge to performance in error correction and oral production tasks. *Language Awareness* 20: 1–16.

Sharwood Smith, M. 2004. In two minds about grammar: On the interaction of linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge in performance. *Transactions of the Philological Society* 102: 255–280.

Sheen, R. 2003. Focus on form – a myth in the making? *ELT Journal* 57: 225–233.

Shuib, M. 2009. Grammatical awareness among primary school English language teachers. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies* 9: 35–46.

Swain, M. 1998. Focus on form through conscious reflection. In *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*, eds. C. Doughty and J. Williams, 64–81. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swan, M. 2011. Grammar. In *The Routledge handbook of applied linguistics*, ed. J. Simpson, 557–570. London and New York: Routledge.

Thornbury, S. 1997. *About language. Tasks for teachers of English.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Van Essen, A. 2008. Language awareness and knowledge about language: A historical overview. In *Encyclopedia of language and education, 2nd Edn, Volume 6: Knowledge about Language*, eds. J. Cenoz and N. H. Hornberger, 3–14. New York: Springer.

Wong, R. M. H. 2011. Developing teacher awareness of language use and language knowledge in English classrooms: Four longitudinal cases. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching* 8: 19–38.

Ziętek, A. and K. Roehr. 2011. Metalinguistic knowledge and cognitive style in Polish classroom learners of English. *System* 39: 417–426.

Part II
Learning

Investigating Learner Engagement with Oral Corrective Feedback: Aims, Methodology, Outcomes

Mirosław Pawlak

Abstract The last decade has seen major developments in research into the effects of oral corrective feedback, a phenomenon that can be attributed to renewed interest in the role of form-focused instruction, of which error correction can be seen as an integral part. Most of these studies have attempted to explore the relative value of different feedback moves, particularly those that differ in terms of their explicitness (e.g. recasts vs. metalinguistic feedback) and the requirement for the production of output (e.g. recasts vs. prompts) (cf. Sheen 2010a, b; Sheen and Ellis 2011). While the findings of such research are insightful, the impact of correction on the mastery of specific linguistic features in terms of long-term learning outcomes is also a function of a variety of mediating variables (e.g. aptitude, motivation, anxiety) and learners' engagement with the negative evidence (Ellis 2011). This engagement can be understood as the behavioral, cognitive or affective response to corrective moves and it could be argued that it determines to a large extent whether or not the information contained in the feedback is attended to, noticed and processed in the right way. Unfortunately, empirical evidence in this area is extremely scarce, and there is an urgent need for more research that would illuminate this important issue. The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the aims, methodology and outcomes of the empirical investigations conducted so far, indicate areas requiring improvement, and point to future directions of research into learners' awareness of the corrective feedback they receive.

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

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_5,

1 Introduction

The last two decades have seen major developments in research into the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback (CF), with the main emphasis being shifted from preoccupation with its overall contributions to the value of specific techniques in which it can be provided (see Ellis 2009; Russell 2009; Sheen 2010a, 2011; Sheen and Ellis 2011; Pawlak 2012a, for an overview). It has also become clear that, although error correction can be employed for a variety of purposes in the language classroom, it should first and foremost be perceived as a crucial technique in form-focused instruction that aids the acquisition of linguistic features that are the focus of pedagogic intervention at a given point in time. As Pawlak (2012a, p. 53) writes, "(…) viewing corrective feedback as an option in formal instruction allows forging crucial links between the ways in which teachers react to erroneous forms in learners' output and the pedagogic goals they wish to attain in a particular lesson, a series of such lessons, as well as the whole language course". Such a revival of interest in error correction should come as no surprise in view of the theoretical, empirical and practical support that can be garnered for this kind of pedagogic intervention. For one thing, the need for some form of corrective feedback is postulated by Skill-Learning Theory (DeKeyser 1998), the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt 1990), the Output Hypothesis (Swain 1995), the revised Interaction Hypothesis (Long 1996), Connectionist Theory (Ellis 2005) or Sociocultural Theory (Lantolf 2006), to name only the most influential ones. There is also abundant empirical evidence demonstrating that not only does error correction work, but that it contributes to more accurate use of the targeted features under time pressure, which testifies to the development of implicit rather than only explicit knowledge, and that the gains are maintained over time (see Li 2010; Lyster and Saito 2010; Sheen and Ellis 2011; Pawlak 2012a, for a review). Finally, it is possible to point to a number of pedagogical considerations which justify reliance on corrective feedback, the most important of which are connected with opportunities to test hypotheses about the target language (TL) (cf. Allwright and Bailey 1991), the danger that erroneous output will serve as input to the student who produces it and to other learners (cf. Schachter 1988), or the fact that error correction constitutes part and parcel of foreign language education (cf. Pawlak 2012a).

The majority of studies conducted thus far have attempted to explore the relative value of different corrective feedback moves, particularly explicit and implicit correction and input-providing and output-inducing CF, distinctions that will be elaborated upon in the following section. It should be kept in mind, however, that the effects of specific types of feedback do not only depend on their nature, but are also mediated by a host of individual, linguistic and contextual variables, with the result that the same kind of error treatment may work better or worse for different learners, different TL forms and different situations. What is even more important, the contributions of corrective feedback hinge upon *learners' engagement* with the corrective information, or their awareness of and reaction to this type of negative evidence (i.e. information about what is not possible in the

target language) (cf. Ellis 2010). The aim of the present chapter is to provide an overview of the aims, methodology and outcomes of the empirical investigations into learners' engagement conducted thus far, indicate areas requiring improvement, and point to future directions of research into learners' response to CF.

2 The Importance of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback

As illustrated in Fig. 1, which presents a framework for investigating oral corrective feedback, proposed by Ellis (2010) and slightly modified by Pawlak (2012a), there are four components that can become the object of inquiry, with the important caveat that the last of these, namely learning outcomes, is of relevance for virtually all research projects conducted in this area. In the first place, it is possible to explore the effectiveness of different types of oral CF, as it is clear that some of them may be more beneficial than others, depending on circumstances, and what the teacher does at this stage is undoubtedly of pivotal significance for the acquisition of the targeted linguistic features. The majority of the studies undertaken to date have focused on the distinctions between *explicit* and *implicit feedback*, on the one hand, and *input-providing* and *output-prompting feedback*, on the other. As regards the first of these, the key issue is learners' awareness that they are being provided with reactive negative evidence, with the two options typically being operationalized in terms of the difference between *direct correction*, often aided by *metalinguistic clues*, and *recasting*, which involves corrective reformulation of the erroneous utterance and which may often be misinterpreted as a confirmation of what has been said rather than error treatment. In the case of the second, the contrast is related to the requirement for the incorporation of the accurate form into the subsequent turn, which entails output modification and self-correction. In most research projects, it has been operationalized as the difference between *recasts*, which may but do not have to be followed by such an incorporation, and *prompts*, also referred to as *negotiation of form*, which involve the use

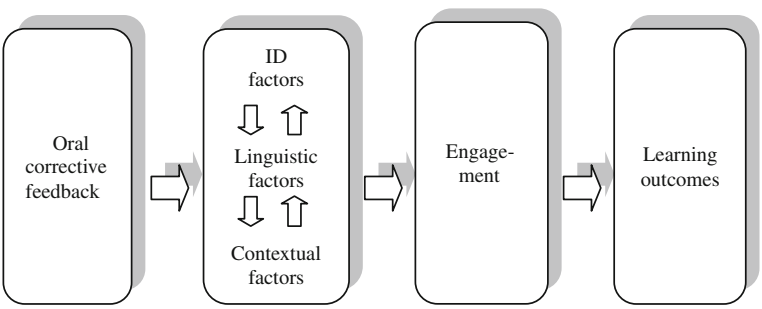


Fig. 1 A framework for investigating oral corrective feedback (Ellis 2010; Pawlak 2012a)

of elicitation, repetition, clarification requests or metalinguistic cues, and place the onus on the learner to attempt self-repair (cf. Sheen 2010a; Sheen and Ellis 2011; Pawlak 2012a).

Irrespective of how oral corrective feedback is implemented, its effects are bound to be mediated by an array of moderating variables, which to a large extent determine the degree to which it will contribute to interlanguage development, and can be connected with *individual differences between learners*, *linguistic considerations* and *contextual factors.* As regards the first of these, second language acquisition research has identified a number of *cognitive* (e.g. age, aptitude, working memory, cognitive styles), *affective* (e.g. motivation, willingness to communicate, anxiety), and *social* (e.g. attitudes, beliefs) (e.g. Dörnyei and Skehan 2003; Dörnyei 2005; Ellis 2008; Cohen 2010; Pawlak 2012b) facets which may affect the learning and teaching of foreign languages, and many of these have also been shown to be relevant in the case of error correction (cf. Pawlak 2012a). Linguistic considerations are reflective of the *learning challenge* posed by the targeted linguistic feature and it is a function of its *linguistic complexity*, which can be understood in quite disparate ways as *developmental readiness*, the *degree to which a particular item has been acquired*, the *amount of transformation* needed for morphological and syntactic rules, the *language subsystem*, or the distinction between *system learning* and *item learning* (cf. Ellis 2010; Sheen 2010a; Spada and Tomita 2010; Sheen 2011; Pawlak 2012a). Finally, contextual factors are reflective of the situation in which CF occurs, which can be conceptualized in terms of *macro factors*, such as the distinctive characteristics of a specific instructional context (i.e. second, foreign, immersion), and *micro factors*, which are related to what transpires in the classroom (e.g. the presence of previous instruction, the tasks performed, the nature of classroom interaction, groups dynamics).

While the choice of a particular feedback move and the impact of mediating variables can hardly be underestimated in determining the effects of oral error correction, neither of the two components appears to be as critical as *learners' engagement* with the negative evidence they receive, for the simple reason that if they fail to notice, use and appreciate the corrective information, it will have no impact at all on their mastery of the targeted linguistic features. In other words, it is of little relevance if the teacher draws upon a recast or a prompt, whether the intervention is more or less transparent to the learner, or whether the feedback is adjusted to his or her individual profile, it respects the characteristics of the targeted linguistic feature, or takes into account the distinctive features of a particular context, when the negative evidence is not noticed, it is misinterpreted, only superficially processed, or regarded as a face threat in a given situation. According to Ellis (2010), such engagement can take the form of *behavioral response*, understood in terms of *uptake* (e.g. an attempt to incorporate the correction) and *repair* (i.e. output modification in the direction of the target language), *cognitive response*, related to noticing, attention, understanding, and processing of the reactive negative evidence (e.g. interpretation of the corrective move), and *affective response*, connected with learners' attitudes towards the fact that they are being corrected and the type of CF employed (i.e. the extent to which the learner

wishes to receive feedback and the degree to which it is viewed as facilitative or damaging). Needless to say, the investigation of these types of response requires the use of various data collection instruments and analytical procedures, a point which will be the focus of the following section.

3 Methodology of Research into Learner Engagement

The methodology of research striving to provide data on the nature of learners' engagement with oral corrective feedback varies considerably, depending on whether it is intended to offer insights into the behavioral, cognitive or affective dimension of such engagement. Behavioral response lends itself easily to inspection since it quite openly manifests itself in what learners do with the CF provided in terms of immediate modifications of their oral output, as visible in their attempts at uptake and repair, with the research procedures being largely the same as those employed in descriptive studies of the effects of different types of oral correction (e.g. Lyster and Ranta 1997; Lyster 1998; Panova and Lyster 2002). These studies involve audio- or video-recording samples of naturally-occurring classroom discourse, usually many hours in length, and identifying segments which are communicative and interactive in nature (e.g. role-plays, whole-class discussions, decision-making or problem-solving tasks). The recording are subsequently transcribed, coded and subjected to a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis, sometimes with the assistance of field notes or observation schemes, such as Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT).

The main unit of analysis is the *error treatment sequence*, introduced by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and then elaborated upon in subsequent descriptive studies (e.g. Lyster 1998; Panova and Lyster 2002; Tseng 2004), which is initiated by the commission of an error, coded as grammatical, phonological and lexical. This can be followed by *topic continuation*, when the erroneous form goes unnoticed or is ignored by the teacher who invites the learner to carry on speaking, or the *provision of corrective feedback*, which is considered with respect to such CF moves as *explicit correction*, *recasts*, *elicitation*, *metalinguistic clues*, *clarification requests* and *repetition*, with the last four constituting the category of *negotiation of form* or *prompting* and often being analyzed jointly (e.g. Lyster and Mori 2006). The next step is either *further elaboration of the topic*, when the learner fails to recognize the problem, does not understand the nature of the correction or simply does not know how to eliminate the inaccurate form, or *uptake*, defined as "(…) a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (Lyster and Ranta 1997, p. 49). This reaction is then subdivided into *repair*, in which case the correct form is incorporated into the utterance, either through repeating what the teacher has said or performing self-correction, and *needs repair*, where the inaccurate utterance fails

to be modified in the direction of the TL, which can set off further attempts at error correction or lead to the abandonment of the focus on form and continuation of the topic. The data collected and coded in these ways are typically subjected to a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis. The former may involve, for example, calculating the numbers and percentages of errors, the tokens and percentages of the different types of corrective feedback together with their distribution across error categories, as well as the numbers and percentages of different types of uptake alongside their distribution across both types of errors and corrective moves, with inferential statistics being drawn upon to determine the significance of the differences detected. The latter may consist in examining the characteristics of CF sequences, relating their nature to particular segments of a lesson, the roles of teachers and students, or modes of classroom organization, as well as enhancing such interpretations with insights gleaned from field notes or coding schemes.

The main woe of research into learners' behavioral response to correction is tied to the fact that the occurrence of uptake in the form of successful repair does not always constitute ample evidence that the targeted feature has been attended to and noticed, let alone processed sufficiently enough to be acquired. These problems are particularly acute in situations when learners simply incorporate the correct form provided by the teacher, which can amount to little more than thoughtless parroting, but some of them are also present when the student manages to perform self-correction, because there is no guarantee that the same error will not reappear at a later time, a phenomenon that has been well documented by existing research (e.g. Pawlak 2004). The limitations of examining learners' immediate response to corrective feedback are emphasized by Nassaji (2011, pp. 18, 19) who, following the reservations voiced by Mackey and Philp (1998), Nabei and Swain (2002), Ellis and Sheen (2006), or Long (2007), comments: "Many researchers have stressed that language learning is a complex and gradual process and that we should not assume that an immediate reaction in response to feedback provides a valid measure of language learning (…). Even successful repair may not indicate that the learner has learned from the feedback because the repair can simply be the result of a mechanical repetition of feedback (…)". In reaction to such shortcomings, attempts have been made to design tools allowing the investigation of the connection between uptake and repair immediately following the corrective reaction on the part of the teacher and the acquisition of the targeted item in the long run, which also sheds light on the value of examining behavioral response as a manifestation of learner engagement with CF. These tools are usually referred to as *individualized* or *tailor-made posttests*, and they can take different forms, such as, for example, *grammaticality judgments* (Nabei and Swain 2002), *asking learners to correct oral utterances* (Loewen 2005), or *requesting them to make changes to written descriptions* (Nassaji 2009). It should also be stressed that tests of this kind can function both as immediate posttests, when they are administered only once after the provision of corrective feedback in interaction, as *immediate and delayed posttests*, when they are repeated several times, and even as *pretests*, when the pedagogic intervention is deliberately planned to allow this.

The investigation of the cognitive response poses much greater problems on account of the fact that it is exceedingly difficult to capture such learner-internal processes as attention, noticing or understanding of corrective moves, and overt manifestations of these processes can on many occasions be misleading. Such limitations necessitate reliance on additional data collection instruments which offer insights into thought processes in the form of *introspection* and *retrospection*. It could involve, for example, the use of *stimulated recall interviews* where students are requested to comment on the correction episodes in which they participated and which are presented to them as audio- or video-recordings of their interactions (e.g. Mackey 2006a; Egi 2007, 2010; Yoshida 2010; Bao et al. 2011). When such recordings are available in digital form, which seems to be currently the norm, the audio or video files could also be edited and manipulated in different ways by, for example, removing the non-targetlike learners' utterances that trigger the provision of CF, as Carpenter, Seon Jeon and MacGregor (2006) did in their study, or taking this procedure one step further by asking students to report on the cues they took into account when making their interpretations, as suggested by Mackey (2006b) in her discussion of the future directions of interactionist research.

There are also other tools and procedures that can be drawn upon to tap into cognitive response to oral CF, which may include *immediate reports*, as when learners are invited to verbalize their thoughts after a 10–15 s long conversational turn in reaction to a cue from the researcher (e.g. Egi 2004, 2007), an *analysis of transcripts* of classroom interaction in terms of the interpretation of error treatment sequences (e.g. Yoshida 2010), as well as *exit questionnaires* administered on completion of communicative tasks or the final posttests with an eye to gauging the degree of students' awareness of the feedback provided and the focus of the outcome measures employed (e.g. Mackey et al. 2010; Sheen 2010b; Yang and Lyster 2010). Finally, Mackey (2006b) highlights the considerable promise of *key and eye tracking software*, commonly used by psychologists, or the recent advances in *cognitive neuroscience*, such as event-related potentials (ERPs), based on electroencephalography (EEG), as well as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). While the benefits of such tools in the study of learner engagement with CF is undeniable, it has to be acknowledged, however, that access to such cutting-edge technology is still severely limited and costly, and it is hard to envisage how they could find their application in classroom-based studies. Given that all of these data collection procedures, including stimulated recalls which have been the most frequently used to examine the degree of learners' attention and noticing-the-gap, are not exempt from flaws (e.g. Leow and Morgan-Short 2004; Leow et al. 2011), it is warranted, or perhaps even indispensable, to resort to these techniques or various constellations thereof, as dictated by the demands of a specific situation. To quote Bao et al. (2011, p. 227), "[i] is critical that the researcher consider pros and cons of available measures and select the measures that are appropriate for the goal and context of the study. A triangulation of more than one measure will allow researchers to examine learner noticing form multiple angles and better interpret the data obtained".

In order to illustrate how learners' cognitive response can be investigated in practice, it is instructive to outline here the research methodology utilized in the study conducted by Kim and Han (2007), the ingenious and meticulous design of which made it possible to compare teachers' intentions as they respond to errors with learners' interpretations of these CF moves. It also examined students' ability to recognize the gap between their utterances that trigger corrective reactions and the linguistic information contained in recasts, as well as the extent to which this recognition is a function of the type of teacher intent (i.e. an attempt to provide feedback on an erroneous form or an effort to sustain communication), the type of addressee (i.e. a direct recipient of feedback vs. an observer), the type of the target feature (i.e. lexical, phonological and morphosyntactic), and the type of recast used (i.e. combinations of isolated vs. incorporated and declarative vs. interrogative). The subjects were adult learners of English as a foreign language who represented an intermediate level, attended four classes in a private institution, and were taught by means of communicative methodology.

Data collection involved audio- and video-recordings of two naturally-occurring classes, observations of these classes, as well as stimulated recall reports with students and teachers, which were also audio-recorded. The former were interviewed immediately after each class and asked to describe their thoughts as they were provided with a recast, while the latter took part in such interviews after the second class to avoid the possible priming effects, and they were also requested to recall what they were thinking as they were reacting to the inaccurate learner output. The recasts were coded with respect to their *complexity*, *content* and *function*, and the comments made by the students were grouped into the categories of *no recognition of recast*, *recognition of recast*, and *no comment*, with the second of these being further subdivided into *no recognition of the gap* and *recognition of the gap* (i.e. complete and incomplete) and the status of the addressee being considered as well. This served as a basis for detailed analyses of interfaces between teacher intent and learner interpretation against the backdrop of contextual variables, which were conducted with the help of descriptive and inferential statistics. While the study is pioneering in its approach and the multi-faceted nature of the analysis, it is not free from weaknesses, the most serious of which is reflective of problems inherent in the use of stimulated recall that invariably afflict research on cognitive response to CF to some extent. As Kim and Han's (2007, p. 296) admit, "(…) there is no guarantee that the thoughts elicited (…) were entirely the thoughts the participants had at the time a recast was given; rather, it is likely that some of their comments were 'second thoughts' as a result of the participants (…) being tasked with viewing the tape and commenting, a task-induced effect, so to speak".

The least can be said about the methodology of research into the affective response to corrective feedback, for the reason that our knowledge is the most limited in this area, which, as aptly pointed out by Ellis (2010, p. 344), "(…) is somewhat surprising given that one of the objections sometimes leveled against CF is that it creates anxiety in learners and thus interferes with acquisition". There is also a marked paucity of empirical investigations in this important domain,

noteworthy exceptions being the recent studies carried out by Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) and Yoshida (2010). However, the former focused on the provision of written rather than oral corrective feedback, while the latter tapped the participants' affective response only to a very limited extent, referring to it mainly in the interpretation of the data. Despite the lack of suitable examples, it would seem that empirical investigations of this kind would call for a more qualitative, situated, individualized approach, in which copious amounts of data about the participants would have to be collected and used in the interpretation of their reactions to different types of oral corrective feedback, determined on the basis of both their behavioral and cognitive response. For example, recordings of classroom interaction could be coupled with immediate reports, stimulated recall interviews or transcript analysis to see how learners react to, interpret and process the corrective feedback with which they are provided. Such results could then be juxtaposed against information about their individual profiles and personal histories of language learning, such as attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, learning styles, levels of anxiety, personalities, emotional states or prior experiences, which, in turn, could be elicited by means of surveys, observations and semi-structured interviews.

4 Findings of Research into Learner Engagement

In the light of the fact that there is virtually no research into learners' affective response to the provision of oral corrective feedback, the discussion in the present section will in the main be confined to highlighting the most crucial findings of studies investigating the remaining two types of learner engagement, that is behavioral response and cognitive response. As regards the former, the results of the research conducted to date show that although recasts constitute the most frequently used corrective feedback move in classroom interaction, they are the least likely to trigger uptake and successful repair (cf. Lyster and Ranta 1997; Lyster 1998; Panova and Lyster 2002; Havranek 2002; Tseng 2004), which indicates that they are unlikely to spark off learners' engagement in the form of behavioral response. Much more efficacious in this respect appear to be CF moves allowing negotiation of form, that is elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests or repetitions, or what is now collectively labeled in the literature as prompts. Such a state of affairs can be accounted for in terms of the superior potential of these CF moves to generate learner active involvement in the process of error treatment in the form of self- and other-repair in comparison with techniques that reformulate the inaccurate language production in more explicit or implicit ways, as is the case with direct correction and recasting, respectively (cf. Lyster 2004; Pawlak 2012a). Equally important is the fact that, as subsequent analyses of the situations in which different types of recasts are used showed, their distribution in response to incorrect utterances mirrors the distribution of positive comments following accurate language output, which may be responsible for the

ambiguity of correction rendering it less likely to be perceived as negative evidence. As Lyster (1998, p. 71) comments, "(…) recasts have more in common with non-corrective repetition and topic-continuation moves than with other forms of corrective feedback". Similar findings were also reported by Samuda (2001), who conducted her study within the framework of Sociocultural Theory, and observed that explicit correction in the form of metalinguistic information was more effective than implicit error treatment in the form of recasts in helping learners construct their zone of proximal development, internalize modal verbs expressing possibility (e.g. 'may' or 'must'), and start using them independently in their oral output. Evidence for the greater effectiveness of more explicit feedback types in generating behavioral response also comes from a research project undertaken by Nassaji (2007), who identified six subtypes of reformulation and five subtypes of elicitation which differed in terms of their explicitness and the requirement for output production. The analysis of the value of these feedback moves in terms of their ability to trigger uptake and repair led him to conclude that "(…) the usefulness of interactional feedback depends to a large degree on its explicitness and the extent to which it is able to draw the learner's attention to form" (2007, pp. 538, 539), as well as to postulate a finer-grained analysis of different types of error correction.

Also enlightening are the findings of descriptive studies with individual post-tests, such as those conducted by Williams (2001), Nabei and Swain (2002), or Loewen (2005), because by producing evidence that immediate output modifications in the form of uptake and repair can translate into longer-term acquisition of the targeted linguistic items, they demonstrated a crucial link between behavioral response and cognitive response, the latter of which appears to be indispensable for deeper-level processing and restructuring of the interlanguage system. Particularly interesting are the results of the research project carried out by Nassaji (2009) which, similarly to the studies mentioned earlier, showed that more explicit variants of recasts and elicitations resulted in higher rates of successful correction of written descriptions, both immediately following the interactions and after 2 weeks, thereby contributing to more frequent occurrence of learner engagement with the CF received. In line with the assumptions made by, among others, Doughty (2001), Panova and Lyster (2002), and Long (2007), he writes that "(…) recasts could be beneficial for learning new forms (at least in the short run) if they are salient enough to draw learners' attention to those forms. (…) [and] elicitations can be equally (or even more) effective if learners already know the targeted forms or have declarative knowledge of those forms" (2009, p. 441). Still, it should also be emphasized that evidence to the contrary derives from studies by Ellis et al. (2001), Ohta (2001) and Sheen (2004) which have shown that there exist different types of recasts and their interpretation depends on the context, with the effect that some of them are more effective in triggering behavioral response than others.

As expounded in the section devoted to the discussion of the methodology of research into learner engagement with oral CF, cognitive response is typically understood as the degree of learners' *attending to* and *noticing* the negative evidence, with the qualification that these two concepts can be operationalized in

different ways. Most of the research conducted to date has focused on recasts, which should come as no surprise in light of the fact that the salience of such largely implicit reformulations is highly problematic, and it has aimed to determine the connection between the *occurrence of noticing*, *immediate uptake*, *output modifications*, *self-repair* and, more recently, *long-term learning outcomes*. Attempts have also been made to compare l*earners'* and *teachers' perceptions of CF moves* with the purpose of establishing the extent to which they overlap and whether the potential divergences in this area may impinge upon behavioral responses and learning outcomes.

In one of the first empirical investigations representing this line of inquiry, Mackey et al. (2000) provided evidence that greater noticing of corrective moves in the form of recasts and negotiation generates more frequent output modifications. This is because the participants were able to successfully identify the linguistic focus of 66 % of the CF episodes which resulted in such adjustments, while they were unaware of the target of the intervention in 89 % of episodes in which they failed to modify the original utterance. These results have been corroborated by Révész (2002), who found that learners were more likely to respond to recasts when they interpreted them as negative evidence about morphosyntax rather than as mere comments on the content of the preceding utterances, and such awareness was present in about 80 % of cases when uptake was accompanied by successful repair. More recently, Egi (2010) also demonstrated with the assistance of stimulated recall reports that the production of uptake was more likely to take place in situations when learners perceived the corrective force of recasts, while the occurrence of successful self-correction was a function of both such a recognition and their cognizance of a mismatch between their output and the target language form, or their ability to notice the gap (Schmidt and Frota 1986). Bao et al. (2011), in turn, compared the rate of noticing, as measured by means of performance (i.e. uptake) and introspection (i.e. stimulated recall), and reported that the latter is better able to capture noticing which cannot be reduced to observable behavioral responses in the form of output modifications. An additional finding was that the characteristics of recasts may play a role in triggering noticing because only recasts with rising intonation proved to be the sole significant predictor of learners' awareness. The relationship between the properties of recasts and their contribution to the recognition of gaps in interlanguage knowledge was also investigated by Kim and Han (2007), who uncovered not only that corrective recasts fare better than communicative recasts, but also that simple reformulations are more efficacious than complex ones, and that complexity is overridden by the linguistic target (i.e. lexical, phonological or morphosyntactic) as well as the form of a recast (i.e. isolated or incorporated, declarative or interrogative). An important extension to research on the interpretation of CF is the study carried out by Carpenter et al. (2006), who employed stimulated recall and think-aloud protocols to tap learners' perceptions of recasts and repetitions during task-based interaction, but manipulated video clips in such a way that one group viewed the entire feedback episodes, while the other was deprived of access to the erroneous utterances that set off the CF. The analysis revealed that the learners who had no access to the incorrect

output were less likely to distinguish recasts from repetitions, with the subjects in both groups relying primarily on verbal rather than non-verbal clues in making their interpretations.

Of particular significance are the results of the few studies which have moved beyond examining the relationship between noticing, uptake and output modifications by seeking to determine whether learners' awareness of the focus of CF is related to second language development, as well as such that have compared learners' and teachers' interpretations. When it comes to the first category, worth mentioning are research projects by Mackey (2006a) and Egi (2007). The former showed that noticing, understood as the awareness of the gap between one's own output and the correction version, and measured on the basis of learners' comments in online journals, stimulated recall interviews and questionnaires, was positively related to subsequent acquisition as the participants who correctly recognized the corrective intention of the teacher manifested more effective learning of the English question forms. The latter demonstrated that the students who were supplied with recasts in interaction with native speakers performed better on immediate customized posttests when they had interpreted these reformulations on immediate and stimulated reports as linguistic information, or, more precisely, a combination of positive and negative evidence rather than merely meaning-focused confirmations of their utterances. The differences in learners' and teachers' perceptions of corrective moves have been investigated, among others, by Kim and Han (2007), and Yoshida (2010). The findings of Kim and Han's (2007) study, the design of which was described in the section concerning methodology and already mentioned above, indicate that there was a considerable overlap between teachers' intent in providing recasts and learners' interpretation thereof, students perceived recasts in the same way as recipients or observers, and their noticing the gap was a function of the intentions of the teachers and the complexity of the reformulations. The study conducted by Yoshida (2010) aimed to determine whether learners' response to feedback is tantamount to noticing, whether teachers consider such responses to be evidence of noticing, and whether there are discrepancies between teachers' and learners' perceptions of CF moves and the responses they trigger. Using audio-recordings and transcripts of classroom discourse, observation notes and stimulated recall interviews, she found that the occurrence of uptake does not guarantee noticing and understanding of corrective information since learners often provide a response to avoid social strain and embarrassment, and teachers manifest a penchant for overestimating better students assuming that they have attended to and comprehended the feedback move. In the opinion of Yoshida (2010, p. 311), these findings suggest that: "learners' noticing of teachers' CF and their responses to it (…) are associated with the teachers' perceptions of individual learners, socioaffective factors such as learners' emotional states, and the learners' perceptions of classroom interactions, as well as the type of CF".

5 Directions for Future Research

Given the fact that learner engagement with oral corrective feedback is a necessary condition for such reactive negative evidence to result in the noticing, processing and, in the long term, acquisition of the targeted linguistic features, there is a pressing need to obtain more insights into the mediating impact of this key variable. Although huge strides have been made in this area over the last several years, both with respect to the issues investigated and the research methodology employed, much still remains to be done, especially when it comes to probing the affective dimension of such engagement, since virtually no empirical evidence is available in this respect, as well as obtaining more insight into the admittedly intricate and multifaceted interactions between learners' behavioral, cognitive and affective responses to the corrective reactions that they are exposed to. It also makes sense to extend research into noticing beyond recasts so that it covers different realizations of other type of corrective feedback, such as prompts, to set more store by exploring the links between different forms of engagement and longer-term learning outcomes, and to investigate how attention and noticing the gap can be modulated by various individual, linguistic and contextual variables constituting the second component of the framework for investigating CF presented in Sect. 2. As regards issues involved in research methodology, it appears warranted to rely to a greater extent on clusters of data collection tools, as this will make it possible to investigate links between how learners respond to CF moves in classroom interaction, to what extent they actually attend to, process and internalize it, and what influence it has on them in affective terms. More generally, there is merit to combining descriptive and experimental paradigms, because such *mixed methods research* (Creswell 2008) allows us to examine both the *process* and *product* of the provision of corrective feedback, laying more emphasis on longitudinal research and case studies, thanks to which it may be possible to trace changes in learners' engagement with feedback, as well as augmenting the psycholinguistic perspective with the sociocultural perspective as well as insights offered by dynamic systems theories (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008). Such extensions of the research agenda and the methodology used are bound to result in better understanding of how learners' response to corrective feedback shapes long-term learning outcomes and lead to more effective employment of this important option in teaching target language forms.

References

Allwright, R. L. and K. M. Bailey. 1991. *Focus on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bao, M., T. Egi and Z. Han. 2011. Classroom study on noticing and recast features: Capturing learner noticing with uptake and stimulated recall. *System* 39: 215–228.

Carpenter, H., K. Seon Jeon and D. MacGregor. 2006. Learners' interpretations of recasts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28: 209–236.

Cohen, A. D. 2010. Focus on the language learner: Styles, strategies and motivation. In *An introduction to applied linguistics* (2nd edn), ed. N. Schmitt, 161–178. London: Hodder Education.

Creswell, J. W. 2008. *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill Education.

DeKeyser, R. M. 1998. Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*, eds. C. J. Doughty and J. Williams, 42–63. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C. 2001. Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. In *Cognition and second language instruction*, ed. P. Robinson, 206–257. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. 2005. *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. and P. Skehan. 2003. Individual differences in L2 learning. In *The handbook of second language* acquisition, eds. C. J. Doughty and M. H. Long, 589–630. Oxford: Blackwell.

Egi, T. 2004. Verbal reports, noticing, and SLA research. *Language Awareness* 13: 243–264.

Egi, T. 2007. Interpreting recasts as linguistic evidence: The roles of linguistic target, length, and degree of change. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 29: 511–538.

Egi, T. 2010. Uptake, modified output, and learner perceptions of recasts: Learner responses as language awareness. *Modern Language Journal* 94: 1–21.

Ellis, N. 2005. At the interface: Dynamic interactions of explicit and implicit language knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 27: 305–352.

Ellis, R. 2008. The study of second language acquisition (2nd edn). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. 2009. Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal* 1: 3–18.

Ellis, R. 2011. Epilogue: A framework for investigating oral and written corrective feedback. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32: 335–349.

Ellis, R., H. Basturkmen and S. Loewen. 2001. Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning* 51: 281–318.

Ellis, R. and Y. Sheen. 2006. Re-examining the role of recasts in L2 acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28: 575–600.

Havranek, G. 2002. When is corrective feedback most likely to success? *International Journal of Educational Research* 37: 255–270.

Kim, J. -H. and Z. Han. 2007. Recasts in communicative EFL classes: Do teacher intent and learner interpretation overlap? In *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition*, ed. A. Mackey, 269–297. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lantolf, J. P. 2006. Sociocultural Theory and L2: State of the art. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28: 67–109.

Larsen-Freeman, D. and L. Cameron. 2008. *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Leow, R. P., E. Johnson and G. Zárate-Sández. 2011. Getting a grip on the slippery construct of awareness: Toward a finer-grained methodological perspective. In *Implicit and explicit conditions, processes and knowledge in SLA and bilingualism*, eds. C. Sanz and R. P. Leow, 61–72. Georgetown University Press, Washington, D.C.

Leow, R. P. and K. Morgan-Short. 2004. To think aloud or not to think aloud: The issue of reactivity in SLA research methodology. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 26: 35–57.

Li, S. 2010. The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning* 60: 309–365.

Loewen, S. 2005. Incidental focus on form and second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 27: 361–386.

Long, M. H. 1996. The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In *Handbook of research on second language acquisition*, eds. W. Ritchie and T. Bhatia, 413–468. New York: Academic Press.

Long, M. H. 2007. *Problems in SLA*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lyster, R. 1998. Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning* 48: 183–218.
Lyster, R. 2004. Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 19: 37–66.
Lyster, R. and H. Mori. 2006. Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second language Acquisition* 28: 269–300.
Lyster, R. and L. Ranta. 1997. Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 19: 37–66.
Lyster, R. and K. Saito. 2010. Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32: 265–302.
Mackey, A. 2006a. Feedback, noticing and instructed second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 27: 405–430.
Mackey, A. 2006b. Epilogue: From introspections, brain scans, and memory tests to the role of social context: Advancing research on interaction in learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28: 369–379.
Mackey, A., S. Gass and K. McDonough. 2000. How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 22: 471–497.
Mackey, A. and J. Philp. 1998. Conversational interaction and second language development: Recasts, responses, and red herrings? *Modern Language Journal* 82: 338–356.
Mackey, A., R. Adams, C. Stafford and P. Winke. 2010. Exploring the relationship between modified output and working memory capacity. *Language Learning* 60: 501–533.
Nabei, T. and M. Swain. 2002. Learner awareness of recasts in classroom interaction: A case study of an adult EFL student's second language learning. *Language Awareness* 11: 43–63.
Nassaji, H. 2007. Elicitation and reformulation and their relationship with learner repair in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning* 57: 511–548.
Nassaji, H. 2009. Effects of recasts and elicitations in dyadic interaction and the role of feedback explicitness. *Language Learning* 59: 411–452.
Nassaji, H. 2011. Immediate learner repair and its relationship with learning targeted forms in dyadic interaction. *System* 39: 17–29.
Ohta, A. S. 2001. *Second language acquisition processes in the classroom: Learning Japanese*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Panova, I. and R. Lyster. 2002. Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* 36: 573–595.
Pawlak, M. 2004. *Describing and researching interactive processes in the foreign language classroom.* Konin: State School of Higher Professional Education in Konin Press.
Pawlak M. 2012a. *Error correction in the foreign language classroom: Reconsidering the issues.* Poznań – Kalisz – Konin: Adam Mickiewicz University Press and State School of Higher Professional Educational in Konin Press.
Pawlak M., ed. 2012b. *New perspectives on individual differences in language learning and teaching.* Heidelberg – New York: Springer.
Révész, A. 2002. Task-induced content-familiarity, task driven attention to form, and learner uptake of recasts: A preliminary inquiry. *Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics* 2: 1–21.
Russell, V. 2009. Corrective feedback, over a decade of research since Lyster and Ranta (1997): Where do we stand today? *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching* 59: 21–31.
Samuda, V. 2001. Guiding relationships between form and meaning during task performance: The role of the teacher. In *Researching pedagogic tasks*: *Second language learning, teaching and testing*, eds. M. Bygate, P. Skehan and M. Swain, 119–140. Harlow: Pearson Education.
Schmidt, R. 1990. The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11: 17–46.
Schachter, J. 1988. Second language acquisition and its relationship to Universal Grammar. *Applied Linguistics* 9: 219–235.

Schmidt, R. and S. Frota. 1986. Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner. In *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition*, ed. R. R. Day, 237–362. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Sheen, Y. 2004. Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional contexts. *Language Teaching Research* 8: 263-300.

Sheen, Y. 2010a. Introduction: The role of oral and written corrective feedback in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32: 169–179.

Sheen, Y. 2010b. Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32: 203–234.

Sheen, Y. 2011. *Corrective feedback, individual differences and second language learning*. Berlin – New York: Springer.

Sheen, Y. and R. Ellis. 2011. Corrective feedback in language teaching. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning. Volume II*, ed. E. Hinkel, 593–610. New York, London: Routledge.

Spada, N. and M. Fröhlich. 1995. Communicative orientation of language teaching: Observation scheme, coding conventions, and applications. Sydney: Macquarie University national Center for English Language Teaching and Research.

Spada, N. and Y. Tomita. 2010. Interactions between type of instruction and type of language feature: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning* 60: 263–308.

Storch, N. and G. Wigglesworth. 2010. Learners' processing, uptake, and retention of corrective feedback on writing: Case studies. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32: 303–334.

Swain, M. 1995. Three functions of output in second language learning. In *Principles and practice in applied linguistics. Studies in honor of H. G. Widdowson*, eds. G. Cook and B. Seidlhofer, 125–144. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tseng, W. 2004. Feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction: An analysis of 18 English lessons in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *RELC Journal* 35: 187–209.

Williams, J. 2001. The effectiveness of spontaneous attention to form. *System* 29: 325–340.

Yang, Y. and R. Lyster. 2010. Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32: 235–262.

Yoshida, R. 2010. How do teachers and learners perceive corrective feedback in the Japanese language classroom? *Modern Language Journal* 94: 293–314.

Learner Perception of the Effectiveness of Language Awareness Activities Used in Teaching Practical Phonetics and Phonology to First Year Students of English Philology

Monika Grotek

Abstract The chapter presents results of a study in student individual perception of effectiveness of language awareness activities versus other pronunciation teaching techniques commonly used during the first semester of their study of English pronunciation in a separate course as English philology students. The basis of the study was a technique preference questionnaire filled in by over 100 students after the first semester of instruction in practical phonetics and phonology as a part of an action research aimed to solve problems in formal comparative analysis of the production of English and Polish sounds as well as discovering sound-letter correspondence rules in English on the basis of phonetic transcription of groups of English words. The problems were observed among a surprisingly large number of students in comparison to the previous cohorts, which gave rise to making a hypothesis that formal analysis aimed at the discovery and formulation of rules governing the language studied by the future philologists in order to use it with full awareness of its formal, functional and pragmatic properties is no longer (or not yet) vital to the first year students either neglecting the issue of pronunciation at the lower levels of education or used to other techniques of improving their pronunciation in the target language.

1 Introduction: Language Awareness in the University Curriculum of Practical Phonetics and Phonology

A course in practical phonetics and phonology is included in the curriculum for the first year of English philology at Polish universities as one of basic courses aimed at improving students' general competence in English in the module of practical

M. Grotek (✉)
Institute of English, University of Silesia, Silesia, Poland
e-mail: monika.grotek@gmail.com

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_6,

English courses. As university students are adult language learners responsible for their decisions of choosing English as the subject of study rather than just means of communication or tool in achieving other professional goals, they should be aware of the necessity of conscious attention to forms and features of language in use in variety of communicative contexts in the course of their studies and later in their professional career as teachers, translators or interpreters and academics in the fields of linguistics, literature or culture. Thus, it is reasonable for plethora of language awareness activities to dominate the classroom activities in practical English courses for English philology students.

Language awareness perceived as 'mental attribute which develops through paying motivated attention to language in use and which enables language learners to gradually gain insights into how languages work' (Bolitho et al. 2003, p. 251) can be developed simultaneously by Language Awareness approach as described in the seminal work by Hawkins (1984) and further developed by many scholars (e.g. Carter 2003; Tomlinson 1994), who draw attention to making students discover language on their own through encouraging them to ask questions about the mechanisms of its working in the process of conveying meaning, as well as by the more traditional approach of explicit teaching of form, rules and metalinguistic terminology, which are regarded by e.g. van Lier (2001) as techniques contributing to the development of language awareness. Including the element of explicit focus on terminology in raising language awareness in the context of academic teaching seems crucial in developing *academic language awareness*, which might be a term referring to the ultimate level of language awareness extending the notion mentioned above by an element of the consciousness of the functioning of language as a subject of scientific analysis and academic study with its specific terminology, which might prove necessary for philologists.

The general teaching objectives for the first semester of a university course of practical phonetics and phonology for English philology, as specified in the curricula (see e.g. Institute of English Cultures and Literatures—University of Silesia (2009)), include the following abilities:

- auditory discrimination between apparently similar English phonemes;
- accurate production of English speech sounds in isolation, words and longer utterances first by imitation, then in prompted production tasks (e.g. in reading) and finally in free production in communication;
- elimination of common pronunciation mistakes and strong foreign accent.

In order to meet the requirements it is advisable for the students to develop different levels of language awareness in the area of pronunciation, such as:

- *phonological awareness*—understanding the sound structure of spoken word (Gillon 2004), the awareness and capability of aurally perceiving speech sounds of a language and consciously manipulating the speech organs to produce particular sounds in speech;

- *phonemic awareness*—the awareness of the existence of phonemes as smallest individual sound units that make up words (Yopp 1992) and whose manipulation can change the meaning of utterances as in minimal pairs;
- *phonics awareness*—the discovery of sound-spelling correspondence rules (Eldredge 2004).

In another categorization of the levels of awareness in the domain of pronunciation that should be raised one can include the following:

- *target language pronunciation awareness*—the phonetic, phonemic and phonics awareness at the level of the sound system of the target language on its own;
- *cross-linguistic awareness*—sensitivity to the links in the systems of the learner's mother tongue and the target language, and possibly other languages (Jessner 2006, pp. 69–70);
- *intralingual awareness*—ability to contemplate the learner's own English pronunciation as an element of their interlanguage of English (ibid.) with a view to trace and work on problematic areas.

As it can be discerned from the lists above, the realization of the project of university student's consciousness-raising in the realm of the sound system is rather a complicated venture and requires variety of activity types, ranging from listening, discrimination, repetition and manipulation of sounds, in which the students discover the mechanisms of their production and realize how phonemes change the meaning of utterances as well as notice the gap between the input and their own pronunciation of particular words to improve their oral performance to activities resulting in explicit metalinguistic knowledge possible for the students to verbalise by means of professional linguistic terminology, which knowledge may be used to carrying out professional analysis of the sound system of languages or informed approaches to teaching as the ultimate goal of the university education.

2 Description of the Study

The inspiration for the research was the fact that meeting the objectives of the course in English phonetics and phonology with the students of first year of English philology at the University of Silesia in the academic year 2011/2012 appeared to be exceptionally difficult with the use of the usual procedures that proved to be effective when applied with the previous cohorts of students in the course of nearly 10-year experience of teaching that subject by the author of the study. The solution to the problem required an action research (see e.g. McNiff and Whitehead 2009). For the purpose of the chapter only the results of the first three stages will be described: problem identification, data collection and data interpretation.

The problem identified was that in comparison to the previous cohorts a surprisingly large number of students had problems:

- accepting and using the knowledge of the fact that there are differences in apparently similar sounds in English and Polish—especially vowels with split of one Polish vowel realized by more phonemes in English;
- discovering sound-letter correspondence rules in English on the basis of exercises in phonemic transcription of groups of English words;
- pronouncing certain words correctly in spite of extensive practice.

Therefore, a hypothesis was put forward that formal analysis aimed at the discovery and formulation of rules governing the language studied by the philologists in order to use it with full awareness of its formal, functional and pragmatic properties is no longer or not yet vital to the first year students who:

- either neglected the issue of pronunciation at the lower levels of education;
- or were accustomed to other techniques aiming at improving their pronunciation in the target language (mainly repetition of single words without any analysis), which they still find sufficient enough.

In order to examine how vital it is for the students to improve their pronunciation in English at university and how they evaluate the effectiveness of the tasks they are made to do to achieve their goals a questionnaire was prepared and filled in at the end of the first semester of academic year 2011/2012 by 106 respondents from 4 groups of first year students of English philology taught by one teacher at the University of Silesia in Katowice, Poland.

In the questionnaire the following issues were examined:

A—self-evaluation of pronunciation in English before university and after the first semester of the university pronunciation course (on a scale 0–6 with 0-very poor, and 6- native-like).

B—degree of self-perceived interest in improving pronunciation at university (on a scale 0–6 with 0-not interested at all and 6–it was my top priority).

C—perceived effectiveness of particular classroom and homework activities for the improvement of pronunciation (on a scale 0–6 with 0- it wasn't helpful at all and 6–it was very helpful).

1. C1—materials with the rules of phonics focusing on particular sounds or sound pairs accompanied by lists of words exemplifying them together with exceptions to be studied with a multimedia dictionary for regular weekly written tests in transcription and oral tests in reading sample words aloud from spelling and for the final semester test in transcription of single words.
2. C2—chapters focusing on particular sounds practised in the classroom from a supplementary coursebook accompanied with a set of CDs (A. Baker "Ship or Sheep") to be covered either completely or at least practising the final dialogue, whose reading aloud was checked and assessed in the classroom.
3. C3—transcription of short authentic audio texts (250 words) of student own choice and practising reading it aloud for the final semester presentation—both parts assessed by the teacher.

3 Results of the Study

3.1 Importance of Perfecting Pronunciation at University and the Perceived Level of Improvement After One Semester of Various Language Awareness Activities Experienced During a University Course of Practical Phonetics and Phonology

A clear determiner of the effectiveness of particular types of activities is the level of improvement in competence and performance as perceived by the students comparing their initial level of the ability before and then after the training bearing in mind the individual goals they had set before the course. Figure 1 presents the level of pronouncing ability before and after the first semester of the university course in phonetics and phonology as perceived by the students themselves.

On a scale ranging from 0 to 6 (where 0 meant very poor pronunciation and 6 native-like), all the students' answers evaluating their pronunciation ability in English fall in the range 0–4, with nobody marking the highest two options and the largest group (47.2 %) marking level 3—being exactly in the middle of the scale, followed by number 2 (26.4 %), and the number of respondents below the middle of the scale (0–2) is over a third (37.7 %). Only 15.1 % assess their pronunciation to be above average (at the level of 4).

Such results suggest that the students' pronunciation in English after high school is by the largest number of respondents evaluated to be average (47.2 %) and with considerable space for improvement for great majority of students

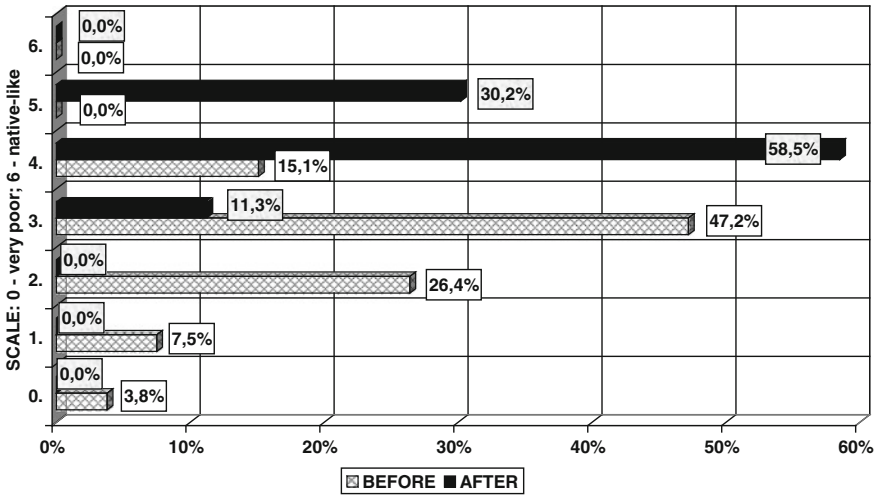


Fig. 1 Self-perceived level of pronouncing ability in English *before* and *after* the first semester of university course in practical phonetics and phonology

(84.9 %), although really few regard it as very poor or poor (11.3 % together) with similar number considering it quite good (15.1 %). The evaluation implies quite realistic views on the students' own pronouncing abilities and proves that they notice the gap between the perceived perfect English pronunciation and their own, which enables them to consciously set the goals for improvement.

After the first semester at university a surprisingly huge growth in the students' confidence in their pronunciation skills can be observed with majority considering it quite good (58.5 %) and another 30.2 %—very good with only 11.3 %—regarding it as average. The last group represents growth from very poor to below average up to the level of average. Just 5.7 % of students don't see any improvement from their pronunciation assessed to be already good (4) after high school, but the rest sees improvement mostly by two or one point on the scale (43.4 % and 41.5 %—respectively) and 9.4 % notice a huge growth by three points. As a result, after one semester most of the students consider their pronunciation good (58.5 %) or very good (30.2 %) with just 11.3 % regarding it as average and nobody considering it below average. Judging by that the course containing language awareness activities seemed to be a success for the students. Although the test results in many cases didn't show it and the teacher expectations had been much higher judging on the basis of the results of previous cohorts of students (Fig. 2).

Looking at the figure juxtaposing the importance of improving pronunciation for students at university and the perceived level of improvement in relation to the initial level it can be noticed that a great majority of respondents—86.8 % - admit that perfecting their pronunciation at university was of above average importance

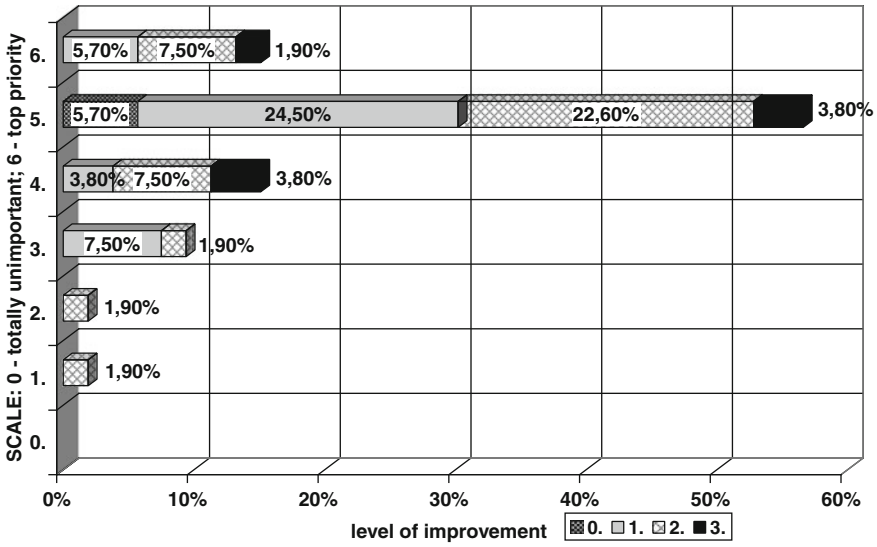


Fig. 2 Importance of improving pronunciation at university and the perceived level of improvement in relation to the initial level (by *0–3* levels)

before they started the course of practical phonetics and phonology (ranks above 3)—with only 3.18 % for whom it was below average, and nobody for whom it was totally unimportant. Interestingly, these for whom it was not very important improved by 2 points during the course, which might imply the strength of extrinsic motivation or initially unwillingly or indifferently benefiting from the pronunciation activities offered by the university course.

Nevertheless, majority of students really wanted to improve their pronunciation. For 56.6 % opting for rank 5—improving their English pronunciation was nearly of prime importance during their studies of English at university. A similar number of respondents (15.1 %) opted for 6 (with improving pronunciation being their top priority) and 4 (with improving pronunciation being quite important). As it was said before, most of the students seem to achieve their goal and improve their pronunciation skills by 2 or 1 points (43.4 % and 41.5 %—respectively) and 9.4 % of those for whom pronunciation is important notice a huge growth by 3 points, which implies the fact that the course proved successful for the students.

It is quite surprising that for those who start studying English philology pronunciation can be unimportant, but it might result from the lenient treatment of pronunciation and accent in English being regarded as international *lingua franca*, which can be spoken with strong foreign accent as long as it is communicative. Secondly, students nowadays are cautious not to be disappointed when being too ambitious they will have to confront their poor abilities and perceived lack of success with the requirements. Such an attitude is in accord with the current trends discovered by sociologists studying the contemporary young generation of Poles (see e.g. Szafraniec 2011).

All in all, students find improving their pronunciation important as after high school it is just average and the university course incorporating language awareness activities that they participated in helped them achieve their goals, which were generally set at objectively a little lower level of proficiency than the ones set by the teacher.

3.2 Effectiveness of Particular Types of Language Awareness Activities Provided During a University Course of Phonetics and Phonology in the Student Perception

In the questionnaire three kinds of regular classroom activities were examined with a view to determine which of them proved the most effective for the students and what type of language awareness in the more specific area of sound system awareness the students were ready and willing to develop by getting involved in the tasks that proved the most efficient for them.

Among all the classroom activities the following three types were identified and examined:

- *explicit explanation and description:*
  - mechanisms of sound production (in metalanguage);
  - comparison between the production of sounds in the students' mother tongue and the target language;
  - rules of the use of weak forms of function words;
- *implicit focus* on particular sounds in tasks based on listening and repetition (sounds in isolation, words, minimal pairs, sentences, dialogues);
- *providing an opportunity to 'notice the gap':*
  - reading aloud (words, minimal-pairs, sentences, dialogues) from the classroom materials on the spot, material prepared at home (assigned dialogues, authentic material at the final interview)—all with teacher feedback;
  - using the words practised in oral translation tasks or story-telling as well as in communicative tasks;
  - phonemic transcription tasks (single words in weekly and semester tests and transcription of texts).

As regards explicit explanation and description of the rules governing the sound production mechanisms in English, most of the activities (see Fig. 3) are considered to be quite effective with similar average of 4 points on the scale of

Figure 3. EXPLICIT EXPLANATION AND DESCRIPTION
(according to the number of respondents choosing a particular option)

Activity type **PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS LEVEL**	Describing sound production mechanisms	Comparing Polish and English sound production mechanisms	Explaining rules of the use of weak forms
no answer	--	--	2
0 – totally ineffective	2	4	0
1	2	4	4
2	16	8	14
3	28	16	14
4	**22**	34	**26**
5	**24**	**20**	30
6 – very effective	12	**20**	16
AVERAGE EFFECTIVENESS (for all activities in this category: **3.98**)	3.94	4.00	4.00

Fig. 3 Perceived effectiveness of explicit explanation and description of the rules governing the sound production mechanisms in English

effectiveness and with modes highest for *explaining rules of the weak forms* (5 points) and lowest for *describing the sound production mechanisms* (3 points). This implies that, when it comes to the target language awareness at the level of discourse, the explanation of rules governing pronunciation of high frequency function words proves beneficial and the consciousness of the discourse processes must have been low before the explanation was provided. With particular sounds the students seem to prefer to rely on listening without conscious attention to the control of their speech apparatus, which suggests that making use of their sound production awareness in sound production tends to be neglected. However, at the level of cross-linguistic awareness the differences between sound production mechanisms seem to attract the student attention more. It is worth mentioning that all the activities in the group are designed to develop in the students the academic language awareness, and their relatively high effectiveness in the learner perception indicates the existence of some prospects for achieving the ultimate objective of the course to prepare the students to their professional career of philologists.

The second type of activities (see Fig. 4)—those aiming at implicit pronunciation learning trough listening and repetition—appears to represent one of the lowest levels of language awareness without any explicit reference to rules but with focus on particular sounds and exposure to the groups of sounds put together

Figure 4. IMPLICIT LEARNING BY LISTENING AND REPETITION (according to the number of respondents choosing a particular option)

Activity type **PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS LEVEL**	Demonstration of recorded sounds	Minimal pair recognition in listening	Listening and repetition of sounds in isolation and in single words	Listening and repetition of sounds in sentences and dialogues
no answer	--	--	--	2
0 – totally ineffective	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	4	6
2	10	4	2	4
3	6	10	10	6
4	**26**	12	**28**	**20**
5	**34**	**38**	**30**	**46**
6 – very effective	**30**	**42**	**32**	**22**
AVERAGE EFFECTIVENESS (for all activities in this category: **4.68**)	4.64	***4.98***	4.64	4.47

Fig. 4 Perceived effectiveness of activities based on implicit learning by listening and repetition

in such a way that their formal properties and differences between them can be easier discovered and internalized by the students.

Here, higher average effectiveness for all the task types can be noticed than for the previous category of activities with the average for the whole group of over 4.5 points, which signifies that most students perceive them effective. Besides, none of the questioned considers them ineffective. The modes for *minimal pair recognition* and *repetition of sounds in isolation and in single words* are around the points suggesting the highest efficiency (6 and 5). It is not surprising as both types of pronunciation activities mentioned above are the ones that the students are familiar with from the previous levels of education, with more focus on the latter representing lower level of language awareness than the former. *Minimal pair recognition* makes the students realise the notion of phoneme and is crucial for the development of phonemic awareness in English, with a lot of words having different phonemes being commonly treated by the learners as homophones in their pronunciation. Nevertheless, it is clear that the activities developing the student language awareness to the lowest extent are the ones perceived to be the most effective, which suggests their rather neglectful approach to developing high levels of language awareness in the field of pronunciation.

Another broad category of language awareness activities are the ones that provide the students with an opportunity to 'notice the gap'. As Schmidt and Frota (1986) argue in their 'notice the gap' hypothesis, such an opportunity is crucial in the process of developing the interlanguage when learners notice the gap between input and their current interlanguage forms, which can occur when the students are made to use their skills and benefit from feedback. In this way certain levels of interlingual awareness can be developed. In the present study three kinds of activities based on 'noticing the gap' are examined:

- reading aloud from a written script with explicit feedback from the teacher,
- phonemic transcription,
- using the practised pronunciation skills in authentic tasks.

The first two are designed to develop the student phonics awareness whereas the last one aims at consolidating all levels of awareness at the level of pronunciation to enable the learners to consciously use correct pronunciation forms in real communication.

The first of the controlled tasks making the students stretch their competence is reading aloud from written script (see Fig. 5). Here, the students cannot use avoidance strategies to skip using certain problematic words or utterances as in free communication and they can benefit from feedback to develop accuracy in pronunciation. This task was performed during the classes at different levels of discourse, ranging from *reading minimal pairs* from classroom materials through *reading sentences and dialogues focusing on particular sounds* from classroom and homework materials to *reading a larger piece of discourse* to be prepared to read as a partial requirement for the semester assessment. All of the tasks proved effective for the students with the modes around 5 points on the scale. In this group

Figure 5. OPPORTUNITY TO 'NOTICE THE GAP' (1) (according to the number of respondents choosing a particular option)				
READING ALOUD FROM WRITTEN SCRIPT WITH EXPLICIT FEEDBACK FROM THE TEACHER				
Activity type **PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS LEVEL**	Minimal pairs from classroom materials	Sets of words, sen–tences and dialogues focusing on particular sounds from classroom materials	Dialogues assigned as weekly homework	Authentic text – monolo–gue – assigned for preparation at home and read as an oral semester test
no answer	2	--	--	--
0 – totally ineffec-tive	0	0	2	0
1	6	2	2	0
2	6	0	2	2
3	**18**	0	12	16
4	**20**	**30**	**26**	**24**
5	**36**	**46**	**38**	**34**
6 – very effective	**18**	**28**	**24**	**30**
AVERAGE EFFECTIVENESS (for all the activities in this category: **4.57**)	4.15	***4.91***	4.53	4.70

Fig. 5 Perceived effectiveness of reading aloud from written script with explicit feedback from the teacher

one of the two single activities that received the highest average of efficiency of all the tasks examined can be found after *minimal pair recognition in listening* (average 4.98 points—see Fig. 4) and it is *reading sentences and dialogues focusing on particular sounds in the classroom* (average 4.91 points—see Fig. 5). The success of this activity over the ones which were homework assignments indicates that the students prefer to work on their pronunciation under teacher control in the classroom in a way that they are familiar with from the previous levels of education with quite little awareness of the system, and their autonomy in this respect still requires development. On the other hand, it can suggest that the

students are aware of their own limitations in pronunciation that they prefer at this point to rely on feedback from the teacher. However, the still high effectiveness of the task of *reading of a larger piece of discourse* that was based on the analysis and imitation of authentic listening material and prepared by the students themselves outside of the classroom to be checked later by the teacher in an interview followed by extensive individual feedback from the teacher implies that the students appreciate the opportunity to analyse individually a piece of discourse and benefit from feedback on the whole semester work as well as particular problematic areas singled out to focus on later.

Another opportunity to 'notice the gap' was provided in three basic types of activities consisting in the study and practice in phonemic transcription (see Fig. 6). In comparison to the previous task type based on reading aloud with feedback (4.57 points) the average effectiveness for all the tasks in the category of phonemic transcription is as much as 1 whole point lower (3.66 points), which suggests that 'noticing the gap' in activities developing higher level of language awareness and at the same time requiring more conscious study and encouraging to analyse the rules of phonics are perceived less effective but still the average effectiveness is in the higher levels of the scale. The reason for that might be unfamiliarity with such tasks, which are rather nonexistent at lower levels of educational system as well as the

Figure 6. OPPORTUNITY TO 'NOTICE THE GAP' (2) (according to the number of respondents choosing a particular option)

PHONEMIC TRANSCRIPTION			
Activity type **PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS LEVEL**	Transcription of a short text as a classroom task	Weekly tests in transcription of single words with a focus on parti–cular sounds	Final transcription test of single words studied throughout the semester
0 – totally ineffec–tive	0	2	12
1	4	2	8
2	8	**20**	**24**
3	**28**	14	14
4	**36**	**22**	**18**
5	**20**	16	**24**
6 – very effective	10	**30**	6
AV ERAGE EFFECTIVENESS (for all the activities in this category: **3.66**)	**3.83**	**4.07**	***3.07***

Fig. 6 Perceived effectiveness of phonemic transcription tasks

dominating perception of awareness of rules as not the same as practical use of language. Students often perceive phonemic transcription as a separate ability, more theoretical and academic, that has little to do with their pronunciation in speech. In addition, quite a lot of work on transcription was done as homework, which the questioned group of students does not consider as effective as classwork due to their relatively low level of learner autonomy.

In the category of phonemic transcription the widest discrepancy between single task types can be observed. The most consistent views are held on the *transcription of a short text as a classroom task* with the curve of effectiveness resembling the normal distribution curve slightly tilted towards the extreme of the most effective with most answers in the range between 4 and 5 points of effectiveness (69.8 %). However, majority of students (62.3 %) chose answers with 4–6 points of effectiveness and another group found it neither effective nor ineffective with 3 points of effectiveness (26.4 %), which indicates slight differences in views of different groups of students on this language awareness task.

Much more interesting are the students' opinions on the effectiveness of tests in phonemic transcription of single words from lists accompanied by rules of phonics and containing examples of their use in particular words as well as lists of exceptions to each rule. The task for the students was to study at home the rules from the material provided by the teacher and practise transcribing and pronouncing the words with a multimedia dictionary with a view to become aware of the rules and use them consciously when speaking and reading out loud in English. The outcome of the task was assessed by the teacher in oral and written tests. As far as *weekly tests with a focus on particular sound or pair of sounds* are concerned, majority of the students questioned find them effective (64.1 % of respondents chose answers with 4–6 points and the average of effectiveness at 4.07) with the surprising mode at 6 points (28.3 % of all the students), which suggests that for nearly third part of the number of students questioned tests in transcription improved their pronunciation greatly. One can venture a statement that the language awareness of the students in the field of the phonetic subsystem rose to a large extent as planned by the teacher. Nevertheless, the relatively even distribution of answers on the whole scale ranging from 6 to 2 points of effectiveness indicates the existence of two other groups of students: the larger one consisting of those who regard studying the transcription quite beneficial for their pronunciation with 4 and 5 points on the scale (35.8 %) and an almost equal group of those who consider it indifferent or rather inefficient with 3 and 2 points (32.1 %) and a small number regarding it totally useless (3.8 %).

Even more controversial appears for the students a large language awareness task of consolidating all the rules of phonics when studying for the *final transcription test of single words studied for the whole semester.* Here, the average is the lowest of all the tasks examined and amounts just to 3.07 points of effectiveness with the relatively even distribution of answers on the whole scale and both of its extremes. There is a similar number of students regarding the activity effective (45.3 %) with answers around 4–6 points on the scale of effectiveness and ineffective (41.5 %) with 0–2 points, which is exceptional just for this

particular activity since for all the other ones strong dominance of positive evaluation of their effectiveness is observable. Besides, this activity received the highest number of extreme negative answers with 0 points (11.3 %) of all the task types examined. Such results indicate that complicated long-term language awareness tasks leading to development of consciousness of rules governing the seemingly haphazard collection of language features such as the apparently inconsistent rules of English phonics are not accepted as efficient means of improving pronunciation by about half of the students, who prefer other tasks consuming less mental effort, apprehension and study discipline necessary to master the system with full language awareness. Nonetheless, the other half of the group examined, notices the benefits of understanding the system through conscious study, practice and finally revision and consolidation of all the information about its rules and exceptions, regardless of the difficulties incorporated in the extensive and stressful language awareness task.

The last type of activities in the category of those providing an opportunity to 'notice the gap' was using the practised pronunciation skills in authentic speaking tasks such as *story-telling or interpreting tasks with the use of words from lists assigned as homework* and *communicative tasks with the use of the practised sounds/words or prompts from the coursebook exercises* (see Fig. 7). Both are

Figure 7. OPPORTUNITY TO 'NOTICE THE GAP' (3) (according to the number of respondents choosing a particular option)

USING THE PRACTICED PRONUNCIATION SKILLS IN AUTHENTIC TASKS		
Activity type **PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS LEVEL**	Story-telling or trans–lation tasks with the use of words from lists as–signed as homework	Communicative tasks with the use of the practiced sounds/words or prompts from the coursebook exercises
0-totally ineffective	2	4
1	**12**	0
2	**16**	20
3	**28**	**24**
4	**28**	**24**
5	**14**	**28**
6-very effective	6	6
AVERAGE EFFECTIVENESS (for all the activities in this category: **3.44**)	***3.26***	**3.62**

Fig. 7 Perceived effectiveness of using the practiced pronunciation skills in authentic tasks

considered quite an effective but neither a very effective task for improving pronunciation with the average around the middle of the scale of effectiveness being 3.36 and 3.62 respectively. The modes around 3 and 4 points for the former and quite even distribution of answers between 2 and 5 points for the latter with the mode set at 5 points confirm the view.

What contributes to the rather low overall score for the whole category (3.44) are relatively large number of respondents in comparison to the other tasks who find the activities ineffective for the improvement of their pronunciation with 0–2 points, which for each of the tasks is 28.3 % of respondents and 22.6 % respectively. The reason for that might be the fact that as free practice activities aiming at consolidating the already acquired knowledge in communication they do not appear to the students as exercises improving pronunciation because while doing the tasks the learners do not seem to consciously stretch their interlanguage to produce accurate utterances and the nature of feedback and input is less corrective than in the more controlled tasks mentioned before. However, such activities are important to raise their consciousness of the fact that the ultimate goal of learning pronunciation is to enable the students to communicate efficiently, confidently, fluently and freely and as such they appear to be neglected.

After describing each activity in detail above, Fig. 8 juxtaposes all the general categories of language awareness activities used in the process of instruction in the university course of practical phonetics and phonology according to the level of their effectiveness in developing pronunciation in the perception of the 1st year students of English philology. The average position of at least 3.44 points on the scale of effectiveness ranging from 0 to 6 of all the categories suggests that none of the language awareness activities used during the course was considered ineffective and each of them to various degree seems to contribute to the generally

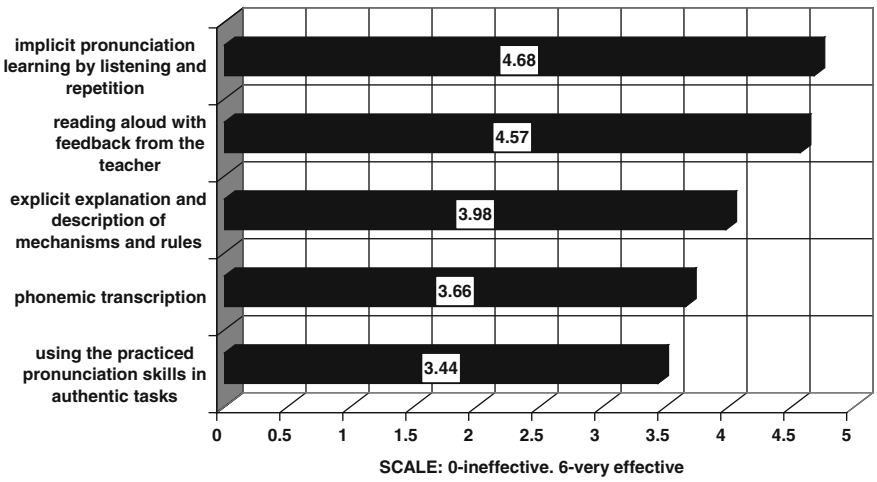


Fig. 8 Average effectiveness of particular language awareness activity categories in student perception

perceived improvement of student pronunciation throughout the course, which was the goal of majority of students. It might suggest that the tasks developing phonological, phonemic and phonic awareness prove successful for the adult university students of English philology who should be able and willing to consciously attend to formal properties of language to improve their communication skills. However, the discrepancies between the categories of tasks show the student preference for exercises raising their language awareness to the lowest degree—*implicit pronunciation learning by listening and repetition* and *reading aloud in controlled tasks with immediate feedback from the teacher*, which are at the same time the least demanding on the part of the student conscious mental involvement and which are familiar for the students from already completed levels of education where the focus on the study of pronunciation was usually marginal. The medial position of *explicit explanation of sound production mechanisms and the use of weak forms of function words* indicates the general student acceptance of the teacher attempt to develop their academic language awareness in spite of the fact that activities under the label were novel for majority of students. The results indicate the student preference for implicit learning over explicit instruction and familiar over novel activity types.

Out of the three categories of activities providing an opportunity to 'notice the gap' wins the one which is the most explicit and relies on immediate feedback from the teacher, whereas the others belong to the least popular tasks. As for *phonemic transcription* developing the phonics awareness, it was the most controversial task with two clear groups of students who accept it as useful and those who consider it ineffective, which suggests that still quite a large group of students does not want to accept conscious study of rules and discovering regularities in language, which is a prerequisite in the development of academic language awareness during philological studies. The last position of naturalistic practice in the ranking of the potential to develop pronunciation is partially due to the nature of vague usually non-corrective feedback and partially due to the previous experience of focusing just on fluency rather than accuracy in such tasks.

All in all, the general learner perception of the effectiveness of language awareness activities used in teaching practical phonetics and phonology to 1st year students of English philology is quite positive and in spite of the general tendency to prefer familiar and less demanding tasks, there are large groups of students who are willing to develop their phonological, phonemic and phonics awareness to the highest extent using the opportunities provided by the more complicated language awareness activities.

4 Concluding Remarks

The diagnostic part of the action research planned to improve the students' performance in academic tasks in their study of English phonology and phonetics, which are aimed at the discovery and formulation of rules governing the language

studied by the philologists in order to use it with full awareness of its formal, functional and pragmatic properties, only partially proved that development of such abilities is vital to the first year students. The students generally regard their pronunciation after high school as average, and in fact it is rather poor, which might suggest the tendency to start with lower level than previous cohorts. However, most of the students consider improving pronunciation at university important and they notice that they can benefit from university instruction in this respect by considering all the language awareness tasks offered by the course to be of at least average efficiency in improving their pronunciation skills. Nevertheless, the most effective activities are the ones that require raising the lowest levels of language awareness, which are at the same time those that are familiar to the students from lower levels of education and simultaneously require the least effort put in conscious study on the part of the learner. Besides, the least effective activities are the ultimate communicative activities and those that utilize the most of student individual study time but also develop the type of awareness needed by philologists, which confirms the hypothesis that the students are not yet ready to start studying the English pronunciation in an academic way but they prefer to do it using techniques well known from high school—by repetition, reading aloud and immediate correction. Nonetheless, the students can be divided according to their views into groups placed at two extremes of the continuum of the perceived efficiency of the most controversial tasks in phonemic transcription. The existence of quite a large group of advocators of the activities proves useful introducing them to the students during classes. Thus, the teacher's focus should be on detecting the reasons why each group holds such extreme views in order to find the best solutions to the problem of rejecting them as ineffective by e.g. organizing a class debate on the problem of pronunciation tasks that are at the same time raising the student academic language awareness.

References

Bolitho, R., R. Carter, R. Hughes, R. Ivanič, H. Masuhara and B. Tomlinson. 2003. Ten questions about language awareness. *ELT Journal* 57(3): 251–259.

Carter, R. 2003. Key concepts in ELT: Language awareness. *ELT Journal* 57(1): 64–65.

Eldredge, J. L. 2004. *Phonics for teachers: Self-instruction, methods, and activities*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.

Gillon, G. T. 2004. *Phonological awareness: From research to practice*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Hawkins, E. 1984. *Awareness of language: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Institute of English Cultures and Literatures—University of Silesia. 2009. Syllabus for English philology (BA studies) at the University of Silesia. http://www.ikila.us.edu.pl/pl_inf_dla_stud.php?id=30&studenci=content/pl/informacje_dla_studentow_pl/programy_pl. Accessed 30 June 2012.

Jessner, U. 2006. *Linguistic awareness in multilinguals*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press Ltd.

McNiff, J. and J. Whitehead. 2009. *Doing and writing action research*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Schmidt, R. and S. N. Frota. 1986. Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: a case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In *Talking to learn: conversation in second language acquisition*, (ed.) R. R. Day. Rowley: Newbury.

Szafraniec, K. 2011. Raport Młodzi 2011. http://kprm.gov.pl/Mlodzi_2011_alfa.pdf. Accessed 30 June 2012. [Report - The young 2011]

Tomlinson, B. 1994. Pragmatic awareness activities. *Language Awareness* 3(3): 119–129.

van Lier, L. 2001. Language awareness. In *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*, eds. R. Carter, and D. Nunan, 160–165. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yopp, H. K. 1992. Developing phonemic awareness in young children. *Reading Teacher* 45(9): 696–703.

The Influence of Explicit Phonetic Instruction and Production Training Practice on Awareness Raising in the Realization of Stop Consonant Clusters by Advanced Polish Learners of English

Marcin Bergier

Abstract The aim of this study is to investigate the occurrence of unreleased oral stop in the production of English voice agreeing plosive clusters straddling word boundaries in the context of one intonation unit within a sentence. This is the only distribution similar to Polish thus triggering the unreleased stops production in the outlined context. Whereas in English it is optional and common (Gimson and Cruttenden 1994), it is hard to establish the precise tolerance of Polish language to no release burst. The data from the observations are often contradictory and even the most tolerant phonetic context does not guarantee significantly low release rates. Moreover, the commonly accepted belief that Polish stop geminates are unreleased is questioned (Rojczyk 2008) and English is far more tolerant to no release burst (Sobkowiak 2001; Jassem 1993; Jassem 1975). In the light of these observations the problems with the cessation in the release burst among Polish advanced learners of English can be noticed, thus constituting the focus of the study. In the production experiment the subjects are tested on the plosion release rate in 18 English voice agreeing stop clusters straddling word boundaries in two recording sessions separated by explicit theoretical phonetic instruction and practice. The acquisition progress is checked during the second test. Finally the obtained results are analyzed regarding the individual speaker's drop in the release rate, voicing and the place of articulation variables. The release rates from the first and the second session are juxtaposed and the drop in the number of released stops is estimated.

M. Bergier (✉)
Institute of English, University of Silesia, ul. Grota-Roweckiego 5,
41-205 Sosnowiec, Poland
e-mail: emberg@o2.pl

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_7,

1 Introduction

English and Polish oral stop sounds may seem very similar in production regarding both place and manner of articulation. However, in detailed examination many phonetic features and processes observed constitute the crucial differences between them. They are caused mainly by the particular susceptibility of English oral stop (plosive) sounds to the multitude of allophonic variations dependent on the segmental distribution and phonotactics or driven by the dialectal and accentual variations. On the other hand Polish stops as obstruents regularly become a subject of devoicing in final positions and follow the rule of regressive assimilation of voicing when in obstruent clusters. In the light of these differences an advanced Polish learner of English whose goal is a professional, near native pronunciation should be exposed not only to the extensive production practice but also to the explicit phonetic instruction allowing for gaining phonetic knowledge and awareness of the key allophonic variation production. The main aim of this study is to reveal to what an extent the explicit phonetic instruction triggering awareness of no release burst in the cluster context helps in the acquisition of the mentioned phonetic allophone among advanced Polish learners of English.

2 Unreleased Plosive Sounds and Clusters in English

English stops as susceptible to many allophonic variations may feature the lack of the final stage of the articulation (i.e. release stage cessation) resulting in unreleased plosive sounds. Their production is non-obligatory in English, however, they occur relatively commonly as compared to Polish. This is the reason why no release burst correct production is advised for advanced learners of English both in Polish origin phonetic literature (see Jassem 1975; Reszkiewicz 1984; Sobkowiak 2001) and in English origin one (Gimson and Cruttenden 1994).

No release burst of stop consonants may occur in two possible contexts. First one is a final (pre-pausal) position. Considering English it is present but optional. Sobkowiak (2001, p. 111) states that its production is "far from obligatory" whereas Gimson and Cruttenden (1994, p. 145) speak about its usage in less conventional speech. Rojczyk (2009) concludes that "the lack of release in final stops is legal in English and illegal in Polish". The other and the key context for this study are stop consonant clusters. In such clusters the plosive preceding another plosive is not released due to the process of coarticulation being natural in a continuous, fluent speech and contributing to the overlapping of the adjacent articulators (Ladefoged and Maddieson 1996). Ladefoged (1975) claims English to be an anticipatory language—that is "one in which the articulations of the sounds yet to come are anticipated to some extent" (Ladefoged 1975, p. 49) and their features may already be manifested in the preceding segments. The preceding consonant anticipates the closure stage of the following one before the release. The possibility of no release does not guarantee its cessation and the occurrence may

differ in frequency regarding different pairs (Sobkowiak 2001, p. 59) (for the details see Sect. 5 below).

English unreleased plosive clusters may occur both intramorphemically and intermorphemically. Investigating intramorphemic context a lot of phonological restrictions regarding phonotactics can be observed such as no homorganic clusters allowed (Sobkowiak 2001, pp. 109–110), therefore, English language allows only some clusters there. Speaking about intermorphemic clusters they can be found both within one word and also across the word boundary. When within one word there are no phonological restrictions but their number is potentially restricted morphologically by the affixation processes. Jassem (1993, pp. 146–175) provides numerous examples of spectrographic data illustrating no release in this context. Finally, when straddling word boundaries all the possible ($6 \times 6 = 36$) combinations are acceptable and they occur on random basis in any of the possible configurations without limitations (Jassem 1993, pp. 146–175; Sobkowiak 2001, p. 59). Gimson and Cruttenden (1994, pp. 145–147) declare no release in this context as "a feature of most kinds of English" and advice advanced foreign learners to acquire it to gain the nearest approximation to the natural native like English. Moreover, O'Connor (1973, p. 133); Jassem (1975, p. 61), and Rojczyk (2008) declare it a regular process in English phonetics. Additionally Sobkowiak (2001, p. 111) indicates the homorganic cluster context as more liberal to no release and considers burst cessation to be problematic for Poles when producing English. In the light of the fact that the frequencies of release in English are the lowest regarding homorganic cluster context the occurrence of burst among Poles producing English may be considered a Polglish error (Sobkowiak 2001). Heterorganic context features higher release rates but Sobkowiak (2001, p. 110) shares an observation that they are relatively distinctively lower in fronted—retracted clusters (were the first segment is in more fronted position regarding its place of articulation in the vocal tract; e.g./pt/,/bd/) as opposed to the retracted—fronted one (e.g./tp//db/).

3 No Release Burst of Stop Clusters in Polish as Contrasted with English

Examining the tolerance of Polish language to no release burst we can say after Rojczyk (2008, p. 75) that the status of release burst frequency of occurrence is putative as the studies of Polish phonetics have paid not much attention to this feature especially regarding explicit acoustic and statistical study. Jassem (1975) generalizes that the release rate of stops in Polish clusters is relatively higher than in English. Release burst is obligatory in intramorphemic clusters as it is obligatory in utterance final position (Jassem 1975; Reszkiewicz 1984; Sobkowiak 2001). No release is allowed only intermorphemically but across the word boundaries and Polish features low tolerance to this feature also in this context

when confronted with English. There are also no unambiguous data regarding heterorganic clusters. Lack of release is stated as "common" and/or "usual" by Rojczyk (2008) who reports the findings of Kopczyński (1977) and Jassem (1975) investigating homorganic environment. These findings can be correlated with Wierzchowska (1980) and Dudkiewicz and Sawicka (1995) who consider the stop in this environment as "optionally unreleased". All the mentioned claims are not supported with any phonetic variables or any precise data on the percentages of releases. On the contrary Sobkowiak (2001, p. 110) argues that Poles share the tendency to release both stops despite the most liberal context for no release and Rojczyk (2008) supports the view that Polish stop clusters are characterized by a relatively high release rate in the most tolerable word straddling homorganic environment. Moreover, Rojczyk (2008) observes the release rates of homorganic dental voiceless and voiced stops as distinctively higher when compared with the release rates of the other homorganic clusters in both two-word and sentence contexts. This low tolerance indicates their non-distinctiveness and stands in sharp contrast to the low release rates of the English alveolar counterpart produced by English native speakers. Concluding, Poles render the release burst as more effective for the purpose of communication and there is no transfer of release obstruction from L2 to L1. On the contrary, the distinctive burst production in L1 may possibly be negatively transferred to L2 stop clusters contributing to their higher release rates (Bergier 2010). The anticipated negative transfer triggers the need of raising some metaphonetic awareness among the examined subjects by means of explicit phonetic instruction outlining the key allophone and checking how their production improved in terms of the desired phonetic correctness. The longitudinal experiment with awareness raising theoretical and practical course is going to reveal the acquisition rate regarding the discussed matter.

4 Metaphonetic Awareness and Its Impact on the Sound System's Availability to Conscious Experience and Control

The experiment presented below endeavours to translate the role of conscious awareness in second language learning into the realm of phonetic acquisition thus promoting the importance of metaphonetic awareness in speech production. This importance is explicated in the notion of metaphonetic awareness being the explicit dimension of L2 knowledge in the form of conscious analytic awareness of formal properties of TL, specifically phonetics (Wrembel 2011). The explicit dimension embraces declarative forms as a knowledge of some phonetic facts and rules and some degree of procedural knowledge. The latter entails conscious knowledge of learning and production strategies in L2 speech (Wrembel 2011). The experiment we have performed focuses on and realises both notions. They are achieved by means of explicit phonetic instruction regarding the declarative forms

and extended, tutor monitored, repetitive production practice performed with the application of some handful phonetic teaching strategies (discussed under Sect. 5.3.2) allowing for the use of some control tools contributing to the learner's reflection, conscious knowledge of learning and effective production practice.

Wrembel (2005) elaborates on Ellis' (1994) findings proposing the threefold manner of metaphonetic awareness functioning: 1—facilitator of intake operating at a level of perception and helping the input to become the conscious intake, being realised in our study through the formal explicit phonetic instruction; 2—acquisition facilitator as metacompetence being realised in the study by deciphering underlying intentions and preventing the mapping into L1 by means of forming the adequate practical representations by the tutor during the teaching sessions in classroom situation, as performed between two sessions of our longitudinal experiment; 3—monitoring device impersonated by the tutor exercising the output control which helps learners to provide a reflective feedback on the production and to empower them in enhancing autonomy by equipping them with necessary tools for self-monitoring and self-correction—as related to our study, being carried out in the classroom situation and by the students on their own (for more detailed discussion see Wrembel 2011, p. 173). In the light of the prior research of Bialystok (1982) and Gass (1988) stating the concomitance of higher levels of metalinguistic awareness with improvements in L2 proficiency experimentally proven by Renou (2001) and the application of Wrembel's (2005), (2011) model we proceeded with the following research.

5 Experiment

Preparing material for the experiment we had to bear in mind the most favourable environment for no release burst occurrence among native speakers of English producing English stop clusters. Rojczyk (2008) indicates the lowest release of plosion in homorganic clusters and particularly in these voiced. Moreover, the place of articulation featuring the lowest numbers in homorganic clusters is alveolar (Sobkowiak 2001, p. 111). If heterorganic, the fronted-retracted articulatory sequence is found more favourable (Sobkowiak 2001, p. 110). Additionally, longer utterances, speech fluency and faster tempo trigger no release burst.

5.1 Material

Pairs of plosive sounds in clusters need to include all the possible sets, hence the word boundary straddling context seems to be the most suitable. In this configuration all the possible 36 combinations of 6 plosive phonemes paired with each other occur in English in the same way as in Polish. This group can be divided following voicing factor into 18 voice agreeing (9 voiceless and 9 voiced) and 18

voice contrasting clusters (9 voiceless—voiced and 9 voiced—voiceless). However, when pronounced by Poles in their native language, voice contrasting plosive clusters commonly undergo a process of regressive assimilation of voicing and as a result they agree in voicing. Sobkowiak (2001) states that this feature is very strong in Polish and is easily negatively transferred to English contributing to a "Polglish" error. This is the reason of voice contrastive clusters exclusion from the study as we will not be dealing here with voice assimilation issues. The remaining 18 clusters can be outlined regarding essential phonetic variables such as the place of closure and voicing. Defining articulation place there are 6 homorganic and 12 non-homorganic clusters. The former are yet divided into 2 bilabial -/pp/, /bb/; 2 alveolar -/tt/ , /dd/; 2 velar -/kk/, /gg/ whereas the latter are subdivided into 6 fronted-retracted /pt/, /pk/, /tk/, /bd/, /bg/, /dg/ and 6 retracted-fronted /kt/, /kp/, /tp/, /gd/, /gb/, /db/. Considering the other phonetic variable i.e. voicing the detailed 18 clusters are divided into 9 voiceless and 9 voiced. Both variables have the formative influence on the release frequency in English as outlined in Sects. 2 and 3.

5.2 Subjects

16 native speakers of Polish speaking English as their L2 took part in the experiment. They were all advanced learners of English as 1st year students of English philology at the Department of Modern Languages at the University of Silesia in Poland. Their learning experience of English was ranging from minimum 7 to maximum 14 years (average: 11 years). They were 19–21 years old with the majority being 19 years old. 1 subject was male and the rest were female. They featured neither speech impairments nor hearing loss which could possibly disrupt the later practice during teaching sessions. They took part in the research completely voluntarily. They did not undergo any practice of no release burst production in English plosive clusters as this is the subject of the second semester syllabus. Therefore they were fully unaware of the aim of this study as far as the first stage of the experiment (prior to the teaching sessions) was concerned.

5.3 Procedure

The longitudinal experiment was carried out in two recording sessions. The first recording was performed at the beginning of the first semester of the subjects' studies i.e. in October. Students were given a set of 18 sentences featuring two word phrases including plosive clusters straddling word boundaries within a single intonational unit. Recordings were carried out in the quiet phonetic laboratory with a stationary microphone of 100 Hz–16 kHz frequency sensitivity range plugged into the portable laptop and placed circa 15 cm from speaker's mouth. The recordings were saved as "mono" in ".wav" format to the computer disc. Their

audio sampling rate was 44 kHz and the bytes transmission speed 705 kb/s. Each file included all the 18 sentences produced by an individual speaker. The files were analyzed in the free scientific software program *Praat* v. 5.0.30 (Boersma and Weenik 2008) for the speech analysis. Obtaining the waveforms and spectrographic images we were looking for some signs of articulators parting resulting in some brief acoustic transient or some more distinct spikes and variations of a few milliseconds duration as in the similar production study of Polish exclusively homorganic clusters conducted by Rojczyk (2008). If there were some variations and spikes observed in the typical frequency rates for bilabial, alveolar and velar plosion we were dealing with at least inaudibly released plosive sound which do not have to be perceptively heard, however, it was acoustically recorded as a release. We have applied the positive value of the release burst for the study. Figure 1 presents the demonstrative waveforms and spectrograms of alveolar plosive cluster/tt/with the case of unreleased stop within it and Fig. 2 with both stops released respectively.

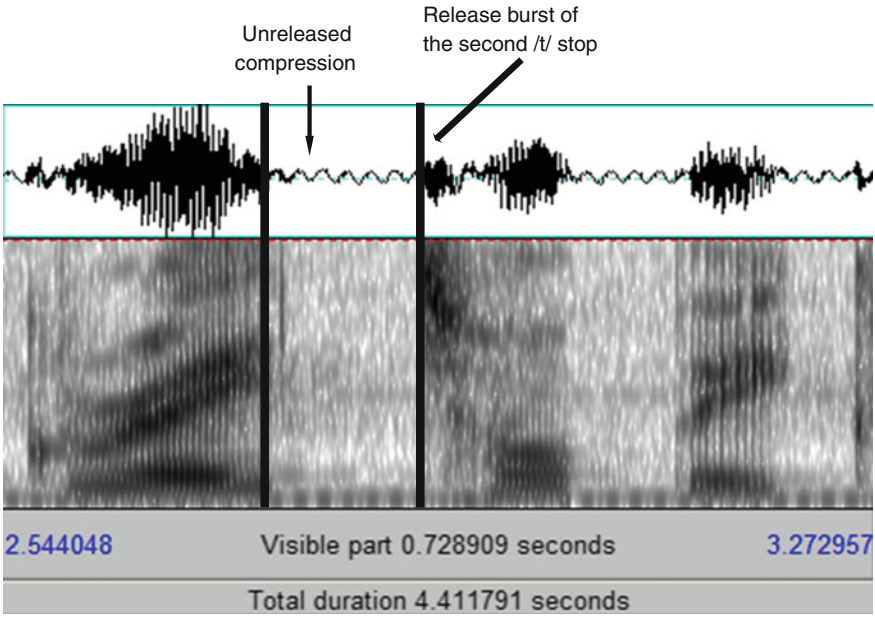


Fig. 1 Waveform and spectrogram of no release burst in homorganic alveolar cluster /tt/ context in *great topic*. As seen in the time duration captions the phrase is presented in the context of the longer utterance. Two bold vertical lines indicate the section of the longer compression stage without any interruptions

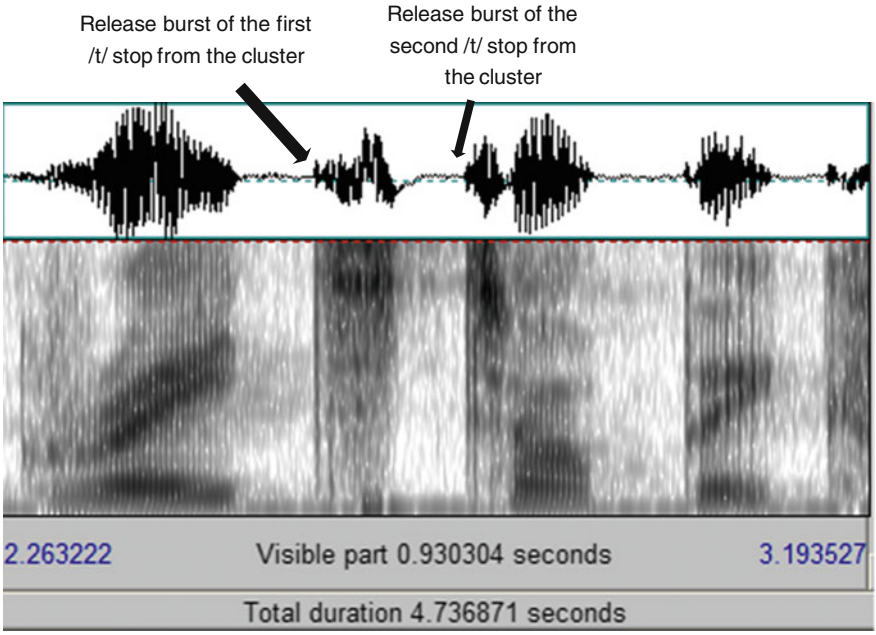


Fig. 2 Waveform and spectrogram of two released stops in homorganic alveolar cluster /tt/ in the phrase *great topic*. Two release bursts can be seen both in the waveform, and in the spectrographic section. The spectrographic views of both stops are very similar, hence we can infer their homorganic place of articulation. Moreover, each of two compression stages is of relatively shorter duration as compared to the unreleased compression stage

5.3.1 First Recording Session

Students were given the following 18 sentences being instructed to read fluently and clearly without hesitation or any stress from the potential errors or mispronunciations. They were asked to read each sentence in one go in their normal, conversational tempo. They did not know about the position of the cluster in the sentences and about the key subject of this study. Short, inexact instruction focusing on general phonetic correctness and bare sentences without underlined, bold-typed clusters were presented as a simple list immediately before their production. Below they are shown with the highlighted variables and clusters.

I. Voiceless clusters (9)

1. **/pp/**- I can't sto**p p**laying my guitar since I got it.
2. **/pt/**- The discussion over small grou**p t**eaching methods was long and tedious.
3. **/pk/**- Sign your paper at the left to**p c**orner of the page.
4. **/tp/**- They finally spotted a fa**t p**ink lady waving at them on the horizon.
5. **/tt/**- We are convinced that this is a grea**t t**opic for discussion.
6. **/tk/**- I want you to stop wearing this fla**t c**oloured jacket, please!
7. **/kp/**- Mary and Joan still ma**ke p**eople angry with their stupid questions.

8. **/kt/**- It is illegal for teenagers to smo**ke t**obacco and buy spirits.
9. **/kk/**- The offer included a laptop with a blac**k k**eyboard and a portable mouse.

II. Voiced clusters (9)

10. **/bb/**- The cigarette stu**b b**urnt a black spot in the carpet.
11. **/bd/**- You should gently ru**b d**irty material in a lukewarm water.
12. **/bg/**- He is an ordinary, rich sno**b g**iving no money for charity.
13. **/db/**- All the acts of ba**d b**ehaviour will be punished.
14. **/dd/**- 1st September 1939 was not a goo**d d**ay for Poland.
15. **/dg/**- He has been a devote**d g**olf player in the last 10 years.
16. **/gb/**- The dog started to di**g b**ones out of the earth immediately.
17. **/gd/**- There was a bi**g d**angerous dog on the other side of the fence.
18. **/gg/**- What is the reason of Me**g G**riffin being the object of ridicule?

5.3.2 Explicit Teaching Period Aimed at Metaphonetic Awareness Raising

As the first recording session was completed in October all the 16 subjects took part in the explicit teaching period planned longitudinally for the time of the whole semester. General idea of the planned course was to revise and consolidate the major phonetic issues facilitating the process of correct English pronunciation i.e. vowels (quality and quantity), consonants (contrasts with Polish), stress, intonation and fluency. The specific aim was to provide an explicit theoretical instruction and production practice of no release burst in individual sessions with every student being assisted and corrected in the production. The subjects were introduced to the concept of unreleased stop in clusters across the word boundaries. This allophone was presented as only one issue among some others in order not to direct their attention exclusively to the key phonetic feature. Thanks to this strategy students exposed to the second test afterwards were possibly still naïve to the exclusive aim of the study and were not searching for the plosive clusters in the sentences, simultaneously loosing phonetic control and forgetting about other rules of the proper English pronunciation. The sentences used for the first recording session appeared in the teaching section in order to base the study on the correction of one's own errors thus making the production practice more effective and empowering students with reflective skills.

The whole teaching consisted of three sections. Section A comprises theoretical issues such as contrastive data regarding pronunciation of vowels and consonants in Polish and English, stop sounds, stop clusters and finally unreleased stops. This section (*cf.* Sect. 4 of this article) carried out by the tutor was aimed to develop student's formal metaphonetic awareness and to help the input to become the conscious intake through the formal explicit instruction. Section B is the practice of unreleased stop sounds in word straddling clusters in two-word phrases outlined

regarding the key phonetic variables determining the release count. The practical data included the gradable difficulty level inferred from the native production observations analyzed with respect of phonetic variables (i.e. the utterance length and the type of cluster). It contributed to the second step of the metacompetence model proposed by Wrembel (2005, 2011) (see Sect. 4 for details) in respect of the development of strategies to cope with a task and reflection on them. Section C is also practical and it uses the two-word phrases implemented in the sentences from the first recording contexts. This allowed students for some reflection and the focus on one's errors previously performed in the first production study as explicated by the tutor. The teaching process was realized in 3 meetings. During the first meeting, 2 weeks after the first recording session sections A and B were carried out. During the second meeting, 1 month after the first meeting section B was repeated and section C was introduced. Finally during the third meeting towards the end of the winter semester in February section C was repeated. Throughout the teaching sessions tutor empowered students with some tools for gaining control over the key feature as exemplified by Wrembel (2011, pp. 176–177) and followed the guidelines for self-monitoring of speech performance by students, as proposed by Morley (1994, p. 87) (for detailed strategy techniques discussion cf. Wrembel 2006). The subjects' production was being instantly corrected in the individual interview performance. Students were also given a feedback when practicing on their own and in pairs in a form of peer correction. The other tools used included: slower rate of speech, listening to one's recorded performance with a critical self-evaluation, slower rate of speech, stress management and control, emphasis on the second plosion in the cluster, stronger articulatory effort, reflection on the most problematic context, imitation and an attempt at shadowing (delayed imitation) of the tutor.

5.3.3 Second Recording Session

At the end of the semester in February, 16 students who took part in the experiment were instructed to read 18 different sentences during the second recording session. The sentences included the same stop sound combinations, however, now set in different phrases located in different sentences. The procedure was the same as regarding the first set. The material was given immediately before the start of the production in a form of the test containing the short, inexact instruction "read the sentences fluently and clearly paying attention to the proper English pronunciation" and listed, bare sentences; without underlined, bold-typed clusters. Below we present the set with the highlighted variables and clusters.

I. Voiceless clusters (9)

1. **/pp/**- Watch your step and don't dro**p p**ins on the floor.
2. **/pt/**- I was listening to an old loo**p t**ape record while washing the dishes.
3. **/pk/**- I wasn't aware of its shar**p c**laws when the jaguar jumped on my back.
4. **/tp/**- Confessing your sins to the protestan**t p**reacher is pointless anyway.
5. **/tt/**- I've already seen this quick and smar**t t**rain being repaired at the station.

6. **/tk/**- The lawyers want to pu**t c**lear legal limits on violence in war.
7. **/kp/**- It was only due to the quic**k p**addling that they managed to bypass the waterfall.
8. **/kt/**- The daily press is still warning us about the pea**k t**ime for seasonal flu.
9. **/kk/**- A train station boo**k k**iosk is a great place for bookworms.

II. Voiced clusters (9)

10. **/bb/**- Children were racing across the room to gra**b b**alloons and toys.
11. **/bd/**- Is there Bo**b d**igging out some bizarre weed in the garden?
12. **/bg/**- The cooling system consists of the tu**be g**oing down to the bottom of the chamber.
13. **/db/**- Hastily ma**de b**reakfast is what I usually start the day with.
14. **/dd/**- Please register as a bloo**d d**onor and save lives of others in need.
15. **/dg/**- I have to admit that I'm on soli**d g**round when it comes to my profession.
16. **/gb/**- Send a message and you can win a bi**g b**ag full of second-hand clothes.
17. **/gd/**- 2nd of May was officially pronounced a fla**g d**ay in Poland.
18. **/gg/-** The company issued to the workers anti-smo**g g**oggles and gas masks.

5.4 Results and Discussion

Discussing briefly the individual subjects' performance in the study the drop in the count of the released stops is observed in 13/16 subjects (81,2 %). Applying possible statistical error margin (*Chi* square test—$p < 0.05$) statistically relevant drop is observed in 6/16 subjects (37.5 %). The remaining 10 achievements (62,5 %) are the possible results of the statistical error. 7 out of these 10 (i.e. 43,75 % of all 16 subjects) demonstrate the factual drop of the release burst; 2 following are equal to the first session and finally 1 presents a regressive result manifesting the increase in the release count.

5.4.1 Individual Clusters

The investigation of individual clusters (*Chi* square test—$p < 0.05$) reveals a statistically significant drop of released stops in the second recording session. The drop is regarding 6 clusters out of 18 (i.e. 33.3 %). However, it is worth mentioning that the factual, statistically insignificant (not meeting $p < 0.05$) drop was observed in as many as 10 from the 12 remaining clusters. The reason for quite numerous clusters not meeting the statistical relevance is not large number of subjects being 16. Only two clusters featured no factual drop i.e. /pt/ and /kp/. The former revealed the same release rate in both sessions and the latter a statistically insignificant increase ($p = 0.6264$). The highest release rates from the whole set of clusters were observed in /tk/ and /kt/ clusters with 100 % of releases regarding the

first and 81,25 % releases regarding the second recording session respectively. The lowest numbers of released sequences occurred in homorganic bilabial voiceless cluster/pp/(25 % in the first and 0 % in the second session) and in bilabial voiced cluster/bb/(37,5 % reduced to 0 %).

5.4.2 Voicing Variable

Table 1 presents the count and percentage of released stops in clusters regarding the factor of phonetic variable of voicing. It outlines the data from the first and the second recording session and *Chi* square test results with the verification of their validity. It also provides the amounts of released sequences in total across the recording sessions with the statistically significant drop in the total number of released contexts.

The major observation reveals that voiceless sounds tend to be more commonly released both in the first (75 %) and in the second recording session (55,55 %) as compared to these voiced—70,83 % in the first session and 43,75 % in the second. Similar findings of lower release rates, but regarding production of Polish and exclusively homorganic plosive clusters are found in Rojczyk (2008). Looking at the voicedness from the position of longitudinal study from Table 1 we can read that the number discrepancy between voiceless and voiced clusters in the first session is 6/144 (4.16 %) and it extended to 17/144 (11.8 %) in the second session. Tables 2 and 3 below illustrate relatively bigger drop in release regarding voiced clusters as confronted with voiceless, suggesting that the voiced ones are more prone to be acquired by learners as unreleased. Table 2 illustrates voiceless clusters and Table 3 voiced, all across the places of articulation. Black colour stands for the first recording session and grey for the second. The straight lines across the charts are the averages from both sessions.

5.4.3 Place of Articulation Variable

For the case of the place of articulation impact we divided all the 18 clusters produced by 16 subjects into 3 groups i.e. 6 homorganic, 6 heterorganic fronted-retracted and 6 heterorganic retracted-fronted clusters (for the distinction

Table 1 Statistical relevance of release rate contrast between the 1st and 2nd recording session in voiceless and voiced stop clusters

Voicedness	1st recording session	2nd recording session	*Chi*-square test result	Statistical relevance ($p<0.05$)
voiceless	108/144 = 75%	80/144 = 55.55%	$p = 0.0005$	OK
voiced	102/144 = 70.83%	63/144 = 43.75%	$p = 0.0$	OK
In total	210/288 = 72.9%	143/288 = 49.6%	$p = 0.0$	OK

Table 2 Voiceless clusters across the articulation places in both recording sessions

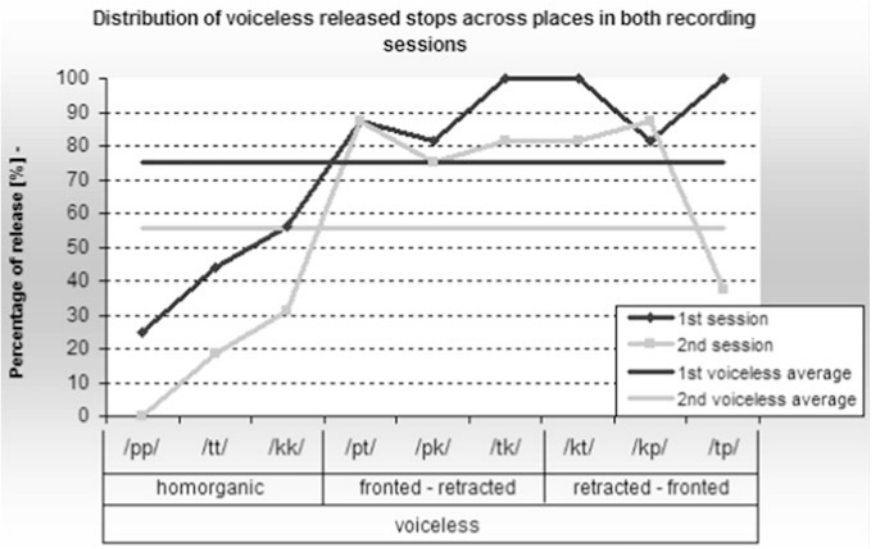
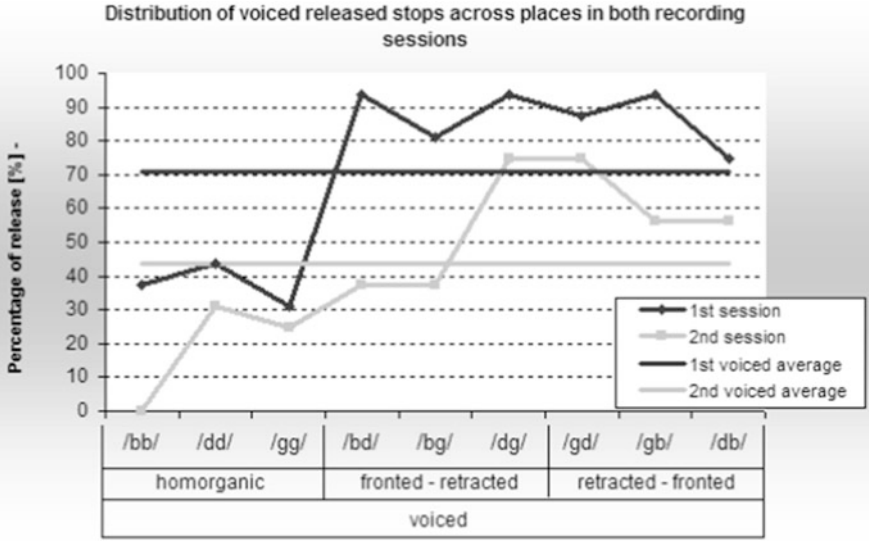


Table 3 Voiced clusters across the articulation places in both recording sessions



explanation see final paragraph of Sect. 2). After the division of 288 samples each group contained 96 of them. The count and percentage values of released stops in the first and the second session is outlined together with the *Chi* square test verification in Table 4.

Table 4 Statistical relevance of released sequences contrast between two recording sessions across the homorganic, fronted-retracted and retracted-fronted clusters

Place of articulation	1st recording session	2nd recording session	*Chi*-square test result	Statistical relevance ($p<0.05$)
homorganic	38/96 = 39.58%	17/96 = 17.7%	p = 0.0008	OK
fronted - retracted	86/96 = 89.58%	63/96 = 65.62%	p = 0.0001	OK
retracted - fronted	86/96 = 89.58%	63/96 = 65.62%	p = 0.0001	OK
In total	210/288 = 72.9%	143/288 = 49.6%	p = 0.0	OK

Before discussing the results of these general contexts there is yet a need to present the detailed percentages of each possible combination from the 3 groups of sequences. These contexts are outlined in 3 line charts with every chart representing each group accordingly: Table 5—homorganic; Table 6—fronted-retracted; Table 7—retracted fronted clusters.

The articulatory place variable reveals that the drop in the released sequences is statistically highly significant—$p = 0.0008$ regarding homorganic clusters and $p = 0.0001$ regarding both fronted-retracted and retracted-fronted group. The lowest number of released sequences is observed in the homorganic group (39.58 % decreased to 17,7 %). The cluster which featured the lowest count of releases globally was homorganic bilabial (only 31.25 % initially and decreased to

Table 5 Percentage of released homorganic clusters during both recording sessions

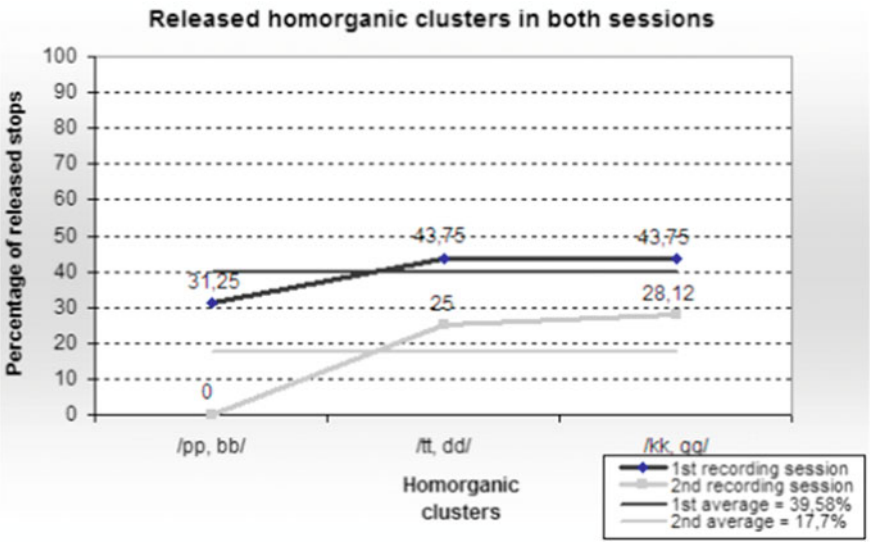


Table 6 Percentage of released fronted-retracted clusters during both recording sessions

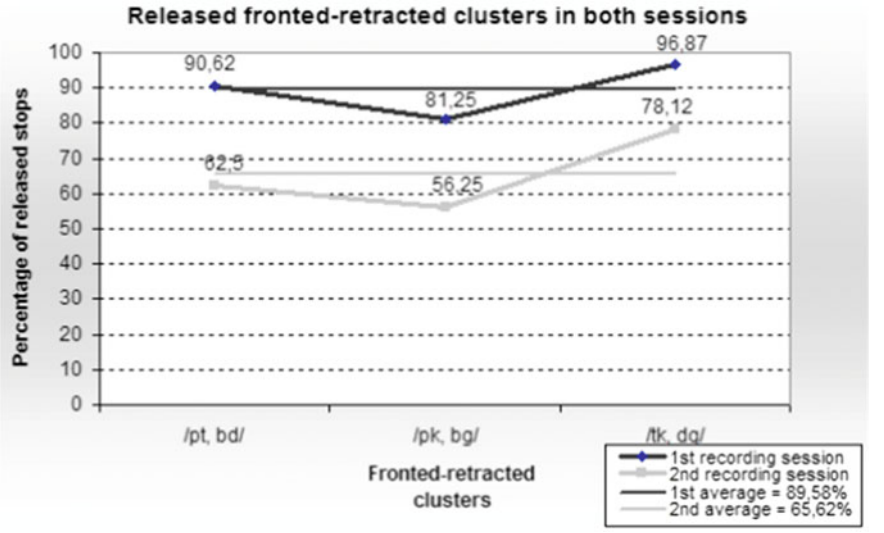
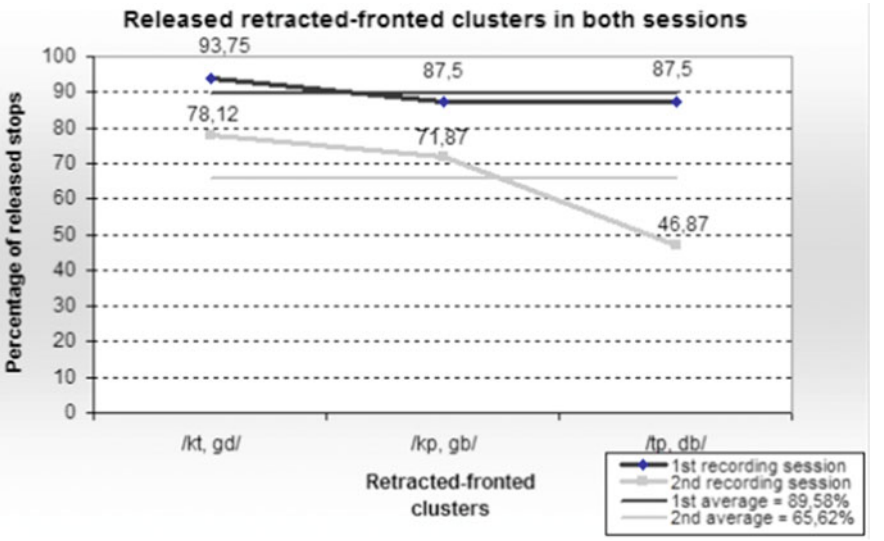


Table 7 Percentage of released retracted-fronted clusters during both recording sessions



0 % in the second session which contrasts with already low but still relatively higher release values of homorganic alveolar—25 % and homorganic velar—28.12 % cases). The results do not reveal any possible negative native language transfer of the tendency to release dental/alveolar /tt/ and /dd/ clusters more commonly as compared to others in homorganic context. This tendency was

observed in Rojczyk (2008) when dealing with production of Polish homorganic stop clusters by Polish native speakers. The reason of their higher occurrence was their relative non-distinctiveness as opposed to bilabial and velar articulation places (Rojczyk 2008, p. 84).

The release percentages of fronted-retracted and retracted fronted clusters are the same regarding the first and the second session (89.58 % reduced to 65.62 %). As far as native English is concerned Sobkowiak (2001) states the retracted—fronted context as sharing the highest release possibility. Advanced L2 speakers of English do not display this tendency in production. In fronted-retracted group the cluster featuring the lowest percentage of releases was bilabial-velar /pk/ and /bg/ with 81.25 % dropping to 56.25 %. In retracted fronted group the reversed position, so velar—bilabial marked the lowest release count in peripheral places of articulation within a cluster, however, this tendency was violated here by alveolar-bilabial case of the remarkable drop during the second session (from 87.5 to 46.87 %).

5.5 Concluding Remarks

The aim of this study was to investigate the extent to which the formal explicit phonetic instruction performed in theoretical teaching sessions and production training practice across the longitudinal observation of subjects phonetic performance influences and triggers their metaphonetic awareness in respect of no release burst application in plosive clusters straddling word boundaries as being set within one intonational unit in the sentence context. General results reveal that gaining awareness in the production of this non-obligatory English allophone of stop sound facilitates the acquisition process as the number of released stops during the second recording session shown a statistically significant drop. The count of releases dropped from the initial 210/288 (72.9 %) to 143/288 (49.6 %) as far as the whole study is concerned. Individual subject investigation revealed the factual drop regarding 13/16 subjects. The individual clusters' drop was found statistically significant regarding 6/18 sequences but there was no actual drop in the release count only in 2 instances.

Both voiceless and voiced clusters recorded a statistically significant drop, however, the release count of voiced stops was relatively lower during both recording sessions as compared to these voiceless. The fact that subjects were less willing to release voiced stops may lead to a conclusion that the voiced closure of the cluster may have an inhibitory effect on the release rate as similar tendency was observed among Poles producing native homorganic clusters in sentence context in Rojczyk (2008). Articulatory place had also a significant impact on the count of releases. Homorganic plosives and these bilabial in particular were relatively rarely released as compared to heterorganic contexts. In the latter the same results regarding fronted-retracted and retracted-fronted clusters did not meet the tendencies found in native English cases as described in (Sobkowiak 2001) (see

final paragraph of Sect. 5.4.3). No negative native language transfer of common burst in non-distinctive dental/alveolar homorganic stop cluster context was observed either.

Applying the view of Bialystok and Ryan (1985) and Bialystok (1994), declaring metalinguistic proficiency as based on two aspects—analyzed knowledge and control over that knowledge our results stand in concordance with the findings of White and Ranta (2002) studying the interface between metalinguistic task performance and oral production in second language. They revealed that metalinguistic instruction correlated significantly with higher levels performance on a metalinguistic task as well as with oral production. Moreover, our research confirms the findings of Wrembel's (2005) long term empirical study which successfully explored the impact of the analyzed phonetic and phonological knowledge and metalinguistic awareness on second language pronunciation performance.

References

Bergier, M. 2010. The occurrence of unreleased oral stops in English voice agreeing plosive clusters straddling word boundaries. Production experiments with Polish advanced learners of English. Unpublished MA thesis. University of Silesia.

Bialystok, E. 1982. On the relationship between knowing and using linguistic forms. *Applied Linguistics* 3: 181–206.

Bialystok, E. 1994. Analysis and control in the development of second language proficiency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 16: 157–168.

Bialystok, E. and Ryan, E. 1985. Toward a definition of metalinguistic skill. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly* 31: 229–251.

Boersma, P. and Weenink, D. 2008. Praat: Doing phonetics by computer. (Version 5.0.30) [Computer program]. http://www.praat.org. Retrieved from August 2nd 2008.

Dudkiewicz L. and I. Sawicka. 1995. *Fonetyka i fonologia*. In [w:] *Gramatyka współczesnego języka polskiego*, ed. H Wróbel t. 3. Kraków.

Ellis, R. 1994. *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gass, S. 1988. Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics* 9: 198–217.

Gimson, A. C. and A. Cruttenden 1994. *Gimson's pronunciation of English.* 5th ed. London: Oxford University Press Inc.

Jassem, W. 1975 [1954]. *Fonetyka języka angielskiego*. Wyd. 4. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Jassem, W. 1993 [1962]. *Podręcznik wymowy angielskiej.* Wyd. 9. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Kopczyński, A. 1977. *Polish and American English consonant phonemes*. Warszawa.

Ladefoged, P. 1975. *A course in phonetics.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Ladefoged, P. and I. Maddieson 1996. *The sounds of the world's languages*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Morley, J. 1994. *Pronunciation pedagogy and theory: New views, new directions*. Alexandria: TESOL.

O'Connor, J. D. 1973. *Phonetics*. Harmondsworth : Penguin Books, cop.

Renou, J. 2001. An examination of the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and second-language proficiency of adult learners of French. *Language Awareness* 10: 248–267.

Reszkiewicz, A. 1984 [1981]. *Correct your English pronunciation.* 3rd ed. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Rojczyk, A. 2008. Release burst in Polish homorganic stop geminates. *Linguistica Silesiana* 29: 75–86.

Rojczyk, A. 2009. Perception of final unreleased stops by Polish advanced learners of English. *Multidisciplinary perspectives on second language acquisition and foreign language learning*, eds. J. Arabski and A. Wojtaszek, 186–197. Katowice: Oficyna Wydawnicza WW.

Sobkowiak, W. 2001. *English phonetics for Poles. A resource book for learners and teachers.* Poznań: Wydawnictwo Poznańskie.

White, J. and Ranta, L. 2002. Examining the interface between metalinguistic task performance and oral production in a second language. *Language Awareness* 11: 259–289.

Wierzchowska, B. 1980. *Fonetyka i fonologia języka polskiego*. Wrocław.

Wrembel, M. 2005. Phonological metacompetence in the acquisition of second language phonetics. PhD thesis, Adam Mickiewicz University.

Wrembel, M. 2006. Consciousness in pronunciation teaching and learning. In IATEFL Poland Newsletter, Post-Conference Edition No 26 (pp. 11Á20). Warszawa: IATEFL.

Wrembel M. 2011. Metaphonetic awareness in the production of speech. In: *Speaking and instructed foreign language acquisition*, eds. M. Pawlak, E. Waniek-Klimczak and J. Majer, 169–182. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

An Investigation into the Learners' Awareness of Word-Level Stress

Ewa Czajka

Abstract As a result of a relative unpredictability of word stress pattern in English, there seems to be no consensus whether word stress should be incorporated into pronunciation instruction. Moreover, exactly how beneficial the learner's conscious, declarative knowledge is to the acquisition of a foreign language phonological system remains to be confirmed. The present paper reports on a preliminary investigation into the learners' awareness of lexical stress. The study was conducted among twenty-two Polish learners of English (N = 22), whose command of word stress was assessed by means of written, perception, and production tests. These three, different types of testing methods were hypothesized to be related to a different degree to either explicit, or implicit processing. The results revealed a positive correlation between the level of the subjects' awareness and their written pronunciation test scores. No correlation was found between the level of the learners' declarative knowledge and their production abilities. Finally, *t* test calculation for perception test scores brought ambiguous results; therefore, further investigation is required in order to verify the existence of interdependence between the learners' awareness and their perceptual abilities.

1 Introduction

All instructors of phonetics as well as those language teachers who incorporate pronunciation elements into regular English lessons have to decide upon the content of the course and type of instruction to be employed. Word stress, which is

E. Czajka (✉)
University of Wrocław, Wrocław, Poland
e-mail: czajka.ew@gmail.com

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_8,

the concern of the present paper, has often been characterized as crucial for attaining intelligibility (e.g. Kenworthy 1987; Kelly 2000). Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994) went even further by declaring work on stress to be "the most convenient focal point for any course in pronunciation" (Dalton and Seidlhofer 1994, p. 73). These views certainly allow us to recognize word-level stress as an indispensable component of a successful Second Language Learning process.

The fact that word stress is a language-dependent phenomenon is of great importance for Polish learners of English. As a fixed-stress language, Polish commonly places prominence on the penultimate syllable within the word boundaries. English, by contrast, is characterized by a low predictability of stress patterns (Sobkowiak 1996). This dissimilarity brings about dual consequences. Firstly, learners may exhibit 'stress deafness' (Dupoux et al. 1997), which is the inability to recognize lexical stress contrasts in the target language. Secondly, erroneous perception leads to production difficulties (Kelly 2000).

According to Gut et al. (2007) modern pedagogy's solution to the abovementioned problems is the creation of language awareness, which comprises not only perceptual and articulatory training, but also knowledge input. Nevertheless, there is limited evidence of declarative knowledge being a beneficial (or detrimental!) factor influencing the acquisition of English pronunciation. In the study conducted by Wrembel (2004) thirty-three college students were assessed on segmental and suprasegmental aspects. The results indicate that explicit, declarative knowledge is facilitative to the learners if they are engaged in form-focused tasks. More recently, Baran-Łucarz (2006) presented similar findings. The subjects of her study were provided with treatment that was to help them eradicate /ʧ/ and /ʤ/ segmental production errors. The learners who received theoretical instruction outperformed those whose training was limited solely to production practice.

To my knowledge, the only experimental study which aimed at verifying the correlation between explicit knowledge and word-level stress was conducted by Jelska-Cydzik (2006). The results of the research suggest that theoretical instruction fosters the elimination of word stress errors. However, what seem to be of crucial importance is the fact that the main instruments used in the study were both written tests. Therefore, the data obtained do not allow any conjectures to be made concerning pronunciation perception nor pronunciation production.

2 Experimental Design

2.1 Aim of the Study

In light of presented findings, the author recognized the need for further investigation into the role of conscious, explicit knowledge in pronunciation learning. Therefore, the study was designed in order to:

- determine the learners' awareness of word-level stress
- verify the hypothetical correspondence between the learners' declarative knowledge related to word stress and their phonetic proficiency
- juxtapose results of the tests
- gather supplementary information related to word stress learning.

2.2 Subjects of the Study

The research was conducted among first and second year Polish students of English at the Institute of History, University of Wrocław. In order to determine the sample's homogeneity, several aspects were taken under consideration which might have influenced the subjects' acquisition of English phonetics and hindered the reliability of pronunciation production assessment. These inclusion criteria comprised: level of general English proficiency, visits to English-speaking countries, contact with native speakers, dyslexia and speech impediment.

Twenty-two learners fulfilled these specifications. The age of participants ranged from twenty to twenty-three. With reference to English proficiency, the subjects' level was upper-intermediate. None of them had spent more than a month in an English-speaking country, which they visited only for touristic purposes. Finally, none of the participants suffered from speech impediment or dyslexia.

2.3 Instruments and Procedure

The study was conducted in January 2012. The tools are presented in this section in the same order as they were employed in the research procedure.

2.3.1 Questionnaire

A specially designed questionnaire was administered prior to the research in order to delineate demographic profiles of the participants and ascertain whether they satisfy the aforementioned inclusion criteria.

2.3.2 Interview

The Interview (AWARE) was to determine the subjects' awareness, i.e. their explicit, conscious knowledge related to word stress phenomena. The author of the present paper interrogated the participants individually and encouraged them to express the content of their knowledge verbally, using their native language.

The subjects were asked, inter alia, to provide definition or explanation of word stress. They were questioned about the characteristics of stressed and unstressed syllables, difference between Polish and English word stress patterns, and stress-related rules. The interview was used to gather quantitative data as the participants were assigned points for their answers. The maximum possible score was thirty.

2.3.3 Pronunciation Proficiency Tests

The subjects were asked to complete three pronunciation proficiency tests, which incorporated the same vocabulary items organized in an identical order. Every test comprised forty multisyllabic words and ten sentences. In every sentence, one word was chosen to be evaluated. Although the tests were identical, they were completed differently.

Firstly, an oral production test (O:PROD) was administered. Participants were asked to read aloud the list of words and sentences. They were recorded using SONY IC-P620 voice recorder. Speech samples were assessed by the author of the study and a control rater; an experienced instructor of phonetics at the university level. To ensure high interrater reliability, the scores were compared using Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The result of the calculations pointed to a strong, statistically significant correlation 0.86 (at $p < 0.01$; $df = 248$).

The second test was a written assignment (W) in which the subjects were asked to mark the syllable they thought bears the main stress. As the author anticipated a high rate of possible mistakes, the words presented here were divided into pronunciation syllables.

Finally, perception was examined (W:PERC). The subjects listened to the list of words and sentences twice, and they were instructed to mark the syllable with primary stress once more. As in the written test, the words were divided into pronunciation syllables.

The author assumed that the three types of pronunciation tests; oral production, written, and written perception test would be related to a different degree to either explicit or procedural knowledge. Consequently, different degrees of correlation were expected to be found between the results of tests and the subjects' level of word stress awareness.

2.3.4 Questionnaire

The final instrument utilized was a questionnaire for the participants, which was to gather additional information related to word stress learning. The subjects were asked to provide answers to the following questions:

- Have you ever looked for information about the stress pattern of a particular word?
  (yes/no)

- How often do you look for information about the stress pattern of a particular word? (always/often/sometimes/rarely/never)
- Where do you look for information about the stress pattern of a particular word? (dictionary only/internet only/dictionary and internet)

3 Presentation of the Results

3.1 Raw Scores of the Interview

The result of the Interview (AWARE) intended to measure the subjects' declarative knowledge of word stress are presented in Table 1. While the mean score obtained was 7.04, the lowest was zero. It was the result of one student who claimed that prior to the research, he had been unaware of the existence of the word stress concept whatsoever. Furthermore, due to the fact that none of the participants was familiarized with any stress-related rules, the highest possible score was not achieved. The best result; eighteen points, was obtained by a person who provided a detailed definition of word stress, and enumerated several characteristics of stressed and unstressed syllables. She was also the only participant aware of the fact that Polish places prominence on the penultimate syllable in a word, and that /ə/, commonly denominated 'shwa', appears only in unstressed syllables.

3.2 Raw Scores of the Pronunciation Proficiency Tests

Table 2 delineates the outcome of the pronunciation examination. The mean scores varied considerably between the three tests. The oral production test (O:PROD) proved to be the most difficult, while the highest scores were obtained on perception test (W:PERC).

Table 1 Results of the interview

Mean	7.04
Mode	2
Median	7
Low–high	0–18
Range	18
SD	4.68

Table 2 Results of the pronunciation proficiency tests

	Pronunciation proficiency tests		
	O:PROD	*W*	*O:PERC*
Mean	26.73	30.45	37.23
Mode	28.29	35	34
Median	28	30.5	35.5
Low–high	16–38	20–40	22–46
Range	22	20	24
SD	5.39	5.59	6.53

3.3 Correlational Analysis

In an attempt to verify the notion of possible correlation between the learners' conscious, declarative knowledge and their phonetic proficiency, the Interview (AWARE) results were compared with the outcome of the three tests. The variables' interdependence was examined using *t* test calculations whose results are presented in Table 3.

A positive, moderate, and statistically significant correlation at $p < 0.05$ was found between the subjects' declarative knowledge and their written pronunciation test (W) scores. What is more, the *t* test results seem to indicate that the learners' explicit knowledge also correlates with the outcome of perception test (W:PERC). However, the level of significance in this case was $p < 0.1$.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to juxtapose the different pronunciation proficiency tests' results (see Table 4). The strongest, statistically significant correlation at $p < 0.01$ was obtained between the outcomes of written (W) and perception (W:PERC) tests. The correlation found between production and the remaining tests was weaker, and the level of significance at $p < 0.05$ was lower.

Table 3 T-test calculations between the interview and the tests' results

O:PROD	*W*	*W:PERC*
$t = 1.19$	$t = 2.13$*	$t = 1.99$**

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.1$; df = 20

Table 4 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between results of the pronunciation proficiency tests

O:PROD ↔ W	0.50*
O:PROD ↔ W:PERC	0.54*
W:PERC ↔ W	0.64**

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; df = 20

3.4 Results of the Questionnaire

The results obtained by the means of the questionnaire provided additional data related to word stress learning. Nineteen out of twenty-two subjects (86 %) claimed that they had looked for information about the stress pattern of a particular word at least once. As for the iterativity (see Fig. 1); nine students admitted that they had done it "rarely", seven chose the answer "sometimes", one "often", and two subjects ticked the "always" option.

Furthermore, while only three participants chose the answer "dictionary only", the majority of subjects pointed to the interned as an exclusive source of information on word stress pattern (see Fig. 2).

4 Discussion

The present study was conducted in an attempt to verify whether language awareness may function as a predictor of second language pronunciation accuracy. Before the analysis of the statistical calculations conducted in relation to the main aim of the present study, let us first contemplate the results of the Interview, which was used to determine the subjects' awareness of word stress.

Despite the author's attempt to ensure the homogeneity of the group of subjects under investigation, especially in reference to their level of general English

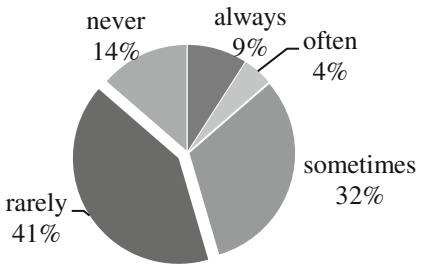


Fig. 1 The subjects' answer to the question: "How often do you look for information about the stress pattern of a particular word?"

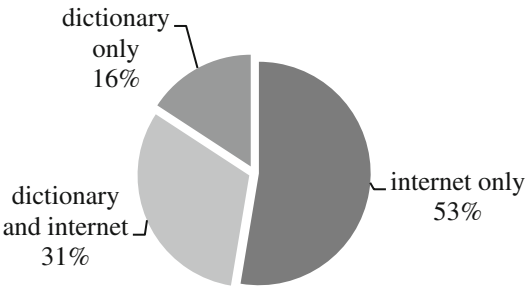


Fig. 2 The subjects' answer to the question: "Where do you look for information about the stress pattern of a particular word?"

proficiency, the outcome of the Interview revealed an extensive discrepancy in the learners' level of knowledge. As was stated before, the participant who obtained the lowest score was not familiar with the concept of word stress at all. What seems especially compelling is the fact that regardless of his ignorance, he was still able to achieve a relatively good command of English, as one of the inclusion criteria pertained to the accomplishment of upper-intermediate level of proficiency. Although this result certainly does not substantiate the conclusion that explicit knowledge of word stress is not beneficial for the learners, it may suggest that it is not indispensable.

The outcome of *t* test calculations, which were to verify the existence of interdependence between the subjects' level of knowledge and their pronunciation proficiency tests' results, do not allow us to refute or confirm the hypothesis univocally, but indicate certain possible explanations and point to future areas of investigation. As expected, the result revealed a positive correlation between the level of the subjects' awareness and their written pronunciation test scores. In this particular case, the "know that" knowledge proved to be a beneficial factor influencing the learners' proficiency. A potential reason may be the fact that the instruments used, the Interview and the written test, both appertain to the participants' declarative knowledge. Furthermore, the result of *t* test calculated for production test seem to substantiate this explanation as no positive correlation was found between the level of the subjects' knowledge and their production abilities, activated by the means of implicit, "know how" procedures.

Finally, *t* test calculation for the perception test scores and its possible correlation with the subjects' declarative knowledge brought ambiguous results. The level of significance was not satisfactory and did not allow any definite conclusions to emerge. Although the author of the present study assumes perception abilities to be automatic and relying solely on the listener's implicit competence, it may be that the written format of the utilized perception test involved some degree of controlled processing on behalf of the participants and allowed them to refer to their explicit knowledge. Therefore, the hypothetical correspondence between the two variables requires further investigation.

5 Final Remarks

Despite the necessity of explicit intervention in developing pronunciation abilities has long been recognized, incorporating elements of conscious knowledge is not a common practice. Rather, the learners are expected to depend solely on their intuition when imitating the target language model.

The data reported in the present paper do not allow us to conclude univocally whether promoting language awareness in pronunciation pedagogy affects the learners' command of English phonological system. However, on the basis of the results obtained we may imply that no such assumptions are justified without a thorough consideration of the assessment tools utilized.

In order to validate the importance of language awareness as a predictor of variation in pronunciation attainment, further research is required. Therefore, the author intends to conduct a longitudinal experimental study in which the learners' perceptual abilities would be treated as a moderator variable in juxtaposing the results of control group (receiving auditory and articulatory training) and experimental group (provided with theoretical instruction alongside practical training).

References

Baran-Łucarz, M. 2006. Wiedza fonetyczna a postep w wymowie języka obcego. Zależność/niezależność od pola danych jako zmienna modyfikująca. In *Dydaktyka fonetyki języka obcego w Polsce. Referaty z Szóstej Konferencji Naukowej. Mikorzyn. 8–10 maja 2006*, eds. E. Waniek-Klimczak and W. Sobkowiak, 23–38. Konin: PWSZ w Koninie.

Dalton, C. and B. Seidlhofer. 1994. *Pronunciation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dupoux, E., C. Pallier, N. Sebastián and J. Mehler. 1997. A destressing 'deafness' in French? *Journal of Memory and Language* 36(3): 406–442.

Gut, U., J. Trouvain and W. J. Barry. 2007. Bridging research on phonetic descriptions with knowledge from teaching practice – The case of prosody in non-native speech". In *Non-native prosody. Phonetic description and teaching practice*, eds. J. Trouvain and U. Gut, 3–21. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Jelska-Cydzik, A. 2006. Does explicit treatment help students eradicate word stress errors? In *Dydaktyka fonetyki języka obcego w Polsce. Referaty z Szóstej Konferencji Naukowej Mikorzyn. 8–10 maja 2006*, eds. E. Waniek-Klimczak and W. Sobkowiak, 93–106. Konin: PWSZ w Koninie.

Kelly, G. 2000. *How to teach pronunciation*. London: Pearson Education Limited.

Kenworthy, J. 1987. *Teaching English pronunciation*. London: Longman.

Sobkowiak, W. 1996. *English phonetics for Poles*. Poznań: Bene Nati.

Wrembel, M. 2004. Phonological "know that" or "know how"? – in pursuit of determinants of second language pronunciation attainments. In *Zeszyt Naukowy Instytutu Neofilologii*, eds. W. Sobkowiak and E. Waniek-Klimczak, 163–170. Konin: PWSZ w Koninie.

Advanced Learners' Perceptions of Hedges and Awareness-Raising Tasks

Aneta Kot

Abstract Despite the prominent role and the pervasive nature of hedges in native speaker spoken discourse, these so-called 'small words' (The term 'small words' has been borrowed from Hasselgren 2002) are undervalued in the teaching context. As a result, due to the absence or inappropriate use of hedges, non-native speakers can sound bookish, foreign or even rude. Therefore, pedagogical intervention which aims at raising learners' awareness of the pragmatic functions hedging devices serve in spoken discourse appears to be a facilitative tool to develop this aspect of pragmatic competence. Existing publications (e.g. Félix-Brasdefer 2008) provide valuable insight into the benefits of explicit instruction in the acquisition of pragmatic concepts, but little is known about learners' attitudes to pragmatics instruction. Such perspectives are important since learners' negative perceptions of instructional practices can adversely affect their learning process. This study focuses on advanced students' views on the value of conversational hedges as well as the attractiveness and usefulness of awareness-raising tasks used in a foreign language classroom. The results of a questionnaire administered to elicit learners' responses indicate that generally students think that raising awareness of conversational hedges is beneficial. Moreover, the paper sheds light on learners' preferences regarding various types of awareness-raising tasks. The survey findings are significant for both language teachers and materials writers.

1 Introduction

Mastering the art of hedging, i.e. a communicative strategy which enables speakers to soften the force of their utterances (Nikula 1997, p. 188), seems critical for communication success. Research (Kasper and Blum-Kulka 1993; Bardovi-Harlig

A. Kot (✉)
College of Foreign Languages in Częstochowa, Czestochowa, Poland
e-mail: aneta.k.kot@gmail.com

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_9,

2001) demonstrates that failure to hedge appropriately where it is expected or failure to understand the meaning and functions of hedging expressions may lead to communication breakdowns. This is illustrated by Svartvig (1980, p. 171) who states that "if a foreign language learner says *five sheeps* or *he goed*, he can be corrected by practically every native speaker. If, on the other hand, he omits a *well*, the likely reaction will be that he is dogmatic, impolite, boring, awkward to talk to, etc., but a native speaker cannot pinpoint an 'error'."

Although hedging is a central strategy in maintaining interpersonal relations, it is either ignored or seriously undervalued in the foreign language classroom. Not surprisingly, foreign language students find this area problematic and often misuse or underuse conversational hedges. Considering the high frequency of hedging devices in spoken discourse and the variety of pragmatic functions they perform, researchers have argued for the necessity of including this aspect of pragmatic competence in foreign language teaching. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) claims that without instruction, non-native speakers often fail to acquire pragmatic features.

Recent studies (e.g. Félix-Brasdefer 2008) confirm that explicit instruction facilitates pragmatic development. Still, there are questions about how to teach hedging devices and about which instructional practices promote learners' development of hedging in speech. It seems that investigating learners' perceptions of the value and usefulness of teaching hedging devices as well as students' attitudes to different teaching methods and tasks may provide valuable data which can enable teachers to employ suitable teaching techniques and help them create appropriate materials to teach target language pragmatics effectively.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Hedging

The notion of 'hedge' has been defined in many different ways (Lakoff 1972; Markkanen and Schröder 1997; Channell 1994) as it has expanded from a linguistic term to a concept with communicative, interactional and pragmatic connotations. The term was coined by Lakoff (1972, p. 195), where it was used to refer to the semantic concept denoting "words or phrases whose job it is to make things more or less fuzzy." Within the domain of pragmatics, hedges have over the time become words or phrases that mitigate the force of an utterance and in this way act as face-saving devices (Brown and Levinson 1987; Markannen and Schröder 1997).

Traditionally hedges have been viewed as empty fillers that should be avoided at all costs (Fox Tree 2007). O'Donnell and Todd (1991, p. 69) refer to *you see, you know, I mean* as "phrases which occur with varying frequency in informal speech, or with unskillful speakers." Language users also seem to have negative perceptions about hedging because it shows uncertainty that is perceived as an

indicator of unreliability. On the other hand, native speakers very often regard non-native speakers as rude or too direct because they do not hedge (Nugroho 2002, p. 17).

Spoken corpora (e.g. MICASE; CANCODE) reveal that hedges are pervasive in native speaker spoken discourse and perform important pragmatic functions. They act as softeners, conversational cooperative devices and politeness strategies (Nugroho 2002). Although hedging devices play a prominent role in spoken discourse, they are undervalued in the teaching context. As a result, non-native speakers' use of hedging devices differs significantly from that of native-speakers (Nikula 1997). Channell (1994, p. 21) observes that "it is often noticed by teachers that English of advanced students, while grammatically, phonologically, and lexically correct, may sound rather bookish and pedantic to a native speaker. This results in part from an inability to include appropriate vague expressions."

Despite the importance of hedges for effective communication, surprisingly little research has been done on the acquisition of these devices by foreign language learners.

2.2 Pragmatic Instruction

Recent research (Kasper 2001; Kasper and Rose 2002; Martinez-Flor et al. 2003) has revealed that learners who receive instruction on different aspects of pragmatics perform better than those who do not. However, more studies are needed to shed light on the types of instructional practices which can promote students' development of pragmatic competence.

In order to develop appropriate instructional practices that lead to learners' gains in pragmatic competence it seems important to refer to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990) which attempts to explain pragmatic development and the stages learners need to go through to acquire this competence. Schmidt argues that learners need to pay conscious attention to relevant linguistic forms, functional meanings and contextual features to learn TL pragmatics. Moreover, he (1993, p. 36) claims that exposure to input alone is not enough to learn pragmatics:

> (…) simple exposure to sociolinguistically appropriate input is unlikely to be sufficient for second language acquisition of pragmatic and discoursal knowledge because the linguistic realizations of pragmatic functions are sometimes opaque to language learners and because the relevant contextual factors to be noticed are likely to be defined differently or may be nonsalient for the learner.

For this reason, Schmidt (1993) proposes explicit instruction of pragmatics by adopting a consciousness-raising approach. He claims that children learn L1 pragmatics with the help of parents and caregivers, who teach them communicative competence and the rules of politeness using a variety of strategies. According to Willis and Willis (1996), language learners need to pay attention to particular features of the language, to draw conclusions about how the language

works from samples of language. Moreover, they (1996, p. 15) argue that "by encouraging learners to observe and analyse language for themselves we are reinforcing their natural tendency and ability to make sense of language and to systematize it. We are encouraging learners to learn for themselves."

Besides being exposed to appropriate input and instruction learners need to be provided with opportunities for output to acquire pragmatic competence. Swain and Lapkin (1995, p. 173) state that output is "one of the triggers for noticing" as even without explicit or implicit feedback provided from the teacher about the output, the learner may still "notice a gap" (Schmidt and Frota 1986) in their own knowledge of L2 and, as a result, change or modify their output.

2.3 Learners' Perceptions

While the existing literature provides valuable insight into the benefits of explicit instruction in the acquisition of pragmatics in formal learning contexts, little is known about learners' attitudes to the value of teaching different aspects of pragmatic competence.

According to Kasper and Rose (2001, p. 246), it is assumed in studies on pragmatics instruction that learners make "a good-faith effort to learn what is being taught". However, teaching practices may motivate learners and enhance their learning process whereas students' negative perceptions of the instructional methods may adversely affect their learning outcomes. Therefore, the understanding of learners' needs and expectations might help teachers create suitable materials to teach target language pragmatics.

Among the studies that have examined learners' perceptions of pragmatics instruction is the one by Olshtain and Cohen (1990). At the end of the study, which focused on the effects of teaching apologies to advanced learners of English, students were requested to evaluate the teaching materials in terms of their usefulness. The findings revealed students' strong preference for teacher explanations, information sheets and role-play activities. Pair-work, listening to dialogues and classroom discussions received lower ratings. The conclusion was that adult learners were more responsive to explicit techniques.

In Lyster's study (1993) learners' attitudes towards instruction of second person pronouns and formality levels in French were investigated. Learners were asked to evaluate the lessons in terms of difficulty and interest. Role-play skits received the highest ratings for interest, while class discussions or structural exercises were considered the least interesting. In terms of the amount learned, structural exercises rated highest whereas class discussions yielded the lowest ratings.

Tateyama (2001) compared explicit and implicit teaching of attention getters, expressions of gratitude and apologies to beginning learners of Japanese who evaluated the effects of the treatments used. Learners regarded authentic video clips as helpful in understanding the use of formulas in Japanese. Learners in the explicit treatment valued metapragmatic explanations. The implicit group

appreciated implicit instruction; however, there were voices in favour of explicit explanation.

Although the results of the different studies concerning pragmatics instruction vary considerably, there are some general observations that can be made. Generally, adult learners show a strong preference for explicit techniques over implicit instruction. Learners found video clips illustrating the context helpful. Role-play activities provided a good opportunity to practice the targeted forms.

3 The Study

3.1 Study Description

The present study aims to shed light on advanced learners' views on the importance of conversational hedges and their preferences with regard to explicit instruction of the pragmatic concept of hedging through awareness-raising.

The treatment focused on the following categories of hedges (Nikula 1997):

1. Approximators (*kind of, sort of, just,* and general extenders *and stuff/and things, or something/or something like that* (Overstreet and Yule 1999)), which render the modified word or expression more fuzzy and imprecise (Prince et al. 1982)
2. Shields which reflect the speaker's lack of full commitment to the truth-value of the whole proposition *I think, I guess, I don't know* (Prince et al. 1982)
3. Implicit hedges (*I mean, you know, well, like*) (Nikula 1997) known in literature as discourse markers—which form a separate category as they do not always function as hedges but also as turn-taking and turn-yielding devices, pause fillers, hesitation markers.

Research questions

The research questions posed in the study are as follows:

1. How do advanced learners perceive the value of conversational hedges?
2. Do advanced students of English find it important to raise their awareness of conversational hedges?
3. What are learners' preferences regarding various types of activities used to raise their awareness of pragmatic functions of hedges?
4. How can the instruction be improved to meet the learners' expectations and enhance their learning outcomes?

Participants

The subjects comprised 20 advanced students of English in their fourth year of study. For all of the students, English was their second language. The learning history of all the subjects was essentially homogeneous. They learned the language in a classroom setting through formal instruction in similar educational institutions.

Instruction

Throughout the period of one academic year, students participated in weekly practical English classes. There were twenty 90-min classes with approximately 50 % of the time spent on explicit instruction of a pragmatic concept of hedging. In order for the students to fulfill the requirements of the course, regular attendance and participation were required. The classes were conducted by a non-native teacher of English.

During the 20-week instruction learners were regularly exposed to authentic video or audio recordings, listened for content, and then focused on the targeted pragmatic feature. Teaching materials were based on authentic data taken from the Internet (e.g. YouTube) and Michigan Corpus of Advanced Spoken English (MICASE). Teacher explanations related to the function and appropriateness of hedges and the pitfalls associated with both underuse and overuse of hedges. The following types of awareness-raising tasks were used in class:

Reformulation

Students drew conclusions from the comparison between a native speaker model and their performance (Johnson 1988, p. 93) e.g. Discourse Completion Tests were used. Native speaker answers were collected as a base norm.

Reconstruction

Students were asked to recall and reconstruct elements of a previously heard spoken text (Swain and Lapkin 1995, p. 373) e.g. fill in the gaps with appropriate hedges.

Metapragmatic discussions

This task involved learners and teacher engaging in a discussion about pragmatic expressions that they saw or heard. The purpose was to point out and make students aware of pragmatic features, their functions and meanings.

Identification

Transcripts highlighting features of spoken discourse aimed at attracting learners' attention to conversational hedges (input enhancement) were used for in-class examination. By analyzing real-language data, learners deduced the meaning and functions of hedges in a given context. According to Willis and Willis (1996, p. 14), the use of transcripts allows "learners to notice features that may not be noticed for a long time if only heard in the flow of real-time conversation."

A corpus-based approach

The approach used in class exploited the MICASE. Concordance data were developed into worksheets with tasks given. Students were asked to look at sets of concordancing lines to identify the pattern and usage. Corpus materials also allowed learners to perform qualitative and quantitative analyses of hedging devices.

Cross-linguistic comparisons

Students were requested to find equivalent hedging expressions in their mother tongue (Polish). The use of hedging expressions in both languages was compared and conclusions were drawn.

Awareness-raising activities mentioned above were followed by controlled practice (role-plays, shadowing) and communicative practice (discussion, debate,

storytelling). The teacher also provided learners with corrective feedback to raise their awareness regarding their output.

At the end of the course, students were asked to comment on the value of conversational hedges, evaluate the course materials and the awareness-raising tasks. The feedback from learners should provide the answer to the question whether learners' pragmatic awareness has been raised.

Instrument

In order to obtain information about learners' attitudes, a 40-item questionnaire was devised and administered to 20 advanced MA students (see Appendix). There were two types of questions: closed and open-ended questions. The evaluation was anonymous to encourage honest responses.

3.2 Presentation and Discussion of Results

My research reveals the following findings:

Value of hedges

Generally, the learners are convinced of the value of hedging devices in spoken discourse. Seventy per cent of the learners disagree that hedges are only fillers, unimportant words that should be avoided. Only two of the 20 learners believe that 'small words' make the speaker sound uneducated. Eight students report not understanding the need to use conversational hedges as they can communicate easily without using 'small words'. Three students have some doubts concerning the necessity of focusing on such linguistic items (see Table 1).

When asked to comment on the value of hedges in communication, the majority of respondents (14 out of 20) regard 'small words' as indispensable and facilitative. Three out of 20 students think hedges help maintain fluency but are dispensable, as the learners can still fulfill their communicative purpose without resorting to the employment of hedges. Three students have a negative attitude towards the use of hedges in speech regarding them as a sign of sloppy thinking.

The majority of students perceive a person who uses hedges in speech as fluent or proficient. Only three students regard a speaker who utilizes hedges in speech as uncertain, or not well-educated (see Table 2).

Table 1 Learners' perceptions of the importance and use of conversational hedges

Learners' perceptions of the importance and use of conversational hedges	Yes	No	Not sure
'Small words' make the speaker sound uneducated	2	15	3
I can communicate easily without using 'small words'	8	4	8
'Small words' are only little words in conversation so it's a waste of time to pay attention to them	3	10	7
I still think small words are only fillers, unimportant words that should be avoided.	0	14	6

Table 2 Students' perceptions of someone who uses hedges

Students' perceptions of someone who uses hedges	Number of students
Fluent speaker	11
Proficient person	3
Well educated person who is fluent	1
Fluent speaker; however, sometimes if it's too overwhelming, it may cause the perception of the speaker not being certain	1
Somebody who does not know what to say, has mixed feelings about something	1
Not well-educated	1
Someone who is polite	1
Someone who wants to fill in gaps in conversation	1

When it comes to learners' reasons for the use of hedging devices in speech, students admit they usually use hedges to maintain fluency or due to lack of information or lack of an adequate word or expression. Eight students mention politeness as a reason for using hedges in their speech (see Table 3).

Value of instruction

Interestingly, 12 out of 20 students admit that prior to instruction they typically have not paid attention to 'small words' nor have they realized they perform important pragmatic functions, which confirms the importance and effectiveness of pragmatic instruction. This call for the necessity of raising students' awareness of the use of hedges is consistent with their rejection of the statement that *hedges are only little words so it's a waste of time to pay attention to them.*

By far the most interesting finding is that 12 in 20 learners claim they have benefited from instruction. They state that they have become aware of hedging as a fluency-enhancing strategy as well as other features of natural speech. They also utilize conversational hedges to be polite, less assertive or authoritative. Interestingly, they cite improvement in speaking, and increased confidence in oral skills thanks to the use of 'small words'(see Table 4).

It is important to note that only 15 % of learners think that 'small words' are acquired unconsciously so there is no point in teaching them (see Fig. 1 below).

All students are convinced of the importance of raising learners' awareness of hedging devices. Fifty-five per cent of students are in favour of explicit instruction.

Table 3 Learners' reasons for the use of hedging devices in speech

Learners' reasons for the use of hedging devices in speech	Number of students
To maintain fluency	7
For lack of information	3
Fluency and lack of information	1
Politeness/lack of information/fluency	3
Politeness and lack of information	2
Politeness and fluency	3
Fluency/politeness/lack of information/uncertainty	1

Table 4 Value of instruction

	Yes	No	Not sure
Thanks to the knowledge of the functions of 'small words' I can understand native speakers better	14	2	4
So far I haven't paid attention to 'small words'	12	4	4
I haven't realized how important it is to use 'small words' to make my conversation more polite	17	2	1
I haven't realized 'small words' perform important pragmatic functions in conversation	13	1	6
Thanks to 'small words' I have improved my speaking skills	13	1	6
I think I have benefited from instruction	12	1	7
Thanks to awareness-raising tasks I am more confident in my oral skills	12	0	8

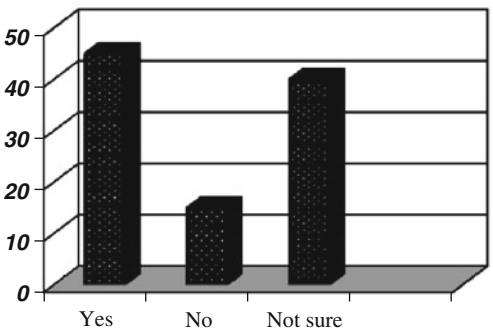


Fig. 1 Importance of pedagogical intervention (%)

Only one student prefers discovery learning. Eight students are not sure of the approach they are likely to respond to. Students not only stress the fact that pedagogical intervention is necessary to make learners aware of the role hedges play in spoken discourse but to confirm their point, they also list the benefits arising from instructional practices aimed at raising students' awareness of the pragmatic functions of conversational hedges:

> 'I'm more aware of hedging as a fluency-enhancing strategy. I understand native speakers better.'
>
> 'I've improved my speaking skills, I'm more fluent and native-like. I try to use small words to be more polite, less direct.'
>
> 'My awareness has been raised. I'm more aware of the features of authentic English speech.'
>
> 'I'm more confident while I'm using small words and it makes my speech more natural. I'm aware of the importance of small words and try to use such expressions in my speech.'

Seventy per cent of students claim that thanks to pragmatic instruction they use hedges to make their speech more polite but also more fluent and native-like (see Fig. 2).

Moreover, the students admit that the lessons aided their understanding of features of spoken discourse and politeness conventions. They confirm that the

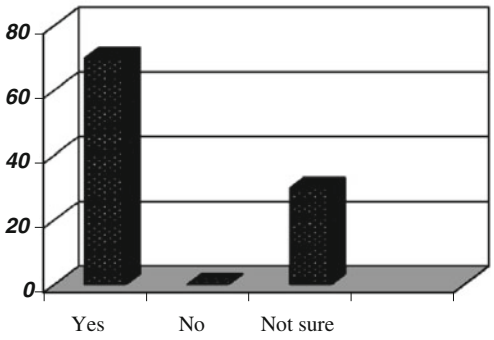


Fig. 2 The use of hedges as a fluency-enhancing strategy (%)

knowledge of the functions of 'small words' helps them to understand native speaker conversations better (70 %) (see Fig. 3).

Evaluation of awareness-raising activities

Generally, the learners maintain that the treatment employed was useful. Sixty-five per cent of learners think highlighting 'small words' in listening and oral materials is beneficial. Eighteen learners appreciate teacher explanations concerning the use of 'small words'. Moreover, 19 students find transcripts of native speaker models helpful. Sixteen students recognize the value of role-plays based on native-speaker models as well as cross-linguistic comparisons.

Different aspects of awareness-raising activities were evaluated:

- Task difficulty
- Level of interest
- Usefulness

Number of learners who gave the highest score (5) for the following types of awareness-raising tasks:

As can be seen from Table 5 above, reformulation tasks rank highest in terms of usefulness whereas identification tasks the lowest. Reconstruction tasks receive the highest ratings for interest followed by reformulation tasks. Identification tasks and metapragmatic discussions are the least interesting in the eyes of learners. When it

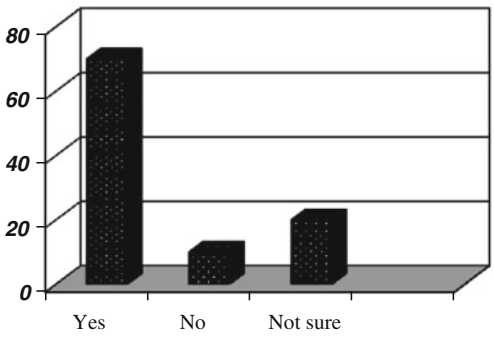


Fig. 3 The significance of hedges in spoken discourse comprehension (%)

Table 5 Learners' perceptions of awareness-raising tasks in terms of interest/difficulty/usefulness

Awareness-raising tasks	Usefulness	Interest level	Difficulty level
Identification	0	2	6
Cross-linguistic comparisons	4	4	2
Reconstruction	5	6	2
Reformulation	7	5	7
Metapragmatic discussion	4	3	3

comes to the level of difficulty, cross-linguistic comparisons and reconstruction tasks are considered the least difficult while reformulation tasks followed by identification tasks pose difficulties for advanced learners of English.

Evaluation of course materials

Sixty per cent of learners evaluate the course materials as neither easy nor difficult (see Fig. 4). This result confirms that the material presented was appropriate to the learners' proficiency level. Forty per cent of learners cite authentic materials (audio and video) as difficult. Sixty per cent of respondents appreciate corpus materials and find them interesting.

Generally, the classes were perceived as either interesting or somewhat interesting (see Fig. 5).

The most interesting thing learned in class

Admittedly, learners appreciate exposure to authentic everyday language (listening and audio materials from the Internet, e.g. YouTube). They value video materials and oral exercises. They stress the fact that the classes made them realize 'small words' influence the way people perceive others. Likewise, they find it not only interesting but useful to learn that small words make them sound both fluent and polite. Awareness-raising tasks made them realize 'small words' are common in native-speaker speech. The subjects also highlight other benefits resulting from being exposed to features of spoken discourse:

> Awareness of different functions of using small words, better oral skills, additional phrases not included in the coursebook.

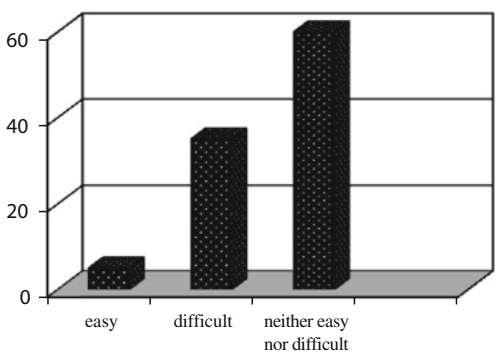


Fig. 4 Evaluation of course materials

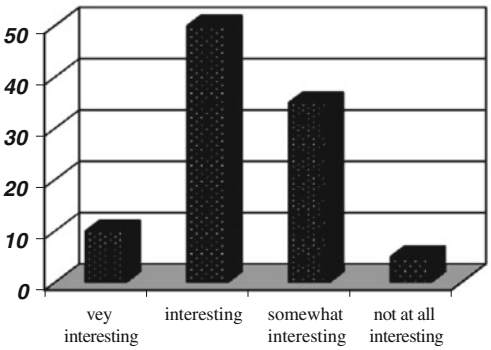


Fig. 5 Evaluation of classes in terms of interest

Small words which seem unimportant made me sound more fluent and polite.
Real-life language –how it looks and how it is spoken in authentic situations.

The least interesting thing learned in class

Some learners complain that discussing functions of 'small words' was boring. Others point out that too much time was spent on raising students' awareness of hedges. Some students express a lack of interest in transcripts (calling them helpful but boring) and structural exercises.

Aspects of language learners are willing to learn

The majority of students emphasize their willingness to learn slang words, colloquial expressions and other features of spoken discourse. They express desire to focus on cultural and social aspects of spoken interaction. Moreover, students rank it important to learn other fixed expressions that make speech more natural and native-like. They recognize the value of real life conversations as well as the cultural and social aspects of communication.

Problematic aspects

With regard to items which learners find difficult to understand, authentic materials rate highest. Students also report problems with understanding meta-pragmatic information, i.e. they find it confusing that the different meanings and functions of small words are context-dependent.

Learners' suggestions for improving lessons

The majority of learners emphasize the need for more practice in features of spoken discourse, in role-plays (oral exercises) which allow them to apply pragmatic strategies in interactions. They suggest using more authentic listening materials such as movies, TV series, and news reports.

Additional comments

Additional comments concern students' difficulty with using 'small words' in a native-like manner. A possible explanation for this might be that instruction may have been enough to give learners declarative knowledge, but it may be insufficient for the learners to transfer all the rules they have acquired to actual productions. Therefore, more instructional time should be allocated to improving learners' pragmatic competence.

3.3 Recapitulation

To sum up, the findings reveal positive perceptions of the usefulness of raising learners' awareness of pragmatic devices. Learners think hedges facilitate communication. Moreover, they recognize the value of hedging as a politeness strategy as well as a fluency-enhancing strategy. They stress the fact that thanks to hedges they have improved their speaking and listening skills. The negative evaluations concern the frequency and intensity of metapragmatic discussions. Students point out the difficulty arising from the fact that hedges lack clear semantic denotation and syntactic rules as well as being context dependent i.e. they acquire different meanings and functions depending on their context.

Generally, learners maintain that the treatment was useful. They rank explicit explanation highest followed by cross-linguistic comparisons and role-plays. Learners' positive attitudes towards explicit instruction are consistent with Olshtain and Cohen's (1990) findings in which students valued a teacher's explanations the most. Students appreciate exposure to natural spontaneous conversations despite the fact that authentic listening tasks were rated as difficult. According to Bardovi-Harlig (1996, p. 34), "it is important that learners observe native speakers in action." For this reason, authentic materials play a paramount role in exposing learners to natural conversational input, especially in foreign language environments.

4 Conclusions and Implications of the Findings

On the basis of the data obtained the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Learners admit that they did not realize that hedging devices fulfill important pragmatic functions in spoken discourse. This confirms the need to raise students awareness of the value and pervasive nature of conversational hedges in natural native-speaker interactions.
- As such devices are often stigmatized and learners may perceive pragmatics instruction as irrelevant to their needs, they must be informed about the relevance of pragmatics to language learning so that they can be more responsive to the instructional practices used in class.
- There is a need for more practice in the use of hedging devices; therefore, more time should be allocated to the actual use of such devices.
- Instructors and materials writers should integrate pragmatics into their second or foreign language instruction to facilitate learners' development of pragmatic competence.
- Language teachers should make an attempt to raise learners' pragmatic awareness through role-plays carried out by native speakers, cross-cultural analysis of different aspects of pragmatics, discussion of such issues as politeness and indirectness introducing more socio-cultural knowledge and contextual

knowledge of the target language, and developing awareness-raising materials based on authentic spoken data (e.g. MICASE).

Undoubtedly, not drawing attention to such an important aspect of pragmatic competence would be a disservice to foreign language learners. According to McLean (2004, p. 88), "in order to give language learners a *fighting chance* outside the classroom, teachers must provide them with consciousness-raising opportunities that will help them to develop pragmatic awareness." The arguments for the teaching of hedging in an EFL setting are strong. According to Thomas (1983), the inability to mitigate speech acts can lead to communicative failure. Moreover, although hedging devices are abundant in native speaker spoken discourse, they seem to lack salience for EFL learners and instructional materials offer little explicit instruction that would draw learners' attention to 'small words'. Fotos (1993) showed that learners are more likely to acquire explicit knowledge of targeted forms and notice them in subsequent tasks after completing awareness-raising tasks than after unfocused, communicative tasks. Therefore, explicit learning (via awareness-raising tasks) and metalinguistic awareness may be necessary cognitive steps to learn hedging devices. Awareness-raising tasks are valuable classroom activities, and in combination with input enrichment tasks (*input-enhancement*—where the target features are salient in the input and *input flood* where such features are frequent in the input (Ellis 2003, p. 158)) they may promote acquisition of conversational hedges by facilitating that initial stage of noticing and awareness.

The question is not whether to teach this aspect of pragmatic competence, as research has yielded promising results when it comes to explicit instruction of pragmatics, but rather how to teach it, or which instructional practices facilitate learners' pragmatic development. First of all, it is important to take into consideration students' individual differences, motivation and learning style preferences as they relate to the acquisition of L2 pragmatic competence (Cohen 1996). Furthermore, it should not be taken for granted that all students want to achieve native speaker-like communicative competence. For some learners, being understood and able to communicate intended meanings without the necessity to resort to the employment of small words is enough. The study shows that the use of planned pedagogical tasks is needed to foster learning of hedging devices, an important aspect of being an advanced language user. Its results suggest, however, that not all focused tasks may be of equal attractiveness to foreign language learners. To appeal to different interests and learning styles, pragmatic instruction should include a variety of activities to motivate learners.

Clearly, the results of the present study need to be treated with some caution. The study only reveals advanced learners' subjective opinions which are not yet confirmed by qualitative and quantitative empirical data. Therefore, further studies are needed to establish if the awareness-raising activities mentioned above lead to better comprehension or production of hedging devices in spoken discourse. Moreover, research is needed to investigate the long-term effects of awareness-raising tasks.

A.1 5 Appendix

QUESTIONNAIRE

Personal details

Age:
Male/Female:
Nationality:
Country:
Native language:
Language(s) spoken at home:

Education

Current studies:
Current year of study:
Institution:
Medium of instruction:
English only
Other language(s) (specify)
Both

==========

Years of English at school:
Years of English at university:
Private tutorials (One-to-one teaching):
Stay in an English-speaking country:
Where? When?
How long? Purpose?

Please read the following statements which refer to the use of 'small words'*(well, you know, I mean, well* etc.) in spoken discourse as well as awareness raising activities used in foreign language classroom. Indicate your opinions by ticking the answer which reflects your views.

***Yes (I agree)* means confirmation, *No (I disagree*) means rejection.**

1. Thanks to the knowledge of the functions of 'small words' I can understand native speakers, conversations better.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

2. I employ 'small words' to make my conversations fluent.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

3. 'Small words' make the speaker sound uneducated.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

4. 'Small words' are only little words in conversation so it's a waste of time to pay attention to them.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

5. I can communicate easily without using ‘small words’.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

6. I think that ‘small words’ are acquired unconsciously so there’s no point in teaching them.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

7. So far I haven’t paid attention to ‘small words’.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

8. I haven’t realized how important it is to use ‘small words’ to make my conversation more polite.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

9. I think that being grammatically correct is more important than being polite.

   a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

10. I haven’t realized ‘small words’ perform important pragmatic functions in conversation.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

11. I still think small words are only fillers, unimportant words that should be avoided.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

12. I think that highlighting ‘small words’ in listening and oral materials is beneficial.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

13. I find cross-linguistic comparisons effective.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

14. Thanks to ‘small words’ I have improved my speaking skills.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

15. I think transcripts of native speaker models were helpful.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

16. Shadowing is an effective technique to raise students’ awareness of ‘small words’.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

17. I find metapragmatic information in the use of small words difficult.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

18. I think corpus-based materials were interesting.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

19. I think I benefited from instruction.

a) Yes Why? …… b) No Why not? ……..
c) Not sure

20. The authentic materials (audio and video materials) were difficult.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

21. Teacher explanations concerning the use of 'small words' were helpful.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

22. Class discussions about functions of 'small words' were useful.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

23. I think teaching materials were suitable.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

24. Role-plays based on native-speaker models were helpful.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

25. Raising awareness of 'small words' in L1 is helpful.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

26. I learned most from …….

a) structural exercises b) teacher explanations c) transcripts d) class discussions

27. Thanks to awareness raising tasks I am more confident in my oral skills.

a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

28. What is the most interesting thing you learned in this class?

……
……

29. What is the least interesting thing you learned in this class?

……
……

30. How would you evaluate the classes

a) very interesting b) interesting c) somewhat interesting d) a little interesting
e) not at all interesting

31. How would you evaluate the course materials

    a) very easy b) easy c) neither easy nor difficult d) difficult e) very difficult

32. How would you improve the lessons?

    ……

33. Which aspects did you have problems understanding?

    ……

34. What other aspects would you like to learn?

    ……

35. I think it's important to raise students' awareness of small words.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

36. I prefer explicit instruction to discovery learning.

    a) Yes b) No c) Not sure

37. What is the value of small words in communication? (dispensable – indispensable, facilitative or a sign of sloppy thinking that should be avoided?.) ……
……

38. I usually use such phrases
a) to soften criticism and sound polite/to signal solidarity with conversational partner
b) to maintain fluency/gain processing time/to fill gaps in conversation
c) for genuine lack of information/for memory loss/for absence of equivalent word
d) to express uncertainty
e) ?……

39. I usually perceive someone who uses small words as
    ……
    ……

40. Please rank (5 = high through 1 = low) the following awareness-raising tasks in terms of their USEFULNESS that you think you had for your learning of English, in terms of INTEREST LEVEL that you had for each activity as well as task DIFFICULTY.

    Cross-linguistic comparisons (compare the use of 'small words' in L1 and L2)
    Identification (identify 'small words' in the transcript and the functions)
    Reformulation (compare students' performance with a native speaker model)
    Reconstruction (recall and insert the missing small words from the listening text)
    Metapragmatic discussion (information about the use of functions of small words)

ACTIVITY USEFULNESS INTEREST DIFFICULTY
Cross-linguistic
comparison _____ _____ _____
Identification _____ _____ _____
Reformulation _____ _____ _____
Reconstruction _____ _____ _____
Metapragmatic
discussion _____ _____ _____
Additional comments
.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND VALUABLE CONTRIBUTION!

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K. 1996. Pragmatics and language teaching: Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together. In *Pragmatics and language learning,* Vol. 7. ed. L. F. Bouton, 21–39. University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign: Division of English as an International Language.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. 2001. Evaluating the empirical evidence. Grounds for instruction in pragmatics? In *Pragmatics in language teaching,* eds. K. R. Rose and G. Kasper, 13–32. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P. and S. Levinson. 1987. *Politeness: Some universals in language use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

CANCODE (The Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English) http://uk.cambridge.org/elt/corpus/cancode.htm.

Channell, J. 1994. *Vague language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cohen, A. D. 1996. Speech acts. In *Sociolinguistics and language teaching*, eds. S. L. McKay and N. H. Hornberger, 383–420. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. 2003. *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. 2008. Teaching pragmatics in the classroom: Instruction of mitigation in Spanish as a Foreign Language. *Hispania* 91–92: 479–494.

Fotos, S. 1993. Consciousness-raising and noticing through focus on form: Grammar task performance versus formal instruction. *Applied Linguistics* 14(4): 385–407.

Fox Tree, J. E. 2007. Folk notions of *um* and *uh*, *you know*, and *like*. *Text & Talk* 27: 297–314.

Hasselgren, A. 2002. Learner corpora and language testing: Smallwords as markers of learner fluency. In *Computer learner corpora, second language acquisition and foreign language teaching,* eds. S. Granger, J. Hung and S. Petch-Tyson, 3–33. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Johnson, L. 1988. Mistake correction. *ELT Journal* 42/2: 89–96.

Kasper, G. 2001. Classroom research in interlanguage pragmatics. In *Pragmatics in language teaching,* eds. K. Rose and G. Kasper, 33–60. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G. and S. Blum-Kulka. 1993. Interlanguage pragmatics: An introduction. In *Interlanguage pragmatics,* eds. G. Kasper and S. Blum-Kulka, 3–17. New York: Oxford University Press.

Kasper, G. and K. R. Rose. 2001. *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G. and K. R. Rose. 2002. *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Michigan: Blackwell.

Lakoff, G. 1972. Hedges: a study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts. In *Papers from the 8th Regional Meeting*, eds. P. M. Peranteau, J. N. Levi and G. C. Phares, 183–228. Chicago, III.: Chicago Linguistics Society.

Lyster, R. 1993. The effect of functional-analytic teaching on aspects of sociolinguistic competence: A study of French immersion classrooms at the grade eight level. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Toronto.

Markkanen, R. and H. Schröder. 1997. Introduction. In *Hedging and discourse: Approaches to the analysis of a pragmatic phenomenon in academic texts*, eds. R. Markkanen and H. Schröder, 1–18. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Martínez-Flor, A., E. Usó and A. Fernández. 2003. *Pragmatic competence and foreign language teaching*. Castellón: Universitat Jaume I.

McLean, T. 2004. Giving students a fighting chance: Pragmatics in the language classroom. *TESL Canada Journal* 21(2): 72–92.

MICASE (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English) www.hti.umich.edu/m/micase.

Nikula, T. 1997. Interlanguage view on hedging. In *Hedging and discourse: Approaches to the analysis of a pragmatic phenomenon in academic texts*, eds. R. Markkanen and H. Schröder, 188–207. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Nugroho, A. 2002. The contradiction of certainty and uncertainty in hedging and its implications to language teaching. *K@ta: A biannual publication on the study of language and literature* Vol.4/No. 1, 17–22. Surabaya: Petra Christian University.

O'Donnell, W. R. and L. Todd. 1991. *Variety in contemporary English*. London: Harper Collins Academic.

Olshtain, E. and A. D. Cohen. 1990. The learning of complex speech act behavior. *TESL Canada Journal* 7: 45–65.

Overstreet, M. and G. Yule. 1999. Fostering L2 pragmatic awareness. *Applied Language Learning* 10: 1–14.

Prince, E. F., J. Fråder and C. Bosk. 1982. On hedging in physician–physician discourse. In *Linguistics and the professions,* ed. R. J. di Pietro, 83–97. Norwood: Ablex.

Schmidt, R. 1990. The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11: 129–158.

Schmidt, R. 1993. Awareness and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 13: 206–226.

Schmidt, R. and S. N. Frota. 1986. Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition,* ed. R. R. Day, 237–362. Rowley, MA: Newbury.

Svartvik, J. 1980. Well in conversation. In *Studies in English linguistics for Randolph Quirk, eds.* S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik, 167–177. London: Longman.

Swain, M. and S. Lapkin. 1995. Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 16: 371–391.

Tateyama, Y. 2001. Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines: Japanese sumimasen. In *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*, eds. K. R. Rose and G. Kasper, 200–222. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thomas, J. 1983. Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics* 4: 91–112.

Willis, D. and J. Willis. 1996. Consciousness-raising activities. http://www.willis-elt.co.uk/documents/7c-r.doc. Accessed 20 January 2011.

Language Awareness in Third or Additional Language Attrition

Teresa Maria Włosowicz

Abstract The purpose of this study has been an investigation of language awareness in two groups of third or additional language (term introduced by de Angelis, *Third or Additional Language Acquisition*, 2007) learners undergoing language attrition. The research questions concerned the students' evaluation of their language attrition in terms of structures, lexical items and language skills, their awareness of cross-linguistic interaction, as well as elements that caused them particular difficulty during the language tasks and the extent to which the problems were caused by language attrition (as evaluated by the students themselves). This chapter is based on two studies, one carried out with nine students of Swedish as L4 at the German Philology department, about 1 year after the end of the 3-year Swedish course, and one carried out with 42 students of Portuguese Philology, investigating their attrition of Portuguese over the summer holidays. In general, the Portuguese philology students performed much better than the Swedish language learners, not only because the period of attrition was shorter, but also because they were highly motivated to learn Portuguese and used more conscious reflection in learning the language. Both groups observed interference into the target language, as well as a decrease in their language proficiency. It can be concluded that, despite considerable language learning experience, third or additional language learners' language awareness cannot be taken for granted, as it is combined with other factors, such as motivation, proficiency in the target language and the learners' language needs.

T. M. Włosowicz (✉)
Silesian School of Economics and Languages "Gallus", Katowice, Poland
e-mail: teresamaria@poczta.onet.pl

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_10,

1 Introduction

By and large, language attrition can affect different languages (L1, L2, L3, etc.) and occur in various contexts, for a variety of reasons. However, the attrition of foreign languages in the university context constitutes a special case because the context is highly formal, including a large amount of explicit knowledge, so the students can be supposed to have a considerable level of language awareness as compared to, for example, immigrants undergoing L1 attrition. However, unlike the native language, whose acquisition is generally successful, foreign languages are often imperfectly learned, especially if they are not the learners' dominant foreign languages, such as philology students' majors. For this reason, it may be assumed that in philology students' third or additional language attrition, there is a complex and subtle interplay between the natural processes of attrition, due to both forgetting and cross-linguistic interaction (Herdina and Jessner 2002), and the learners' language maintenance strategies, also based on their language awareness.

The purpose of the present chapter is an analysis of language awareness in third or additional language attrition in two groups of philology students, in two different contexts. The first group includes Polish (L1) students of German philology, 1 year after the end of a 3-year Swedish (L4) course, which they studied after German (L2) and English (L3). By contrast, the other group are Polish (L1) students of Portuguese philology, tested for the attrition of Portuguese over the summer holidays. On the one hand, their language combinations are more varied, as Portuguese can be their L3, L4 or even L5, but on the other hand, they focus on this language in their studies, which may make them more aware of both meaning and form.

The term 'third or additional language attrition', like 'third or additional language acquisition' (De Angelis 2007, p. 11) is thus used here in order to indicate that the languages under discussion are L3 and beyond L3, and that the subjects are truly multilingual, possessing considerably varied language combinations. However, it must be remembered, as Van Gelderen et al. (2003, p. 23) have pointed out, '[p]opulations of L3-learners will often be more heterogeneous than experimental design demands'. Still, the more languages are involved, the more heterogeneous the populations can be assumed to be.

Given the differences between the groups, it is possible that the attrition processes operate differently in both groups as well as in different subjects. However, the focus of the chapter is not on the degree of attrition itself, but on the students' language awareness, in particular, on their awareness of attrition. The approach adopted here is based on self-evaluation (De Bot and Hulsen 2002, p. 264), however, in order to test the students' knowledge as well as to make them aware of the areas and degrees of attrition, the questionnaire was preceded by a few language tasks focusing on grammar and vocabulary.

The research questions were as follows: First, how do the students evaluate their language attrition, in particular, are they aware of the structures, lexical items and language skills undergoing attrition? Second, to what extent are they aware of

cross-linguistic interaction, both in terms of interference between the languages and in terms of strategic transfer (based on their awareness of similarities between the languages)? Third, what caused them particular difficulty during the language tasks and to what extent was it caused by language attrition (as evaluated by the students themselves)?

Even though this focus on self-evaluation makes the results of the study predominantly subjective, the correctness of the subjects' self-evaluation can also be regarded as a reflection of their language awareness. Hence, for example, if a student had problems with particular structures during the language task (as reflected by both errors and introspection), and if he or she was able to define the structures undergoing attrition, his or her self-evaluation could be classified as correct.

Finally, what was also taken into account in the case of the Swedish L4 group was the use of formulaic language, or ready-made structures stored in episodic memory, as well as their awareness of it.

2 Language Awareness

Undoubtedly, learning a foreign language constitutes a cognitively demanding task which requires not only memorization, but also analytical skills. Certainly, beginners may use ready-made 'chunks' of formulaic language, but such unanalysed knowledge cannot be part of linguistic competence. In fact, Clark (1974; as quoted in Sharwood-Smith 1986, p. 12) calls the use of such chunks 'performing-without-competence'. Therefore, attaining competence in the target language must be assumed to require awareness of both meaning and form, especially in formal contexts, where there is less naturalistic input and more reliance on consciously learned rules.

James (1996, p. 140) defines language awareness as 'the possession of metacognitions about language in general, some bit of language, or a particular language over which one already has skilled control and a coherent set of intuitions'. Other researchers describe it as 'implicit knowledge that has become explicit' (Levelt et al. 1978, p. 5; James 1996, p. 140), as well as 'focusing attention on something that one knows' (Read 1978, p. 73; as quoted in James 1996, p. 140). In other words, in order to possess language awareness, one must have some knowledge of the target language and develop some metacognition of language rules and skills. As Poldauf (1995, p. 5; as quoted in James 1996, p. 140; James's emphasis) remarks, '[n]o doubt a learner is only aware of those forms and those types of [sic] language which he actually wields'.

Definitely, in the case of language attrition, one must have some knowledge of the target language, or else there would be nothing to attrite. However, in order to counterbalance attrition, not only does one have to be aware of what one actually knows, but one should also be able to notice areas of increasing difficulty and structures over which one is losing control. One should thus pay attention to one's target language production as well as to input, if there is any input available.

Still, the terms ‘awareness’ and ‘consciousness’, though closely related, should not be confused (James 1996). As James (1996, pp. 140–141) explains, ‘language awareness’ refers to the metacognition of competent speakers, both native and non-native, making tacit knowledge explicit, yet without necessarily resorting to linguistic theory, whereas ‘consciousness’ applies to learners’ becoming conscious of what they do not know (Snow 1976, p. 154; as cited in James 1996, p. 141). In other words, as James (1996, p. 141; his emphasis) puts it, consciousness raising is ‘an activity that develops the ability to locate and identify the *discrepancy* between one’s present state of knowledge and a goal state of knowledge’, showing the learner what he or she still needs to learn.

It can thus be concluded that awareness involves noticing relationships within the knowledge one already possesses as well as a certain degree of declarative knowledge which allows one, for example, to formulate, even informally, some rules on the basis of input. It might also be supposed that awareness may contribute to consciousness raising: once a learner realises what he or she already knows, he or she may become more conscious of what he or she still needs to learn.

However, in the case of foreign language learning, one cannot exclude the native language, which remains active and participates in processing (Green 1986), whereas in third or additional language acquisition there can be even more active languages, depending on the learner’s language biography and recent activity. Consequently, one should be aware of what one knows in L1, L2 as well as in further languages, in order to discriminate, for example, between transferable and non-transferable structures (Kellerman 1987). For this reason, James (1996, p. 139; his emphasis) points out the necessity of taking into account the ‘knowledge of the *relationships* holding between one’s two languages’. He distinguishes between using this knowledge at the procedural level of performance, at the cognitive level of intuition (which he calls ‘Cross-linguistic Intuition’, James 1996, p. 139), and at the explicit, declarative level of metacognition, to which James (1996, p. 139) refers as ‘Cross-linguistic Awareness’.

Therefore, language awareness is connected with metalinguistic reflection, which is defined as ‘acts of reflection about the language that are under conscious control including the learner’s intentional planning of his/her linguistic processing’ (Gombert 1996, p. 41; as quoted in Simard and Wong 2004, p. 98). In the example quoted by Simard (2002; as quoted in Simard and Wong 2004, p. 98), a French learner of English commented on the English word order that the words were sometimes ‘reversed’, referring to the fact that in English, unlike in French, adjectives precede nouns. This shows that language awareness does not require high proficiency in the target language, though some proficiency in necessary.

Undoubtedly, language awareness can boost the learning process. In fact, focus on meaning alone, without paying attention to form, may be insufficient for achieving accuracy (Simard and Wong 2004, p. 98). For example, in immersion studies, despite a large amount of comprehensible input, some features of learner language diverge from the target norm (Harley 1993; as quoted in Simard and Wong 2004, p. 98).

Given the need for metalinguistic reflection and intentional planning, language awareness can be regarded as related to learner autonomy, or 'the ability to take charge of one's own learning' (Holec 1981, p. 3; as quoted in Benson 2001, p. 48), which involves responsibility for setting learning objectives, including the choice of content, methods and techniques, monitoring the learning process and evaluating one's progress (Holec 1981, in Benson 2001, p. 48). In fact, autonomous learners show a considerable level of language awareness, as their self-evaluation is relatively objective. As Dam and Legenhausen (1999; as quoted in Dam and Legenhausen 2010, p. 125) have shown, 'learners' self-evaluations in 'testable' areas are reliable (as measured against teacher marks) and valid'.

Moreover, there is evidence that third or additional language learners have a higher level of language awareness than L2 learners (Jessner 1999), due to greater language learning experience and strategies specific to foreign language learning (Hufeisen 2000). For this reason, multilingual learners might be assumed to analyse not only their learning and production, but also their attrition, and to use strategies of counterbalancing it.

However, given the great complexity of multilingual systems and the diversity of interlingual connections, it can be very difficult to prevent interference and negative transfer. In fact, as De Angelis (2005, p. 14) has shown, the confusion of words which are similar in two languages can result in a 'system shift', that is, using a word belonging to a non-target language without even noticing it. This phenomenon is actually supported by the organisation of the multilingual mental lexicon, where words of further languages (L3, L4, etc.) are attached to their equivalents in the language perceived as closest (not necessarily L1, Herwig 2001; Singleton 2002) and the links between cognates are often stronger than those between formally dissimilar words of the same language, such as synonyms (Müller-Lancé 2003).

Therefore, keeping the languages apart requires a certain amount of effort. Still, as mental resources are limited, languages (and, within languages, words, structures, etc.) which are not used are deactivated and become more vulnerable to attrition. In fact, the more languages the multilingual system contains, the more effort must be made to maintain the competence that has already been attained in each language (Herdina and Jessner 2002).

3 Language Attrition

Given the dynamic nature of multilingual systems, language competence is gradually restructured by the influence of other languages and a language which is not used becomes subject to attrition (Herdina and Jessner 2002). In fact, it is so inevitable that, as Sharwood-Smith (1989, p. 188) postulates, 'loss should be regarded as an integral part of language acquisition studies as a whole'. Therefore, the general language effort (GLE), or the whole effort put in the learning and use of a language, is the sum of the language acquisition effort (LAE) and the language maintenance effort (LME) (Herdina and Jessner 2002, p. 131):

$$\text{GLE} \cong \text{LAE} + \text{LME}$$

According to Herdina and Jessner (2002, p. 106), the LME depends on two factors, the language use factor, related to the environment and opportunities for language use, and the language awareness factor, which is understood as 'conscious manipulation of and reflection on (the systematicity of) a language' (Herdina and Jessner 2002, p. 106). In other words, maintaining one's competence in a language requires not only its use, but also conscious reflection and, arguably, the ability to spot incipient attrition and counterbalance it by learning and practice.

However, this requires the involvement of such extralinguistic factors as motivation. In fact, the attrition process can be influenced (positively or negatively) by affective, social and linguistic factors. According to Gardner et al. (1985), social factors that affect attrition include motivation and attitudes towards the target language and the corresponding language community. Still, one might wonder why motivation is regarded by them as a social and not an affective factor. However, in immersion contexts the social dimension of motivation, especially integrative motivation, may be more important than in school or university contexts. Moreover, social and affective factors in language attrition actually seem closely intertwined. For example, one of the causes of attrition, linguistic repression/suppression (Ecke 2004, pp. 326–327), is related to the non-use of a language for social-psychological reasons, as in the case of orphan children adopted by foreign families. Such children refuse to use their L1 in order to integrate into the L2 culture more easily, as well as to forget about traumatic experiences connected with the L1 (Ecke 2004, p. 327).

On the other hand, the linguistic factors include:

- recency (recently acquired structures are more subject to attrition), cf. the 'last learned—first forgotten' hypothesis (Schöpper-Grabe 1998; as quoted in Riemer 2005, pp. 217–218),
- markedness (marked structures are more subject to attrition),
- cognitive complexity (cognitively complex items and structures are more subject to attrition),
- frequency (low-frequency and uncommon items are more subject to attrition),
- regularity (attrition often involves regularisation)
- information load (low-information load items are more subject to attrition), etc.

(Moorcroft and Gardner 1987; Preston 1982; as cited in Sharwood-Smith 1989, p. 191; Seliger and Vago 1991).

Further factors, enumerated by Sharwood-Smith (1989, pp. 194–198), are: typological proximity (which can result in restructuring one language under the influence of the other), structural similarity, crosslinguistic support, iconicity (also called 'semantic transparency'), familiarity, coding efficiency, comprehensibility, solidarity, input sensitivity, associative triggering, semantic enrichment and ludic potential. Another cause of attrition, which involves language restructuring, is interference (Ecke 2004, p. 336). However, as Ecke (2004, p. 337) remarks, it is

still open to debate whether similar structures are more subject to interference or more resistant to loss.

Attrition is also influenced by the quality and depth of processing of linguistic items and structures, which is referred to as the 'best learned—last forgotten' hypothesis (Schöpper-Grabe 1998; as quoted in Riemer 2005, p. 218).

Still, it must be remembered that attrition is not a one-off event, but a gradual process. At the beginning, the forgetting process is relatively fast, but soon the forgetting curve becomes flattened (the so-called plateau-curve), at which stage attrition is slower. There is some knowledge that can remain relatively intact for many years, which Bahrick (1984) calls the 'permastore'. However, in order to protect one's knowledge from attrition, one should reach a certain critical threshold (Neisser 1984; as cited in Riemer 2005, p. 218). Moreover, as Weltens and Grendel (1993, p. 136) remark, nothing disappears from long-term memory, although some information may become inaccessible. Still, receptive skills are affected by attrition to a lesser degree than productive skills (Ecke 2004, p. 334). However, apart from the loss or a slowdown of access to linguistic knowledge, periods of attrition can also involve some cognitive maturation called 'residual learning' (Riemer 2005, p. 218).

Still, despite its inevitable presence in bilingual and multilingual systems, language attrition has been relatively little researched. According to Herdina and Jessner (2002, p. 96), it is very difficult to research for the following reasons:

- language attrition is gradual and less spectacular than abrupt language loss;
- speakers tend to counterbalance the effects of attrition by applying compensatory strategies;
- at least at an early stage, language attrition takes the form of a scatter of performance, but '[a]s long as there is no explicit performance measure, this increased scatter will go unnoticed' (Herdina and Jessner 2002, p. 96).

In summary, language attrition constitutes a highly complex process whose mechanisms have not been fully clarified yet. It is therefore possible that it is also largely idiosyncratic, dependent on the context of language learning and use, as well as on the subjects' attitudes and language maintenance strategies.

4 The Studies

4.1 Study 1: Language Awareness in the Attrition of Swedish as L4

Study 1 was carried out with 9 students of German philology at the University of Silesia, at the German Philology Department in Sosnowiec, 1 year after the end of a 3-year Swedish course. Their language combination was the following: L1—Polish, L2—German, L3—English and L4—Swedish.

The study consisted of a set of three language tasks (1—grammar, 2—cued translation from Polish into Swedish, 3—lexical associations) and a questionnaire concerning the subjects' motivation for studying Swedish during the course and 1 year later, their evaluation of their Swedish language competence, their language maintenance strategies as well as the tasks they had just performed (what had caused them particular difficulty, whether they had observed any interference and, if so, from what languages).

The students' motivation for studying Swedish was generally low: on a 5-point Likert scale (1—very low, 5—very high), the mean level of motivation during the Swedish course had been 2.55, while at the time of the study it was only 1.22.

Their mean level of competence in Swedish, as shown by their self-evaluation, was 1.55 on a 5-point Likert scale (1—very poor, 5—very good).

In general, their performance on the language tasks was poor, characterised be a number of errors and gaps (see Wlosowicz 2011). As for the lexical associations, they were often 'clang associations' (Meara 1978), triggered by phonetic and/or orthographic similarity, for example, stjärna (star)—sarna ('roe deer' in Polish), 'körsbär' (cherry)—niedźwiedź ('bear' in Polish, probably influenced by the word 'Bär' in German).

Given their limited motivation to maintain their Swedish, few of the subjects admitted using language maintenance strategies: two subjects ticked watching Swedish videos on You Tube, whereas 'returning to the textbook', 'reading Swedish Internet pages', 'correspondence with a Swedish pen friend' and 'returning to the notes from the course' were marked by one subject each.

As for the interference observed during the study, 6 subjects mentioned interference from German into Swedish, one mentioned interference from Polish and one intralingual interference between Swedish words and structures.

To the question of what had caused them particular difficulty, three subjects mentioned translation due to a lack of vocabulary, while others indicated vocabulary, grammar, most of the task components, or even everything, due to a limited knowledge of Swedish, lack of contact and forgetting. Only one person specified that she had had problems with the nouns, especially with the formation of plural forms, which indicates a higher level of language awareness, including focus on formal features.

By contrast, the tasks regarded as easiest were: the sentence involving telling the time (one person), associations (there was more freedom as well as no particular target answer) and translation (one person—probably because it was cued). Finally, as for the use of ready-made forms, only one person mentioned telling the time and 'some verbs', while all others did not use them and two wrote explicitly that they did not remember them.

In fact, formulaic language was not actually observed, except to some extent in telling the time (as one subject commented, such ready-made phrases were easy to remember), even though those 'formulaic' phrases actually contained traces of interference from German, English and Polish, as well as intralingual interference, for example: 'Det är fem till half föra', instead of 'Den är fem i halv fyra' ('It is twenty-five past three', literally: 'It is five to half past three'). Here, the neuter

form 'det' comes from German (es) or English (it), 'till' (till, until) is probably a literal translation of 'do' in Polish, the spelling of 'half' is English, whereas 'föra' is a misspelled version of 'fyra' in Swedish.

4.2 Study 2: Language Awareness in the Attrition of Portuguese

Study 2 was carried out with 42 students of the second year of Portuguese philology at the Jagiellonian University in Cracow and at the Maria Curie-Sklodowska University in Lublin, in late October and early November 2011 (testing language attrition over the summer holidays). Their language combinations were more varied, but all the subjects' L1 was Polish and their linguistic repertoires usually included English and Spanish. Other languages enumerated by the subjects included Russian, French, Italian, German, Romanian, Latin and Swedish.

The study consisted of four language tasks (1—cued translation from Polish into Portuguese, 2—gap-filling, 3—a multiple-choice lexical test, 4—a dialogue in Portuguese with the researcher), followed by a questionnaire.

As students of Portuguese philology, they can be assumed to be considerably motivated. In general, they evaluated Portuguese as a language of medium difficulty (the mean was 3.24 on a 5-point Likert scale; 1—very easy, 5–very difficult).

As for the students' evaluation of the difficulty of the particular tasks in the study, the mean level of difficulty was 3.8 in the translation task, 3.41 for gap-filling, 2.575 for the multiple-choice test and 3.3 for the dialogues. However, five subjects did not evaluate the difficulty of the dialogues and it can be assumed that they found them too difficult. In fact, one subject remarked that the oral dialogue had caused her particular difficulty because she had last made a longer speech in Portuguese during the exam in June.

Furthermore, the subjects were expected to evaluate the extent to which their speaking fluency had decreased over the holidays and the mean result was 2.9 on a 5-point Likert scale (1—very little, 5—a lot). Moreover, they were expected to mark the components of their knowledge of Portuguese to which they had partially lost access. Only two subjects wrote they had not lost any of their knowledge, while for the rest the areas most subject to attrition were: grammar (33 subjects), speaking fluency (31), vocabulary (30), writing skills (11), pronunciation (9) and listening comprehension (9). One subject wrote: 'all of these, but to different degrees' (translation mine). The skill not marked by any subject as undergoing attrition was reading comprehension, probably because receptive skills deteriorate more slowly (especially if, like reading, they do not require rapid reactions to input), and perhaps also because of some positive transfer, or bootstrapping by Spanish cognates (cf. the intercomprehension approach, e.g. Klein 1999; Müller-Lancé 2003).

As for interference, it mostly came from Spanish (usually lexical interference, e.g. quando–cuando, fazer–hacer), but also from French (both lexical and grammatical) and English.

Finally, unlike the Swedish L4 group, they were more precise in indicating what they had forgotten over the holidays. Not only was the 'incubation period' (Riemer 2005) shorter, but this can also be attributed to higher language awareness. Among the forms they had forgotten, they enumerated: past tense forms, both pretérito perfeito (the perfective past form) and imperfeito (the imperfective past form), conjuntivo (the subjunctive), the tenses, conditional sentences, contracted forms in speech, vocabulary (some of them mentioned particular words), conditional sentences, etc. Some of them admitted forgetting the future tense and the subjunctive because they had only learned them before the holidays. One subject remarked: 'All that I haven't written, I forgot over the holidays' (translation mine).

5 Conclusions

In general, both groups noticed that their proficiency had decreased and that structures that had undergone attrition had caused them difficulty. However, the Portuguese philology group performed better than the (former) Swedish language students, not only linguistically, but also in terms of language awareness. In other words, they were better at evaluating the levels of difficulty and indicating what they had forgotten, including particular grammatical structures. Not only was the attrition period shorter, but they are also highly motivated to study Portuguese and they apply more conscious reflection to the study of that language, so both that language use factor and the language maintenance factor were involved.

On the other hand, the Swedish L4 group gave more general answers, such as 'vocabulary', 'grammar' or 'translation'. This might be attributed to lower language awareness, as well as to limited competence in Swedish, which prevented them from reflecting metalinguistically on particular structures. This begs the question of whether there is a relationship between the level of competence in a particular language and metalinguistic awareness. On the one hand, as German philology students, they might be assumed to have had a relatively high level of language awareness, also due to specialised classes concerning the German language (practical grammar, descriptive grammar, etc.). On the other hand, it is possible that language awareness is not necessarily transferable and a high level of language awareness in German does not presuppose a high level of it in Swedish.

Both groups observed interference from the language perceived as closest to the target language (German in the case of Swedish and Spanish in the case of Portuguese), which supports Sharwood-Smith's (1989, p. 195) observation that the perceived language distance influences language attrition processes. In fact, attrition may actually involve a system shift and the blurring of boundaries between languages. However, while the German philology students tended to leave gaps or to use transfer from German, the Portuguese philology group was

more careful: they may have used transfer from Spanish, Italian and English, but some of them admitted that transfer could be risky.

Still, as the German philology students' errors indicate, they may not have been aware of part of the interference that actually took place. Although they used transfer from German as a conscious strategy, some interference from, for example, English (like the English spelling of 'half') was rather a system shift. Moreover, it is possible that, if a multilingual learner has to use a language undergoing attrition, he or she mobilizes all his or her linguistic resources, lowering the level of control and consulting the whole multilingual lexicon and perhaps also the grammars of all the languages. However, this hypothesis requires further research.

The Portuguese philology students' indication that they had forgotten the structures they had learned just before the holidays confirms the claim that recently acquired and not very deeply processed structures are particularly prone to attrition ('last learned—first forgotten', Schöpper-Grabe 1998; as quoted in Riemer 2005, pp. 217–218).

In conclusion, third or additional language learners' language awareness cannot be taken for granted, as it is combined with other factors, such as motivation, proficiency in the target language and the learners' language needs (obviously, students choosing a particular philology regard that language as useful, whereas Swedish was for most of the German philology students an additional language imposed by the university). Therefore, learners who are more motivated and, at the same time, more autonomous may be assumed to analyse their performance and develop greater language awareness, which, in turn, may help them to use appropriate language maintenance strategies and practice problematic structures and items and, in turn, counteract language attrition.

However, further research is needed, especially with regard to the relationship between linguistic competence and language awareness as well as the transferability of language awareness.

References

Bahrick, H. 1984. Fifty years of second language attrition: Implications for programmatic research. *The Modern Language Journal* 68(2): 105–118.

Benson, P. 2001. *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Clark, R. 1974. Performing without competence. *Journal of Child Language* 1: 1–10.

Dam, L. and L. Legenhausen. 1999. Language acquisition in an autonomous learning environment: External and self-assessment compared. In *Learner autonomy in language learning: Defining the field and effecting change*, eds. D. Crabbe and S. Cotterall, 89–98. Frankfurt am Main: Lang.

Dam, L. and L. Legenhausen. 2010. Learners reflecting on learning: Evaluation versus testing in autonomous language learning. In *Testing the untestable in language education,* eds. A. Paran and L. Sercu, 120–139. Bristol/Buffalo/Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

De Angelis, G. 2005. Multilingualism and non-native lexical transfer: An identification problem. *International Journal of Multilingualism* 2(1): 1–25.

De Angelis, G. 2007. *Third or additional language acquistion*. Clevedon/Buffalo/Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

De Bot, K. and M. Hulsen. 2002. Language attrition: tests, self-assessments and perceptions. In *Portraits of the L2 user*, ed. V. Cook, 253–274. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Ecke, P. 2004. Language attrition and theories of forgetting: A cross-disciplinary review. *International Journal of Bilingualism* 8(3): 321–354.

Gardner, R. C., R. N. Lalonde, and J. MacPherson. 1985. Social factors in second language attrition. *Language Learning* 35: 519–540.

Gombert, J. E. 1996. Activités métalinguistiques et acquisition d'une langue [Metalinguistic activities and the acquisition of a language]. *AILE* 8: 41–55.

Green, D. W. 1986. Control, activation and resource. *Brain and Language* 27: 210–223.

Harley, B. 1993. Instructional strategies and SLA in early French immersion. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 15: 245–259.

Herdina, P. and U. Jessner 2002. *A dynamic model of multilingualism. Perspectives of change in psycholinguistics*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Herwig, A. 2001. Plurilingual lexical organisation: Evidence from lexical processing in L1-L2-L3-L4 translation. In *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition: Psycholinguistic perspectives*, eds. J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen and U. Jessner, 115–137. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.

Holec, H. 1981. *Autonomy in foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Hufeisen, B. 2000. A European perspective—tertiary languages with a focus on German as L3. In *Handbook of undergraduate second language education: English as a second language, bilingual and foreign language instruction for a multilingual world*, ed. J.W. Rosenthal, 209–229. Mahwah, N.J.: Erlbaum.

James, C. 1996. A cross-linguistic approach to language awareness. *Language Awareness* 5(3, 4): 138–148.

Jessner, U. 1999. Metalinguistic awareness in multilinguals: Cognitive aspects of third language learning. *Language Awareness* 8(3/4): 201–209.

Kellerman, E. 1987. *Aspects of transferability in second language acquisition*. Nijmegen: Katholieke Universiteit Nijmegen.

Klein, H. G. 1999. Interkomprehension in romanischen Sprachen [Intercomprehension between the Romance languages]. *Grenzgänge* 6: 17–29.

Levelt, W. J. M., A. Sinclair and R. J. Jarvella. 1978. Causes and functions of language awareness in language acquisition. In *The child's conception of language*, eds. A. Sinclair, R. J. Jarvella and W. J. M. Levelt, 1–14. Berlin and New York: Springer Verlag.

Meara, P. 1978. Learners' word associations in French. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* 3(2): 192–211.

Moorcroft, R. and R. C. Gardner. 1987. Linguistic factors in second language loss. *Language Learning* 37(3): 327–340.

Müller-Lancé, J. 2003. *Der Wortschatz romanischer Sprachen im Tertiärsprachenerwerb. Lernerstrategien am Beispiel des Spanischen, Italienischen und Katalanischen*. [The vocabulary of the Romance languages in third language acquisition. Learning strategies as exemplified by Spanish, Italian and Catalan]. Tübingen: Stauffenburg Verlag.

Neisser, U. 1984. Interpreting Harry Bahrick's discovery: what confirms immunity against forgetting. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* 113: 32–35.

Poldauf, I. 1995. Language awareness. *Language Awareness* 4(1): 3–14.

Preston, D. 1982. How to lose a language. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* 6(2): 64–87.

Read, C. 1978. Children's awareness of language with emphasis on sound systems. In *The child's conception of language*, eds. A. Sinclair, R. J. Jarvella and W. J. M. Levelt, 65–82. Berlin and New York: Springer Verlag.

Riemer, C. 2005. Erwerb und Verlust von Fremdsprachen. Pilotstudien zum Verlust der L2 Französisch [Foreign language learning and loss. Pilot studies on the loss of French as L2]. *Zeitschrift für Fremdsprachenforschung* 16(2): 217–233.

Schöpper-Grabe, S. 1998. 'Use it or lose it?'—Zum Phänomen der Foreign Language Attrition ['Use it or lose it?'—On the phenomenon of foreign language attrition]. *Zeitschrift für Fremdsprachenforschung* 9: 231–263.

Seliger, H. W. and R. M. Vago 1991. The study of first language attrition: an overview. In *First language attrition: Structural and theoretical perspectives*, eds. H. W. Seliger and R. M. Vago 3–15. Cambridge/New York/Port Chester/Melbourne/Sydney: Cambridge University Press.

Sharwood Smith, M. 1986. The Competence/Control Model, crosslinguistic influence and the creation of new grammars. In *Crosslinguistic influence in second language acquisition*, eds. E. Kellerman, and M. Sharwood-Smith, 10–22. Oxford: Pergamon.

Sharwood Smith, M. A. 1989. Crosslinguitic influence in language loss. In *Bilingualism across the lifespan: Aspects of acquisition, maturity and loss*, eds. K. Hyltenstam and L. K. Obler, 185–201. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Simard, D. 2002. Metalinguistic reflection as a way of promoting form-meaning connections in the ESL classroom. Paper presented at the Form-Meaning Connections in Second Language Acquisition Conference, Chicago.

Simard, D. and W. Wong. 2004. Language awareness and its multiple possibilities for the L2 classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* 37(1): 96–110.

Singleton, D. 2002. Cross-linguistic interactions in the multilingual lexicon. Paper presented at The Second International Conference on Third Language Acquisition and Trilingualism, Leeuwarden, Fryske Akademy, 13–15 September 2001 (CD-ROM publication).

Snow, C. 1976 Semantic primacy in first and second language acquisition. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin Utrecht* 1(2–3): 137–161.

Van Gelderen, A., R. Schoonen, R., K. de Glopper, J. Hulstijn, P. Snellings, A. Simis and M. Stevenson. 2003. Roles of linguistic knowledge, metacognitive knowledge and processing speed in L3, L2 and L1 reading comprehension. A structural equation modeling approach. *International Journal of Bilingualism* 7(1): 7–25.

Weltens, B. and M. Grendel. 1993. Attrition of vocabulary knowledge. In *The bilingual lexicon,* eds. R. Schreuder and B. Weltens, 135–156. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Wlosowicz, T. M. 2011. Der Sprachverfall am Beispiel des Schwedischen als L4 polnischer Germanistikstudenten [Language attrition as exemplified by Swedish as Polish German Philology students' L4]. In *Germanistische Linguistik im interdisziplinären Gefüge II*, eds. I. Bartoszewicz, J. Szczęk and A. Tworek, 137–144. Wrocław/ Dresden: Neisse Verlag.

Gauging Advanced Learners' Language Awareness: Some Remarks on the Perceptual Salience of Formulaic Sequences

Ewa Guz

Abstract One of the main difficulties advanced L2 learners face when mastering formulaic aspects of language is the varied degree of psychological salience displayed by different types of formulaic sequences. The purpose of this chapter is to investigate advanced learners' perception and recognition of formulaic sequences, and more specifically their ability to notice them in naturally occurring language. The 112 participants were required to translate a text from L2 (English) to L1 (Polish) and highlight groups of two or more words which they felt should be treated as one complete unit rather than a sequence of individual, independent words. The quantitative and qualitative aspects of the sequences identified by learners were then examined in an attempt to establish patterns in the learners' perception of formulaic language. One of the major findings of the study was that the participants failed to recognize over half of the well-established formulaic sequences in the texts.

1 Introduction

The use and acquisition of formulaic language by L2 advanced learners is one of the major topics in the field of second language acquisition. For the advanced language learner formulaic language constitutes 'the final difficult hurdle' in his efforts to attain fluent target language performance (Wray and Fitzpatrick 2008b, p. 124). Research into the use and production of formulaic language in proficient L2 learners (e.g. DeCock 2000; Durrant and Schmitt 2009; Erman 2009; Forsberg and Fant 2010; Granger 1998; Granger and Meunier 2008; Howarth 1996; Lorenz 1999; Nesselhauf 2005; Osborne 2008; Siyanova and Schmitt 2008) has shown that the

E. Guz (✉)
John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin, Lublin, Poland
e-mail: ewasik@o2.pl

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_11,

phraseological aspects of language constitute a major area of difficulty in L2 learning. The crux of the problem is that formulaic language represents 'the flip side to creativity' in that it does not afford the language learner with much freedom of lexical choice (Corrigan and Moravcsik 2009a, b, p. xv). Most of the available research studies in this area have focused largely on the differences in native and non-native use and production of formulaic sequences. In fact, the majority of these studies report a heavy divergence from native standards in terms of the quantity, quality and distribution of formulaic language in L2 output. Extensive evidence has been provided to support the claim that the ability to use formulaic language appears to lag behind other aspects of the advanced learner's overall L2 competence.

Considering the focus of this chapter, two aspects of the use of formulaic language by advanced L2 learners appear particularly relevant. Firstly, we need to address the issue of the relationship between high L2 proficiency and the use of formulaic sequences, and, secondly, the perception and recognition of formulaic sequences by highly proficient learners. There follows a brief overview of the available research studies concerning these two dimensions of the advanced learner's formulaic competence.

2 Formulaic Sequences and the Advanced Learner

The idea that formulaic language is the key to success in native-like performance was put forward three decades ago by Pawley and Syder (1983). However, until relatively recently the association between high L2 competence and the use of formulaic language has not been investigated very thoroughly. Recent studies of both oral and written learner language indicate that the use of some types of formulaic sequences (such as idioms, collocations, phrasal verbs, formulaic discourse markers and personal stance markers) is positively correlated with high or higher L2 proficiency. One such study is Bonk (2001), which originates from the field of language assessment and aims at developing a valid test for measuring learner collocational proficiency. Bonk (2001) provides evidence that high collocational competence is positively correlated with other markers of high overall L2 proficiency such as high Test Of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores or positive teacher ratings. Additionally, it is demonstrated that the collocational competence test may be considered a fairly reliable indicator of the learner's general L2 proficiency. Evidence for a similar correlation can be found in Hawkey and Barker's (2004) investigation of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) writing at different levels of proficiency. Hawkey and Barker (2004) indicate a much higher frequency of idioms and collocations in the compositions which received higher scores from the raters. Likewise, Read and Nation's (2006) study of formulaic language in the transcripts of International English Language Testing Service (IELTS) oral examinations at different proficiency levels shows that the samples of output which were rated higher were characterized by a more extensive use of idiomatic language than speech which

received lower ratings. In another similar study targeting IELTS written examinations, Kennedy and Thorp (2007) compared the distribution of idioms and collocations in the compositions rated at different levels of proficiency and noted the presence of more formulaic sequences in the higher-rated essays. Similar observations were also made by Ohlrogge (2009), who observed a significant association between the use of idiomatic language and higher L2 proficiency. In his investigation of learner writing at the intermediate level, Ohlrogge (2009) reported a higher distribution of idioms, collocations, phrasal verbs and personal stance markers in the compositions of higher-scoring writers.

All the above studies suggest that there is a significant positive correlation between overall high language proficiency and the use of formulaic language. These findings are significant because they clearly indicate that the use of formulaic language is a feature which allows us to discriminate between students of lower and higher L2 proficiency. Paradoxically, however, the ability to use formulaic language appears to be precisely the same feature which makes it possible to discriminate between highly proficient L2 users and native speakers as the mastery of formulaic sequences appears to be a major stumbling block for L2 learners.

3 Perception and Recognition of Formulaic Sequences

Although much research has been carried out into the use of formulaic sequences in advanced learner writing and speech, there exist very few studies to date which focus specifically on the learners' recognition and/or perception of formulaic language. In the available studies, the perception of formulaic sequences by L2 learners is typically viewed in juxtaposition to production and approached from the point of view of the level of difficulty involved in performing receptive and/or productive tasks targeting formulaic language. Overall, research suggests that receptive tasks, which do not require the participants to produce a formulaic sequence, are regarded as easier. It is the actual production of target language formulas that poses a considerable degree of difficulty even for highly proficient learners. This is well illustrated by a recent study carried out by Bardovi-Harlig (2008). She set out to investigate the reasons behind the relatively low use of pragmatic formulas by proficient L2 users focusing on the differences between the receptive and productive aspects of the participants' command of such expressions. Her results showed that the actual production of pragmatic formulas posed a bigger challenge for learners as they scored much higher on recognition than discourse completion tasks. Additionally, Bardovi-Harlig observed that reception is a necessary (but not sufficient) condition for production. However, the low use of conventional expressions can also be explained in terms of other factors, such as lack of familiarity with some expressions, overuse of familiar expressions, level of development, and socio-pragmatic knowledge. In a subsequent study Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011), the authors also relied on both production and recognition-based measures to investigate a number of factors which possibly contribute to higher use of L2 conventional

expressions. Further evidence for the high degree of difficulty involved in the production of formulaic language was reported by Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam (2009), who used cloze tests targeting two types of formulaic sequences—idioms and proverbs—as an instrument for discriminating between native speakers of L1 English and near-native Swedish users of English. Their results indicate that the near-native participants experienced considerable difficulty carrying out the formulaic language-based cloze test—none of them managed to attain a native-like level of performance in this area. Other, earlier studies focusing on advanced learners' collocational competence also seem to substantiate the claim that recognition of collocations is easier than production. Biskup (1992) reports that perception-based tasks targeting collocations that were administered in her earlier study posed no perceptible difficulty to learners and, generally, resulted in very high scores. However, the tasks involving the production of target language collocations (the participants were required to provide translation equivalents of a set of L1 lexical collocations) proved a serious challenge for most learners as their overall scores in this task were quite low. Biskup (1992, p. 87) explains the discrepancy in receptive versus productive task scores in the following way:

> A non-native speaker is not very likely to predict the co-occurrence of lexical items that are compatible in terms of their features. In addition, when encountering a new collocation, a learner does not make a conscious effort to understand or memorise it as it poses no specific perception problem to him or her. The collocation often passes unnoticed because it does not require the learner to apply different mental operations consciously, and no trace or a weak trace only will be left in the learner's memory for later recall.

Granger (1998) arrives at similar conclusions concerning the learner's ability to recognize L2 collocations using a slightly different methodology. She reports the results of an elicitation task that was carried out on a group of native and non-native informants in which they were requested to circle possible collocations consisting of an amplifying adverb and an adjective as well as mark the most frequent and strongly linked combinations with an asterisk. The results show that the non-natives scored much lower on the recognition task than the native participants as they circled a greater number of combinations and marked fewer combinations with an asterisk. On the basis of these findings, Granger (1998, p. 152) concludes that the learners' general notion of what constitutes a significant collocation seems fairly weak and misguided.

Taken together, the findings of the research presented above suggest that although, on the whole, recognition tasks targeting formulaic sequences generate higher scores and appear easier for advanced L2 learners, in fact, the precise nature of the learners' perception and their ability to notice/recognize formulaic sequences remains a complex and largely unresolved issue. As we have seen, most of the available studies have focused on the success rates achieved by learners in different types of tasks rather than on the characteristics of the word strings that become the focus of learners' attention (or pass unnoticed) when learners are faced with authentic, naturally occurring L2 data. At the same time these studies offered no insight into the L2 learners' awareness of the formulaic aspects of the target language and its potential development and impact on L2 learning in general.

4 Perceptual Salience of Formulaic Sequences

It has to be noted at this point that there are a number of external, learner-independent factors which might affect the L2 learner's perception of any linguistic feature (including his/her notion of which word strings constitute a valid formulaic sequence). Formulaic sequences constitute a large and heterogeneous group of multiword strings, marked by a varied degree of formal and semantic rigidity, some members of which are inherently more noticeable. O'Keeffe et al. (2007) point out that colorful, low-frequency idioms are psychologically more salient and noticeable for learners than frequent every day chunks or collocations. They argue further that these easily noticed sequences have been beloved of language teaching and, traditionally, have been included in most intuition-based language teaching materials. An interesting question which arises in a discussion of the potential noticeability of a formulaic sequence is whether its perceptual salience can be manipulated as a result of some educational intervention. One example of such intervention involving an excessive instructional focus on colourful idioms has already been discussed. The issue of affecting the noticeability of a sequence by some external intervention is also explored in Bishop (2004b). Starting from the assumption that formulaic sequences are not noticed by L2 learners, Bishop (2004b, p. 15) carried out a reading experiment on a group of advanced L2 learners 'to test whether noticing occurs.' In the course of his investigation he provided statistical evidence that increasing the typographical salience of a formulaic sequence in a text by adding visible cues (such as colouring or underlining) makes it more noticeable for the reader. The participant's ability to notice a higher number of formulaic sequences was also found to be positively correlated with a higher overall comprehension of a text.

The overview of the available research studies presented above shows that the issue of the recognition of the phraseological aspects of language at the advanced level of L2 proficiency has not yet been properly addressed. Given the current state of knowledge, the present study has been designed to explore some of the issues that revolve around the learners' awareness (or lack of) of formulaic language.

5 The Study

5.1 Research Questions

With a view to determining if and how learners perceive formulaic language in real language data and gaining more insight into the exact nature of what is (un)noticed, the following research questions were formulated and will be addressed in this chapter:

1. Do advanced learners notice formulaic sequences in text? What proportion of formulaic language passes (un)noticed?
2. What is the degree of individual variation in advanced learners' perception of formulaic sequences?
3. What are the characteristics of the most noticed formulaic sequences?
4. What are the factors that might contribute to higher perceptual salience of formulaic sequences?

5.2 Methodology

As the goal of this study is to assess the learners' perception of formulaic language in naturally occurring language, the initial step was to find samples of natural language which could serve as input data for the participants. Three different input texts were selected for this purpose to avoid relying on one text as source of data. Each text was approximately 300 words in length. To ensure the authenticity of the input data, the texts used in this study were taken from a contemporary novel whose narration involves a kind of an internal monologue (a mental diary) of the main protagonist, a recently divorced man. The language of the novel is lively and natural and the book constitutes what could be referred to as an easy read whose discourse can be described as a mixture of the spoken and written register. The next step involved selecting a task which would ensure a deep semantic analysis of the text without drawing the participants' attention to any particular linguistic features. Ideally, a task was needed in which all the lexical items in the text receive the same amount of learner attention and in which the focus is on understanding and interpreting the relationship between the lexical items in the text, without consciously knowing about it (preferably, while doing something else). One of the alternatives—a reading comprehension exercise—was rejected on the grounds that the presence of some lexical items in the task instructions might make them seem more salient perceptually and, as a result, affect the overall validity of the task. Finally, a L2-L1 translation task was selected, as it was felt that when carrying out a translation learners approach all the words in the text as equally important without prioritizing any of them. Also, translation involves an ongoing deconstruction and construction of the text, as the translator has to assign the meaning to individual words but simultaneously interpret the relationship between them. This requires treating the text as a set of items and as a whole at the same time. Additional care was taken to select texts which did not contain any congruent formulaic sequences (with L1 equivalents), as such sequences might be more noticeable for learners and, as a result, recognized more easily.

5.3 Participants

The study was carried out with 112 university level students enrolled in the second year of a three year teacher training program at University College of English Language Teacher Education in Warsaw. The participants were divided in 3 groups (Group 1—40 learners, Group 2—33 learners, Group 3—39 learners) each of which followed the same procedure and received the same instructions but worked on different texts. Their degree of L2 competence was not controlled for but it can be assumed to be relatively high and homogenous as all of them have met the college admittance requirements and had successfully studied there for two years.

5.4 Procedure

The data was collected in the course of a two step procedure which involved text translation (L2–L1) followed by the highlighting of formulaic sequences in the input text. Each of the three groups of participants was instructed to translate a different L2 text to L1. When translating, the learners were offered assistance with any unfamiliar words. These were paraphrased for them in L2. Having submitted their translations, the learners were instructed to highlight the input text groups of two or more words which they felt should be treated as one, complete unit rather than as individual, independent words. The L1 translations had been removed prior to this, and the participants were not allowed to see them. The learner formulaic sequences were then recorded and analyzed.

5.4.1 Identifying Formulaic Sequences in Input Data

To identify the proportion of formulaic sequences noticed by the participants, the total of formulaic sequences in each input text had to be established. In other words, we had to determine what was 'available for noticing'. The main identification criterion adopted for the purposes of this study was the appearance of a sequence in relevant literature (for a wider discussion of the identification of formulaic sequences in text see Chenoweth 1995; Namba 2006; Wray 2008; Wray and Namba 2003). A sequence of words was assigned a formulaic status if it appeared in at least one of the twelve selected dictionaries of regular and idiomatic English (see Appendix 1 for a complete list of dictionaries used in this study). By choosing this particular criterion we ensured that only attested and well-established sequences, which had entered mainstream language use, were considered formulaic. Candidate strings were selected by the author and verified in the indicated publications. In this way, a list of formulaic sequences was compiled for each text (see Appendix 2). The identified formulaic sequences were further

juxtaposed with the sequences highlighted by learners and analyzed using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodology.

5.5 *Quantitative Analysis: Results and Discussion*

The first issue to be addressed here is the number of formulaic sequences noticed by learners. As we have seen earlier, the quantitative measures employed for the purposes of this study included identifying target language formulae in the input text and comparing them with the sequences highlighted by learners. The target language data were obtained in the course of a dictionary-based identification procedure, whereas the learner data involved recording the sequences highlighted by learners and establishing an average number of formulaic sequences noticed per capita. Each group of participants was considered separately. The data obtained in this part of our analysis is presented in Table 1.

From the initial examination of the data in Table 1 we can see that the results obtained for all the groups of participants and all input texts were fairly consistent. The input texts were quite homogenous in terms of the concentration of formulaic language, as each of them was found to contain approximately 30 well-attested formulaic sequences of different types. Similar consistency was observed in the learner data gathered, as the average total of learner sequences highlighted in each group equaled twelve items. This suggests that, on average, nearly two-thirds of the well-established formulaic sequences, which were available for noticing, were overlooked by learners. To put it differently, learners managed to recognize only a fraction of the formulaic language in the input data and we might conclude that their overall notion of which sequences might constitute holistic phrases appears to be quite weak. However, to obtain a fuller picture of learner data and validate the above results, we decided to look at the degree of individual variation in the learners' perception of formulaic language. Two cut-off points were selected for the sake of this part of our investigation. For each group we established the proportion of participants who failed to notice more than half of the available formulaic sequences (see A in Table 2) and the proportion of participants who failed to notice more than two-thirds of the target language strings formulae (see B in Table 2).

Table 1 Noticing target language formulaic sequences (FS)

	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3
FS available for noticing	27	30	33
FS noticed by learners	12	12	12
FS noticed by learners as a %	44 %	39 %	36 %

Table 2 Individual variation in learner perception of formulaic sequences (FS)

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
A	64 %	70 %	87 %
B	48 %	51 %	46 %

A = proportion of learners who failed to notice more than a half of the target language FS

B = proportion of learners who failed to notice more than two-thirds of the target language FS

The data illustrated in Table 2 above reveals a relatively low variability in the individual learner perception of formulaic sequences in input data. The majority of participants in each tested group (see category A above) failed to notice half or more of the target language formulas in the input text, whereas nearly half of all the participants (see category B above) overlooked more than two-thirds of the total of formulaic language available for noticing. This means that the majority of the participants of our study failed to notice the majority of the formulaic sequences in each of the input texts. These findings seem largely in keeping with the claims put forward by Biskup (1992), Granger (1998) and Bishop (2004a, b) that even highly proficient learners have an underdeveloped and ill-conceived sense of collocation and are unaware of the strong lexical bonds that exist among many English words. In sum, our quantitative results show that the learners' awareness of the phraseological aspects of natural language data is quite low and that the majority of advanced learners simple cannot 'see' formulaic language.

5.6 Qualitative Analysis: Results and Discussion

In this part of our study we turn to examining the qualitative aspects of learner formulaic sequences. Our major goal is to arrive at a set of factors which account for the learners' perception of formulaic language and, possibly, contribute to overall higher perceptual salience of formulaic sequences. To achieve this, we scrutinize the most noticed learner sequences; that is, those strings of words that were most frequently highlighted by the majority of the participants in all tested groups. We predict that analysis of some inherent formal features of the most frequently highlighted learner sequences might throw some light on the learners' perception of the phraseological aspects of naturally occurring language. In our analysis we adopt a 'bottom-up' approach to the learner data and attempt to locate some common features which mark the most perceptually salient formulaic sequences without any preconceptions about their nature. One of the most important questions we address here is whether the sequences that attracted the attention of the majority of learners share any characteristics which might account for their marked status. The first stage of our analysis involves establishing the 'top-twenty' for each text; that is, a list of the twenty most frequently highlighted formulaic sequences (see Appendix 3).

Preliminary analysis of the data allowed us to identify five features which were considered possible causes of the increased perceptual salience of some of the most noticed sequences. These were: lexical or grammatical abnormality, typographic salience, non-compositional meaning, fixedness of form and phrasal verb-like appearance. It was further observed that a relatively large number of the learner sequences that entered the top-twenty sets are characterized by a combination of these features, which might at least partly explain their increased noticeability.

5.6.1 Lexical or Grammatical Abnormality

One of the major observations which can be made on the basis of our learner data was that most participants were inclined to notice those sequences whose lexical or grammatical properties display some kind of abnormality and, as a result, go counter to their linguistic knowledge. For example, a number of sequences were identified in the top-twenty sets which contain some rare or unusual lexical items or syntactic ungrammaticalities. These are illustrated in Table 3.

As evidenced by the examples above, some of the lexical items that make up the sequences in (1) (frothing, stark, suffice, berserk) are extremely rare or do not function outside the sequences. The same applies to the sequences listed in (2), which violate the rules of grammar and syntax that the learners are probably familiar with. It might be concluded that learners' prior knowledge interferes with their 'new' language experiences and they are alerted by language which appears plain wrong. We might conclude that the newness, rareness or abnormality of a sequence definitely increases its chances of being 'picked up' by a learner. A further analysis of the 'abnormal' sequences in the top-twenty sets reveals that they make up nearly half of the most frequently noticed items in Texts 1 and 2 (38 and 48 % respectively) and nearly a quarter of the most noticed sequences in Text 3 (24 %). This suggests that this feature might be seen as factor which increases the noticeability of a sequence.

Table 3 Noticing sequences containing lexical and grammatical abnormalities

(1) sequences with unusual lexical items	
Text 1	Frothing mad, stark naked, suffice to say
Text 2	Keep your pecker up, go berserk, wolf down
Text 3	Keep your pecker up (not) care a toss, a total twerp
(2) sequences with unusual grammar	
Text 1	Worse luck, I am no angel, mind you, would you believe, I kid you not,
Text 2	Lucky me
Text 3	Fleece sb good and proper, just you see if I don't, goings on

5.6.2 Typographic Salience

Another feature which appears to be a factor that might affect the learners' decisions about what constitutes a holistic phrase is the typographic salience resulting from the use of punctuation marks and orthographic conventions such as capital letters. Figure 1 below contains an exemplary set of typographically enhanced sequences taken from Text 1, which were highlighted by the participants.

Most sequences in the set above are marked out by not just one but a combination of various visible cues. A closer inspection of the most frequently highlighted sequences in all input texts reveals that nearly half of the sequences that made it to the top-twenty sets (48 % in Text 1, 48 % in Text 2, 52 % in Text 3) are separated in the text by a variety of punctuation marks which clearly set them apart from the remaining words in the text. This allows us to state with some degree of certainty that typographic salience might interfere with the learners' perception of the structure of the text and increase the perceptual salience of the marked sequences (for a review of research on the role of typographic salience see Bishop 2004b).

5.6.3 Uncompositional Meaning

Nearly half of all the most frequently noticed sequences in all texts (52 % in Texts 2 and 3, 38 % in Text 1) can be described as semantically uncompositional. This means that the meaning of the sequence cannot be derived from the meaning of its elements. Examples of semantically opaque sequences highlighted most often by learners can be found in Fig. 2.

Semantic opacity can pose a major difficulty even to an advanced learner. Faced with a sequence that makes little or no sense, the learner becomes more attentive, and as a result aware of the peculiarity of the sequence which can no longer be ignored and is therefore noticed. This might suggest that the increased perceptual salience of the semantically uncompositional sequences can be explained in terms of the interpretation difficulties it causes for learners.

5.6.4 Fixedness of Form and Phrasal Verb-Like Appearance

It was hypothesized earlier that there are two other factors which might play some part in increasing the noticeability of a string of words for the learner. These are

Worse luck!	, suffice to say,
Talk about (overreacting)!	, (like) frothing mad.
I kid you not!	, where's the harm,
I am no angel.	, I've got news for her.
Mind you,	In my book,

Fig. 1 Noticing typographically salient sequences

Text 1

play the field, be no angel, frothing mad, in my book, Talk about…!, go that far as to, where is the harm, pick up

Text 2

have it in for, it goes without saying, flare up, what's got into x, wolf down, keep your pecker up, hover over, out on (your) ear, put out, move in with

Text 3

come out on top, give up the ghost, fleece x good and proper, keep your pecker up, (not) care a toss, bring x to the knees, get over, play it cool, just you see if I don't, have (anything) to do with, run up to

Fig. 2 Noticing semantically uncompositional sequences

the structural rigidity and phrasal verb-like appearance. As regards the former, it is a well-documented feature of many types of formulaic sequences (see for example Moon 1998). However, our data does not provide conclusive evidence that some sequences highlighted by learners could be explained on the grounds of their structural rigidity. Although 62 % of the top-twenty sequences in Text 1 and one-third (33 %) in Text 3 have an invariable, fixed syntactic structure, the same value for Text 2 is quite low (5 %). This suggests that more learner data is needed to determine whether this feature has any bearing on the perceptual salience of a formulaic sequence.

With reference to phrasal verb-like appearance, a few words of explanation are in order. This feature was selected for two reasons. Firstly, there is particular instructional focus on this kind of sequence in the Polish educational setting. Secondly, the data obtained for Text 2 were quite encouraging (43 % of the top twenty sequences highlighted by the participants in this text resembled phrasal verbs in that they contained a verb and a prepositional particle). However, the data from the remaining input texts (9 % in Text 1, 24 % in Text 3) did not confirm our initial assumption that learners are inclined to notice sequences that resemble phrasal verbs.

6 Conclusions

In this study we set out to explore the question of whether advanced learners notice formulaic language in text. The quantitative part of our analysis provided a clear answer to this question, as the participants of this study were found to overlook more than half of the sequences identified as formulaic in the input text. Additionally, we reported a relatively low degree of individual variation in the learner

perception of formulaic language. Our results seem to imply that advanced learners demonstrate little awareness of the phraseological aspects of L2 as the majority of various multiword strings are not noticed by them. In the second part of the research, we attempted to establish a number of factors which might affect the learners' perception of formulaic sequences in natural language. Although the overall results of this part of our research are somewhat inconclusive, some trends did emerge. One definite finding is that the higher perceptual salience of nearly half of the most frequently highlighted formulaic sequences can be accounted for in terms of one or a combination of the three following features: lexical and/or grammatical anomaly (37 %), typographical salience (49 %) and semantic uncompositionality (47 %). Overall, our results indicate that even highly proficient L2 learners of English are largely unaware of its lexically patterned nature and demonstrate a relatively weak sense of what might constitute a prefabricated formulaic sequence. The evidence presented shows that there are many complex issues surrounding the perception and/or recognition of formulaic sequences by highly proficient L2 learners.

Appendix 1

(1) Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English Volumes 1 and 2
(2) Oxford Collocations Dictionary
(3) Collins Cobuild Idioms Dictionary
(4) Longman Dictionary of English Idioms
(5) Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms
(6) Cambridge Dictionary of American Idioms
(7) The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations
(8) PWN Selected English Collocations
(9) LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations
(10) Online Merriam-Webster Dictionary at www.merriam-webster.com
(11) Online Oxford Dictionaries at www.oxforddictionaries.com
(12) Online Free Dictionary at www.thefreedictionary.com

Appendix 2

Formulaic sequences identified in input texts

Text 1	Text 2	Text 3
no angel	I mean	get over (sb)
anything other than	What's got into (sb)?	have anything to do with
apologise for	flare up	goings on
in my book	give (sb) a black eye	fleece (sb) good and proper
have a role to play	out on your ear	I reckon
have the right to	it goes without saying	about to
play the field	best mate	give up the ghost
I mean	have it in for (sb)	make a lady feel good
Where's the harm?	mind you	look at (sb)
Would you believe?	lucky me	tall and blonde
go that far as to	go berserk	keep calm
I've got news for (sb)!	just a bit of fun	play it cool
Talk about…!	I mean to say	give (sb) your best smile
mind you	I can't help it	a total twerp
pick (sb) up	move in with (sb)	Hope you don't mind me
suffice to say	give (sb) a hard time	saying
end up in	You've only yourself	run up to (sb)
Worse luck!	to blame!	give (sb) a smile
listen to reason	When will you ever learn?	I could hear
go crazy	I can't help but	all the way
out of control	(feel) put out	not that
frothing mad	have a habit of	care a toss
And there I was!	a nasty habit	look on the positive side
stark naked	on the throne	I mean
I kid you not!	wolf down	a bad divorce
a side to (sb)	You'd best	brake pads
not a pleasant sight	get off	keep your pecker up
	hover over (sb)	It'll take more than that to
	keep your pecker up	bring (sb) to their knees
	know something I don't	come out on top
		Just you see if I don't!

Appendix 3

Twenty most frequently highlighted formulaic sequences
***A = total of learners who highlighted a sequence**

A*	Text 1	A	Text 2	A	Text 3
23	Worse luck!	23	give (sb) a hard time	32	give up the ghost
21	play the field	23	What's got into (sb)?	29	come out on top
21	suffice to say	22	go berserk	24	bring (sb) to their knees
20	I kid you not!	21	give (sb) a black eye	21	fleece (sb) good and proper

(continued)

(continued)

A*	Text 1	A	Text 2	A	Text 3
19	frothing mad	21	have it in for (sb)	21	keep your pecker up
17	have a role to play	20	it goes without saying	20	care a toss
16	no angel	18	flare up	17	goings on
16	go that far as to	17	keep your pecker up	16	get over (sb)
15	Where's the harm?	17	(feel) put out	15	run up
15	out of control	16	out on your ear	15	play it cool
15	stark naked	16	wolf down	15	Just you see if I don't!
14	Talk about…!	14	I can't help but	14	It'll take more than that to
14	go crazy	12	hovered over	14	Hope you don't mind me saying
13	Anything other than	11	get off	14	have anything to do with
13	pick (sb) up	8	move in with (sb)	12	all the way
12	a side to (sb)	7	mind you	12	make a lady feel good
11	Would you believe?	7	You'd best	10	not that
		7	lucky me	10	About to
		7	You've only yourself to blame!	10	keep calm
		7	I can't help it but	9	give (sb) your best smile

References

Abrahamsson, N. and K. Hyltenstam. 2009. Age and acquisition of nativelikeness in a second language: listener perception versus linguistic scrutiny. *Language Learning* 59(2): 249–306.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. 2008. Recognition and production of formulas in L2 pragmatics. In *Understanding second language process*, ed. Z. H. Han, 205–222. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. and M. T. Bastos. 2011. Proficiency, length of stay, and intensity of interaction and the acquisition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Intercultural Pragmatics* 8 (3): 347–384.

Bishop, H. 2004a. Noticing formulaic sequences—A problem of measuring the subjective. *LSO Working Papers in Linguistics* 4:15–19.

Bishop, H. 2004b. The effect of typographic salience on the look up and comprehension of unknown formulaic sequences. In *Formulaic sequences: Acquisition, processing and use*, ed. N. Schmitt, 227–244. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Biskup, D. 1992. L1 influence on learners' renderings of English collocations: a Polish/German empirical study. In *Vocabulary and applied linguistics*, eds. P. Arnaud and H. Béjoint, 85–93. London: Macmillan.

Bonk, W. J. 2001. Testing ESL learners' knowledge of collocations. In *A focus on language test development: Expanding the language proficiency construct across a variety of test* [Technical Report #21], eds. T. Hudson and J. D. Brown, 113–142. Honolulu HI: University's of Hawaii's Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Chenoweth, N. A. 1995. Formulaicity in essay exam answers. *Language Sciences* 17(3): 283–297.

Corrigan, R., Moravcsik, E. A., Ouali H. and K. M. Wheatley. 2009a. *Formulaic language: Volume 1: Distribution and historical change*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Corrigan, R., Moravcsik, E. A., Ouali H. and K. M. Wheatley. 2009b. *Formulaic language: Volume 2: Acquisition, loss, psychological reality, and functional explanations*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

De Cock, S. 2000. Repetitive phrasal chunkiness and advanced EFL speech and writing. In *Corpus linguistics and linguistic theory. Papers from ICAME 20 1999*, eds. C. Mair and M. Hundt, 51–68. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Durrant P. and N. Schmitt. 2009. To what extent do native and non-native writers make use of collocations? *International Review of Applied Linguistics* 47(2): 157–177.

Erman, B. 2009. Formulaic language from a learner perspective: What the learner needs to know? In *Formulaic language: Volume 2: Acquisition, loss, psychological reality, and functional explanations*, eds. R. Corrigan et al., 323–346. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Forsberg, F. and L. Fant. 2010. Idiomatically speaking: Effects of task variation on formulaic language in highly proficient users of L2 French and Spanish. In *Perspectives on formulaic language. Acquisition and communication*, ed. D. Wood, 47–70. New York: Continuum.

Granger, S. 1998. Prefabricated patterns in advanced EFL writing: Collocations and formulae. In *Phraseology: Theory, analysis, and applications*, ed. A. P. Cowie, 145–160. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Granger, S. and F. Meunier. 2008. *Phraseology in foreign language learning and teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Hawkey, R. and F. Barker. 2004. Developing a common scale for the assessment of writing. *Assessing Writing* 9: 122–159.

Howarth, P. A. 1996. Phraseology in English academic writing: some implications for language learning and dictionary making. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.

Kennedy, C. and D. Thorp. 2007. A corpus-based investigation of the linguistic responses to an IELTS Academic Writing task. In *IELTS collected papers: Research in speaking and writing assessment*, eds. L. Taylor and P. Falvey, 316–378. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lorenz, G. 1999. *Adjective intensification—learners versus native speakers. A corpus study of argumentative writing*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Moon, R. 1998. *Fixed expressions and idioms in English. A corpus based approach*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Namba, K. 2006. Formulaicity in code-switching: Theory. http://yayoi.senri.ed.jp/research/re12/06KNamba12.pdf 03/06/09. Accessed 3 June 2009.

Nesselhauf, N. 2005. *Collocations in a learner corpus*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Ohlrogge, A. 2009. Formulaic expressions in intermediate EFL writing assessment. In *Formulaic language: Volume 2: Acquisition, loss, psychological reality, and functional explanations*, eds. R. Corrigan et al., 375–386. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

O'Keeffe, A., M. McCarthy and R. Carter. 2007. *From corpus to classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Osborne, J. 2008. Phraseology effects as a trigger for errors in L2 English: the case of more advanced learners. In *Phraseology in foreign language learning and teaching*, eds. F. Meunier and S. Granger, 167–183. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Read, J. and P. Nation. 2006. An investigation of the lexical dimension of the IELTS speaking test. In *IELTS Research Reports*. Volume 6, eds. P. McGovern and S. Walsh, 207–231. Canberra: IELTS Australia.

Pawley, A. and F. H. Syder. 1983. Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Nativelike selection and nativelike fluency. In *Language and communication*, eds. J.C. Richards and R.W. Schmidt, 191–225. London: Longman.

Siyanova, A. and N. Schmitt. 2008. L2 learner production and processing of collocation: A multi-study Perspective. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 64(3): 429–458.

Wray, A. 2008. *Formulaic language: Pushing the boundaries*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wray, A. and T. Fitzpatrick. 2008. Why can't you just leave it alone? Deviations from memorized language as a gauge of nativelike competence. In *Phraseology in foreign language learning and teaching*, eds. F. Meunier, and S. Granger, 123–147. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
Wray, A. and K. Namba. 2003. Formulaic language in a Japanese-English bilingual child: A practical approach to data analysis. *Japan Journal for Multilingualism and Multiculturalism* 9 (I): 24–51.

Dictionaries

Benson, M., Benson, E. and R. Ilson. 1997. *The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
Collins Cobuild Idioms Dictionary. 2002. Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers.
Cowie, A.P. and R. Mackin. 1985. *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English*. Volume 1: Verbs with Prepositions and Particles. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Cowie, A.P., Mackin, R. and I. R. McCaig. 1985. *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English*. Volume 2: Phrase, Clause and Sentence Idioms. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Douglas Kozłowska, C. and H. Dzierżanowska. 2004. *Selected English Collocations*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
Hill, J. and M. Lewis. 2002. *LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations*. Boston: LTP.
Longman Dictionary of English Idioms. 1979. London: Longman.
Merriam-Webster Dictionary. Online dictionary: http://www.merriam-webster.com/.
Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English. 1985. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Oxford Dictionaries. Online dictionary: http://oxforddictionaries.com/.

Putting Bits and Pieces Together: Awareness of Text Structure in Jigsaw Reading

Liliana Piasecka

Abstract Issues concerning Language Awareness have been debated for about 40 years (Hawkins 1999) and have brought about many interesting developments in the area of language teaching and learning. In the following text, the official definition and scope of language awareness studies are briefly presented. Then, language awareness within the framework of foreign text comprehension—a crossroad where different types of knowledge, linguistic and non-linguistic, and a variety of cognitive processes meet and interact—is discussed. Since text comprehension is such a complex process, it requires the readers to use various forms of language awareness. The study reported in the second part of the paper was designed to investigate how advanced learners of English as a foreign language (EFL)—university students of English Philology—use their knowledge in a jigsaw reading and listening task, and to identify strategies they apply to do the task. Participants' written reflections on the task display manifestations of their text awareness, comprehension and strategic awareness, with comprehension awareness being reported most frequently. The participants also showed sociolinguistic and crosslinguistic sensitivity. The use of authentic literary texts in a jigsaw reading format is recommended as it engages and motivates learners and contributes to the growth of their language awareness—a factor necessary for independent language learning and use.

1 Introduction

According to the Association for Language Awareness, "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" define language awareness (http://www.lexically.net/ala/

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

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_12,

la_defined.htm). A brief glance at the publications in the *Language Awareness* journal implies that the term covers a wide range of themes and topics such as perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, strategies, focus-on-form, metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness in the context of language learning and use, to mention just a few.

Language awareness (LA) is both "a mental attribute which develops through paying motivated attention to language in use" so the learners "gradually gain insights into how languages work" (Bolitho et al. 2003, p. 251), and a pedagogic approach supporting the learners in developing these insights. This approach encourages them to discover the language for themselves by carrying out an individual enquiry about the language, both in and out of the classroom (Hawkins 1984). LA, as any form of awareness, is "dynamic and intuitive" (Tomlinson 1994, p. 123) as it grows in the learners' heads and changes with new insights into language that result from the process of enquiry, triggered by the learners' need to comprehend the language.

There is ample research concerning written text comprehension both in the first language (L1), the second language (L2), and a foreign language (FL). With respect to L2 reading, it is concerned mostly with word recognition, lexical, syntactic and discourse knowledge, crosslinguistic processing, metacognitive, individual and affective factors, reading strategies, extensive reading programs, background knowledge in reading, course design, assessment and testing, and many others (Bernhardt 1991; Koda 2005; Brantmeier 2005, 2006, 2007; RFL database; Piasecka 2008). Many studies indirectly address issues that may be subsumed under the term of LA, however metacognitive and metalinguistic knowledge as well as LA are not directly addressed. Braintmeier's reviews (2005, 2006, 2007) revealed only one study on the role of metacognitive knowledge in L1 and L2 text comprehension. According to the study, linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge along with processing speed correlate significantly with reading comprehension.

FL reading is a vital source of input and exposure to the language. Texts that learners process are sites for enquiry about language, culture, and meaning and thus they reveal various levels and manifestations of LA as "Language Awareness is seen as inseparable from text awareness, and the emphasis on language use in context entails a view of language as a social and cultural medium" (Bolitho et al. 2003, p. 253). Therefore, in this paper I discuss how EFL students of English as a foreign language (EFL) use their knowledge of the language to complete a jigsaw reading task. My discussion is based on the data provided by them after the task had been completed.

2 Language Awareness in the Context of Foreign Language Reading

Comprehension of a written text is a complex, non-linear activity that integrates text decoding (lower-level) and text comprehension (higher-level) processes (Grabe and Stoller 2002; Grabe 2009; Cohen et al. 2009). Thus, various sources of

knowledge, both explicit and implicit, have an impact on text comprehension. Lower-level processes connected with decoding the text are based on linguistic knowledge necessary to recognize words and their meanings along with their relations within syntactic structures which allow the readers to encode meaning propositions, sometimes referred to as idea units within the text. Working memory needs to be activated because it keeps the incoming information that is indispensable for higher-level processes focused on building comprehension. These higher-level processes include a text model of reader comprehension that mirrors the very literal meaning of the text, and a situational model of reader interpretation in which text information, prior knowledge, readers' goals, their personal experiences, imagery and emotions are integrated (Kintsch and Rawson 2005). In addition, comprehension monitoring, attentional processes, goal setting, strategy use, metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness (Grabe 2009) are also involved in text comprehension. Reading, then, integrates grammatical, lexical, syntactic and discourse knowledge with the general knowledge of the world.

As regards reading in a foreign language (FL), the readers' experiences with their native language (L1) texts cannot be ignored. They usually start reading in a FL when they can read in their L1 and therefore they are familiar with a variety of text types and text structures, and this knowledge may be helpful when they deal with a FL text. It has been shown, for example, that text structures of narration and dialogue affect both reading fluency and comprehension, measured by retelling. It appears that subjects retelling the texts they had read, retold more of the dialogic than of the narrative sections (Cohen et al. 2009).

In addition, as evidenced by research carried out by Ammar et al. (2010), learners' awareness of differences between L1 and L2 with respect to question formation and its effect on their performance shows positive correlations between these variables. The subjects of the study were following communicative language teaching approach which focused on meaning, and which did not encourage metalinguistic reflection. They also seemed to have followed L1 rules in the tasks although they might not have been aware of them. This suggests that the awareness of L2 and L2 rules as well as a possibility to compare them may be helpful both in identifying problem areas and in enhancing L2 performance.

An interesting study investigating metacognitive awareness from the point of view of sociocultural theory in the context of L2 listening was carried out by Cross (2010). The author argues that peer–peer dialogues following listening comprehension tasks are basic mediating mechanisms for constructing metacognitive awareness. The study is relevant for the present discussion also because it was concerned with listening comprehension—a receptive language skill, like reading—which, according to Gernsbacher (1990), is independent of the mode of text presentation. Gernsbacher's Structure Building Model assumes that coherent mental representations of texts, independent of the mode of text presentation (oral, written or visual), are based on an independent structure building skill that underlies L1 and L2 comprehension. On the basis of the data Cross (2010) observes that his learners, involved in listening tasks and then discussing them in pairs, were developing their metacognitive awareness through text awareness,

comprehension awareness, and strategy awareness. Text awareness refers to the learners' awareness of text structure, complexity of text fragments, and the role of visual elements in the text. Comprehension awareness, in turn, concerns successes, failures and problems with comprehension both at the local and at the global level. Strategy awareness involves the learners' awareness of their general strategy use as well as difficulties and successes they experience when using strategies.

As already noted, because of the suggestion that comprehension is based on the same underlying, mode-independent structure building skill, the types of metacognitive awareness identified with respect to listening comprehension may also be applied to contexts involving reading and listening comprehension, which is the case of the empirical study described below.

Understanding a FL text can be conceived of as a crossroad where different types of knowledge, linguistic and non-linguistic, and a variety of cognitive processes meet and interact. It is based on the non-linear, parallel interplay of lower- and higher-level processes. Depending on the proficiency level, grammatical and syntactic knowledge may be automatized, and the text may be processed effortlessly. Lexical knowledge accounting for lexical access and word recognition, however, may appear more problematic because of unusual, specific, and idiosyncratic vocabulary that the author may have chosen to convey the intended meaning, and also because of unusual, innovative ways of formulating the meaning. Handling the text that may be unclear and difficult at points may be discouraging and demotivating, and the reader may be anxious about comprehension and not be determined enough to complete reading the text. It follows, then, that reading an EFL text is a challenge due to the complexity of processes involved, language proficiency, motivation, attitudes, affective, experiential and sociocultural factors that interact to bring about comprehension, satisfaction, and the feeling of self-efficacy. The challenge is stronger when a group of FL learners each read fragments of a text to reconstruct it, cooperating with other members of the group. This task was the basis of the study reported in the following section.

3 The Study

The aim of the study was to investigate how advanced learners of EFL use their knowledge in a jigsaw reading and listening task from the point of view of LA, and to identify strategies they apply to do the task. The task was challenging because the participants were to reconstruct the story by combining fragments that each had read silently, then read aloud to others, and the group had to decide on the sequence of passages, of which only one had been read by an individual. To complete the task, the participants had to pay attention to text structure, language forms, the development of the narrative and the dialogues of the protagonists. Moreover, they had to agree whether the proposed fragment fits the sequence of events they had agreed on so far. Group discussion during task performance and post-task reflection were assumed to reveal students' knowledge about language as

well as their perception and sensitivity to language use, i.e., to give access to LA. This way manifestations of LA in EFL learners who put a scrambled text together, and strategies used in the task could be identified. Both reading and listening comprehension were involved.

The jigsaw reading and listening task was chosen because it is based on a range of processes and activates various skills. Participants read individually and predicted what might have preceded and followed their fragment. Then they listened to other students reading their bits aloud. They had to pay attention to text elements that could be useful in fitting their bit into the whole. Reading aloud, they had to pay attention to pronunciation and intonation, to make the meaning comprehensible to other participants. Taking part in group discussion, they had to verbalise reasons that made them think why the passage just read fitted/did not fit the sequence.

The study was carried out during vocabulary development classes in winter 2011.

3.1 Participants

Altogether, 31 second year students of English Philology at Opole University took part in the study. There were 21 females and 10 males. Their mean age was 20.16 (SD = 0.64), and they had been learning English for quite a long time (mean length of learning EFL: 13.27 years, SD = 2.57; range 11 (7–18)). The participants are young but experienced learners of a FL, and as the maximum value concerning range suggests, some must have started learning English at a very young age. Moreover, being English Philology students, they must have achieved the level of proficiency that allows them to use oral and written English in academic settings.

3.2 Materials

The text the participants read was a short story by Roald Dahl (1977), entitled "The hitch-hiker", chosen by the researcher. It was copied and cut into page-long fragments. Page numbers were removed to make the readers focus on the contents. The story is an authentic text, written in English by a British citizen of Norwegian descent, born in Wales. Its form was not modified in any way for the purpose of the study.

3.3 Procedure

The participants were given fragments of the story and asked to read them silently to form a general idea of their bit. They were encouraged to try to predict what might have come before and after their passage. During this phase they could consult a dictionary.

When they were ready, they were invited to stand in a circle in front of the classroom and start reading the text aloud to reconstruct the story. The researcher (the author) was standing outside the circle, prompting students with questions and comments, and taking notes of their behaviour.

First, the participants were to decide about the beginning of the story, which was not problematic. Then individual students read their passages and the others had to discuss whether the fragment just read fitted the sequence and the logical construction of the story. If it did, they accepted the sequence. If not, they discussed why the passage did not fit the sequence, and tried other options.

Having finished the task, the participants were requested to reflect in writing on how they managed to fit their bits into the story. The written reflections were anonymous.

3.4 Data Analysis

Participants' written reflections were analysed in terms of the manifestations of text awareness, comprehension awareness, and strategies used to put the text together (Cross 2010). Also the researcher's notes taken during group discussion were used. The data obtained (written reflection and my notes concerning the while-task discussion) were analysed quantitatively (frequencies) and qualitatively.

3.5 Results

The analysis of participants' written reflections showed that there were 53 cases which might be classified as manifestations of LA. These are presented below according to the scheme proposed by Cross (2010) who distinguishes three types of metacognitive awareness, that is text awareness, comprehension awareness, and strategy awareness.

Thus, *text awareness* was illustrated by the participants' attention to the dialogic parts of the story, and 12 instances in the data were found, i.e.:

- The question is followed by the answer (5 cases).
- Conversations/dialogues develop in predictable sequences (4 cases).
- Events in a narrative text follow a certain sequence (also related to comprehension awareness) (3 cases).

As regards *comprehension awareness*, there occurred 27 instances in the data. These refer to the following actions:

- Focusing on first/last paragraphs/sentences of the fragments (7 cases).
- Identifying key words and other important vocabulary items (6 cases).
- Focusing on the protagonists (3 cases).

- Focusing on meaning (3 cases).
- Comprehension monitoring (3 cases).
- Identifying the main idea (3 cases).
- Predicting (2 cases).
- Finding relations/dependencies in the text (1 case).

Strategic awareness, in turn, was noted 14 times, and concerned the following situations:

- Paying attention to the beginnings and endings of individual fragments of the story (4 cases).
- Listening carefully to others' reading their fragments to decide where the slot for one's section appears (4 cases).
- Reading one's section aloud clearly and audibly (so the others could follow) (4 cases).
- Inferring word meanings from the context (2 cases).

The participants reported no problems with the first phase of the task that involved individual reading of story fragments. Several of them used a dictionary to find out or check and confirm meanings of the fragments that were not clear or puzzling to them.

The second phase that combined both reading aloud, listening and discussing the possible development of the story to agree where the individual fragments of the story belong, was more problematic because the participants had to consider a number of factors to make a decision. They had to follow the logic of the narrative and make multiple connections between the information they extracted from their fragment, the incoming information and their general knowledge. There were some inaccurate proposals but they were quickly identified as not appropriate to the story line because of linguistic, pragmatic or logical reasons.

The participants also showed sensitivity to language variants. One of the characters in the story was using non-standard English which they noticed and then, on the basis of their knowledge and examples from the text, they could decode the non-standard forms.

Post-task group discussion revealed that the participants enjoyed the task. They admitted that although it was demanding in linguistic terms, they found the challenge motivating and stimulating their cognitive processing. Moreover, they all liked the story.

3.6 Discussion

The data reveal that during the task the participants used various types of LA, namely text structure awareness, comprehension awareness and strategic awareness. It can be noted that there is a certain overlap between these types of

awareness. The observation that events in a story follow a certain sequence may be taken to represent both text, comprehension, and strategic awareness. Inferring word meanings from the context may illustrate both strategic and comprehension awareness. Such an overlap may suggest that comprehension processes are so intricately interwoven that it may not be possible to clearly delineate which kinds of knowledge and awareness correspond to which processes. This also points to the dynamic nature of LA.

The results of the current study imply that for advanced EFL learners comprehension awareness is crucial when they are involved in a demanding comprehension task. They realise that to complete the task, they have to rely on their knowledge of the language, of the text structure, and they need to use a combination of strategies. They realise which text elements to pay attention to and how to monitor developing text comprehension. One of the participants wrote:

> My piece of text started with 'I'd like it back', so I paid attention to that **IT**. I came to the conclusion that the end of the previous section must be focused on something missing…. And I was correct.

They were aware of how narrative texts and dialogues are usually constructed (aspects of text awareness) which helped them to decide how to proceed with the task. This is illustrated by the following examples:

> My fragment started with the explanation of what an hod carrier is so I deduced that the fragment before it would end with a question about the characteristics of this job. So I was looking for a dialogue in which a topic of profession appeared.[1]
>
> My piece starts with the answer. I was searching for the question, appropriate in the context.

The data also show that the participants realize the role of cohesion in text structure. When they say that they pay attention to beginnings and endings, that they look for relations and relationships, that they follow the sequence of events to find out if the text makes sense, they show their awareness of cohesion. In addition, they also pay attention to the meaning and characters in the story. The complex interaction of various factors is best shown in the following reflection:

> I was paying attention to the characters (names, occupations). And to the beginning and end of each bit [fragment]. It was probable that some key words will be repeated so if something strikes you as important, you should remember it. I was also focused on the context in general. It's hard to match the pieces if you don't understand the sense of the whole story. Even if you don't know few words, you can figure out their meaning from the context. Also dialogues may be helpful, it's the easiest way to match parts of the dialogue.

Putting the text together, the participants focused on the word *finger smith.* Some tried to find it in the dictionary, some decided to guess its meaning from context. Finally, they asked me for its Polish equivalent. As the word was Dahl's invention, I encouraged the participants to use their knowledge of English and

[1] All the quotations come from the participants' reflections written in English. The original form was preserved, only spelling and minor syntactic mistakes were corrected.

Polish, and try to provide their own equivalents. They came up with *palcownik, palecznik, palcarz, palcer.* This is another manifestation of LA, this time working across languages.

During individual silent reading of the text the participants occasionally used a dictionary to solve comprehension problems. No other problems were reported, possibly because of the high language proficiency level which may account for the automatic activation of lower- and higher-level comprehension processes.

As the participants admitted, the task was motivating, enjoyable and challenging. It may be explained by the fact that the story itself was interesting and the readers, originally motivated by reading its fragments, wanted to find out how it developed and finished. In addition, as mentioned above, it was an authentic text. There has been a heated debate about authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning contexts (Gilmore 2007), and it appears that opinions are divided with respect to authenticity and motivation. On the one hand, authentic texts are interesting because they focus on communicating the message rather than on the form by which it is communicated. On the other hand, difficulties related to processing an authentic text, connected with vocabulary and background knowledge, may be demotivating. However, the very fact that learners can cope with an authentic text can be an important motivating factor. Besides, authentic texts may address learners' needs and interests more accurately than linguistically simplified coursebook texts. In fact, "despite the widespread belief in the motivating potential of authentic materials, very little empirical support for the claim currently exists" (Gilmore 2007, p. 108). In this context, the results of the study can be interpreted as supporting the claim that authentic texts are motivating.

Moreover, when reading motivating is taken into account, it appears that reading challenge is an important component of "intrinsic value of reading" (Mori 2002), one of the four factors that motivate learners to read in a foreign language. It may be assumed, then, that the participants were motivated by the challenging text and their own curiosity to learn about how the story developed and finished. Also, the text was not an example of academic discourse which generally discourages EFL students from reading (Piasecka 2011). The motivational potential might have come from the fact that it was just an interesting story.

4 Conclusion

Although the task used to elicit the data on text comprehension from the point of view of language awareness was quite demanding, it was successfully completed. However, contrary to my expectations, the participants did not provide extensive reflections concerning the completion of the task. When I asked them to write how they matched their bits, they exclaimed: 'But it's obvious!'.

Such a response may be explained by the fact that at their proficiency level many comprehension processes are automatic and so they are beyond conscious control and as such evade reflection. But another explanation is also possible: the

participants have not been involved in situations in which they were to reflect on their learning, reasoning and thinking processes, and to verbalise them. In consequence, although they appear to be aware of some processes, they do not reflect on them extensively. The data show, however, that they are capable of some reflection. Reflection on one's task performance is an important source of information about processes and strategies that result in its successful completion. Moreover, reflecting can be viewed as a process of "noticing→awareness→expanding→refining→altering→reframing" (Gabryś-Barker 2012, p. 79) and thus it contributes to the revision, restructuring and expanding one's belief systems, attitudes and knowledge resources.

In the light of the above it may be concluded that the task itself and the ensuing discussion were also opportunities for language awareness work, both through experiencing an authentic text, discussing its contents and then reflecting on how it was completed. The participants were interested in the story, and motivated to do the task as they wanted to learn how the story would progress and end. They also had a chance to practise reading, listening, speaking and writing skills in order to achieve a meaningful purpose. Therefore it may be assumed that the task contributed to developing their sensitivity to language use and their LA. In addition, working in a group the participants had to rely on team-work skills.

The study has several limitations. First of all, it was carried out with proficient EFL learners who use oral and written English for academic purposes on a daily basis so they have multiple contexts for practising the language not only in the formal educational setting but also in more relaxed situations, for example when they pursue their own interests. A similar study could be carried out with less proficient EFL learners who have less contact with the foreign language. Second, the data were collected on the basis of one task only. The use of other tasks, for example grammaticality judgment or error detection tasks, might have shown different aspects of LA, although then the rich context provided by the story would be missing.

Third, reflecting on language processing and verbalising one's thoughts might have been practised before the study proper. Perhaps this would make the participants' reflections more extensive and more critical.

Reading and working on an authentic literary text in a group seems to be a fruitful pedagogical proposal. It engages learners into a number of language- and meaning- focused activities. The technique of jigsaw reading or listening is well-known in the ELT practice, but too often it is limited to sentences, dialogues, paragraphs or short, usually simplified texts. Using the technique with longer texts is worth recommending because, as evidenced by the study reported above, it both engages and enhances the readers' LA which is necessary for autonomous language learning and use. Combining experiential and analytical activities encourages learners "to think for themselves" (…), "become more aware" (…), and "more 'critical', in the sense of being more questioning, and better equipped to challenge language conventions, language attitudes, and language policies when it is in their interest to do so" (Bolitho et al. 2003, p. 258).

References

Ammar, A., P. A. Lightbown and N. Spada. 2010. Awareness of L1/L2 differences: Does it matter? *Language Awareness* 19: 129–146.

Bernhardt, E. 1991. *Reading development in a second language: Theoretical, empirical, and classroom perspectives.* Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Bolitho, R., R. Carter, R. Hughes, R. Ivanič, H. Masuhara and B. Tomlinson. 2003. Ten questions about language awareness. *ELT Journal* 57: 251–259.

Brantmeier, C. 2005. Readings on L2 reading: Publications in other venues 2004–2005. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 17: 159–167.

Brantmeier, C. 2006. Readings on L2 reading: Publications in other venues 2005–2006. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 18: 131–135.

Brantmeier, C. 2007. Readings on L2 reading: Publications in other venues 2006–2007. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 19: 137–145.

Cohen, L., R. Krustedt and M. May. 2009. Fluency, text structure, and retelling: A complex relationship. *Reading Horizons* 49: 101–124.

Cross, J. 2010. Raising L2 listeners' metacognitive awareness: a sociocultural theory perspective. *Language Awareness* 19: 281–297.

Dahl, R. 1977. The hitch-hiker. In *The wonderful story of Henry Sugar and six more*, 21–51. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books Ltd.

Gabryś-Barker, D. 2012. *Reflectivity in pre-service teacher education. A survey of theory and practice.* Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Gernsbacher, M. A. 1990. *Language comprehension as structure building.* Hillsdale NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gilmore, A. 2007. Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language Teaching* 40: 97–118.

Grabe, W. 2009. *Reading in a second language. Moving from theory to practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Grabe, W. and F. Stoller. 2002. *Teaching and researching reading.* Harlow: Pearson Education LTD.

Hawkins, E. 1984. *Awareness of language: An introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hawkins, E. 1999. Foreign language study and language awareness. *Language Awareness* 8: 124–142.

Koda, K. 2005. *Insights into second language reading. A cross-linguistic approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kintsch, W. and K. A. Rawson. 2005. Comprehension. In *The science of reading. A handbook,* eds. M. J. Snowling and C. Hulme, 209–226. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Language Awareness. http://www.lexically.net/ala/la_defined.htm.

Mori, S. 2002. Redefining motivation to read in a foreign langage. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 14: 91–110.

Piasecka, L. 2008. *Psycholinguistic and socio-cultural perspectives on native and foreign language reading.* Opole: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego.

Piasecka, L. 2011. Current views on foreign language reading motivation. In *Individual learner differences in SLA*, eds. J. Arabski and A. Wojtaszek, 271–283. Bristol, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Tomlinson, B. 1994. Pragmatic awareness activities. *Language Awareness* 3: 119–139.

The Role of Metacognitive Awareness in Reading Comprehension of CLIL Learners

Katarzyna Papaja

Abstract While introducing reading comprehension activities into the CLIL classroom, it should be remembered that reading comprehension is goal-oriented and may be defined as searching for meaning and sense. In the CLIL classroom, this goal is not only to develop reading comprehension skills or search for meaning of particular words but also to expand content knowledge. Secondly, reading comprehension is the act of comprehension. Comprehension is a highly active constructive process, and it is here that the key to language learning as well as content learning lie. Finally, the process of reading comprehension is dynamic and strategic. In other words, the best idea is to introduce techniques and activities which will not be boring for the learners and which will require the use of various metacognitve strategies. The term "metacognitive awareness" is conceptualized as the 'knowledge of the readers' cognition relative to the reading process and the self-control mechanism they use to monitor and enhance comprehension" (Sheorey and Mokhtari 2001, p. 423), which is a critical component of skilled reading. The purpose of my study was to explore the role of metacognitive strategies in L2 reading comprehension. The participants were University students who learn content subjects in English and were asked take reading comprehensions test and to fill in metacognitive reading strategies questionnaire. The intention of this address is to discuss different metacognitive reading strategies used by the CLIL University learners.

1 Introduction

According to Hillocks (1987, p. 71) "reading texts connected with a particular brand of knowledge provides the learner with a lot of information". Anderson and Pearson (1984, p. 255) claim that "gaining new content knowledge through

K. Papaja (✉)
Institute of English, University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland
e-mail: kasiapapaja@interia.pl

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_13,

reading thematically connected texts activates cognitive structures which help in developing reading comprehension skills". In a CLIL classroom reading is extremely important because it activates the CLIL learners' world and language knowledge whilst helping them to remember new content information. Moreover, the content of the reading tasks is more significant and therefore more involving and motivating to the CLIL learners.

The range of activities involving reading, which can be used in a CLIL classroom, are similar to the traditional language classroom. However, in a CLIL classroom content is specifically targeted and also integrated with a language. While introducing reading comprehension activities into the CLIL classroom, it should be remembered that reading comprehension is goal-oriented and may be defined as searching for meaning and sense. In the CLIL classroom, this goal is not only to develop reading comprehension skills or search for meaning of particular words but also to expand content knowledge. Secondly, reading comprehension is the act of comprehension. Comprehension is a highly active constructive process, and it is here that the key to language learning as well as content learning lay. Finally, the process of reading comprehension is dynamic and strategic. In other words, the best idea is to introduce techniques and activities which will not be tedious for the learners and which will require the use of various metacognitve strategies. The term "metacognitive awareness" is conceptualised as the 'knowledge of the readers' cognition relative to the reading process and the self-control mechanism they use to monitor and enhance comprehension" (Sheorey and Mokhtari 2001, p. 423), which is a critical component of skilled reading.

The purpose of my study was to explore the role of metacognitive strategies in L2 reading comprehension. The participants were University students who learn content subjects in English and were asked take reading comprehension test and to fill in metacognitive reading strategies questionnaire. The intention of this article is to discuss different metacognitive reading strategies used by the CLIL University learners.

2 Defining Metacognitive Awareness

Metacognition is defined as "knowledge about cognitive states and abilities that can be shared among individuals while at the same time expanding the construct to include affective and motivational characteristics of thinking" (Paris and Winograd 1990, p. 5). The term 'metacogntive awareness" is conceptualised as the 'knowledge of the readers' cognition relative to reading process and the self-control mechanism they use to monitor and enhance comprehension" (Sheorey and Mokhtari 2001, p. 432) which is critical of skilled reading.

Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) depicted efficient readers as strategic or "constructively responsive" readers who carefully orchestrate cognitive resources when reading. Similarly, "second language learners are not mere sponges acquiring the new language by osmosis alone. They are thinking, reflective beings who

consciously apply mental strategies to learning situations both in the classroom and outside of it" (Chamot 1987, p. 82). The reader, thus, must use metacognitive awareness and invoke conscious strategies in order to comprehend the text successfully. What distinguishes skilled readers from the unskilled is conscious awareness of the strategic reading process and actual usage of these reading strategies (Sheorey and Mokhtari 2001).

O'Malley et al. (1985, p. 506) stated that "metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the process, planning for learning, monitoring comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation of learning after the language activity is completed". Oxford (1990, p. 26), conversely, listed metacognitive reading strategy as one of the six strategies within the broader context of reading strategies that could be referred to as sub-strategies. These strategies are behaviours which include directed attention, self-assessment, organisation, goal setting and objectives and seeking opportunities for practice. The purpose of these strategies is to plan, arrange and assess one's own learning.

Brown (1980) provided the following examples of metacognitive strategies: clarifying the purposes of reading, identifying the important aspects of a message, monitoring ongoing activities to determine whether comprehension was occurring, engaging in self-questioning whether goals were being achieved and taking corrective action when failures in comprehension were detected.

3 Studies on Metacognitive Reading Strategies

In L2 reading research recent trends have led to an increasing emphasis on the role of metacognitive awareness. The importance of metacognitive awareness has been emphasised in studies conducted by Barnett (1988), Gelderen et al. (2003), Schoonen et al. (1998) who mainly investigated the relationship between reading comprehension, strategy use and perceived strategy use. Barnett (1988, p. 156) concluded that "students who effectively consider and remember context as they read (i.e. strategy use) understand more of what they read than students who employ this strategy less" Additionally, studies on reading strategies have focused on metacognition, emphasising how readers control, monitor, and assess the reading process. Phakiti (2003) reported the metacognitive reading strategies used by EFL students and the results suggested that the students who reported using significantly higher metacognitive strategies showed a better reading test performance. Taraban et al. (2004) also found that the use of metacognitive analytic reading strategies (e.g., evaluating reading goals and inferring) in reading school-related materials was associated with higher grade expectations, but that the use of metacognitive pragmatic reading strategies (e.g. such as underlining and highlighting) was not. Many researchers have concluded that metacognitive awareness grows with the age of the reader. In fact the older and more successful readers are more likely to approach different genres in different ways and utilise more reading strategies (Baker and Brown 1984; Paris et al. 1991). There is also some evidence to support the

relationship between metacognitive awareness and reading comprehension (Carrell et al. 1989; Palincsar and Brown 1984; Paris and Jacobs 1984). In L1 reading research, the training program called "Informed Strategies for Learning" taught 8–12-year olds what comprehension strategies are, how they operate, when they should be used, and why they are effective. This program proved effective in improving the reading abilities of all-aged children (Paris and Jacobs 1984).

For second language reading, there are a number of studies that examine the effectiveness of metacognitive training. Carrell et al. (1989) provided instruction in reading strategies to adult ELLs, who had various native language background (e.g., Chinese, French, Spanish, French, etc.). Instruction focused on four metacognitive awareness components: what the strategy is, why it should be used, how we use the strategy plus when and where strategies should be used. Besides the four components proposed by Carrell et al. (1989), Raymond's (1993) training program added another component to the training of English-speaking adults in the process of learning French: how to evaluate the use of particular strategies. The instructor in this study taught these five components to the participants in five sequential sessions. In both the above-mentioned L2 studies, it was found that strategy training improved ELLs' reading comprehension.

Since there has been very little information in the literature about the use of metacognitive reading strategies by CLIL learners a considerable interest exists for seeking the answer to the use of the metacognitive reading strategies by these learners.

4 CLIL and a CLIL Learner

"Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a common term for a number of similar approaches in Europe to teach content subjects through a foreign language. Other terms used are *Bilingual Content Teaching, Bilingual Subject Teaching* or *Content-based Language Teaching*" (Wolff 2003, p. 211). The term CLIL is now the most commonly used and "it is based on the assumption that foreign languages are best learnt by focusing in the classroom not so much on language but on the content which is transmitted through language. The novelty of this approach is that classroom content is not so much taken from everyday life but rather from content subjects e.g. mathematics, biology, geography etc." (Wolff 2003, pp. 211–222).

"In CLIL, the learner's role as a foreign language learner and as a content learner merge" (Wolff 2007, p. 19). This means that the learner acquires content subject and a new language at the same time. Wolff (2007, p. 19) compares this process to first language acquisition when a child learns a new language together with the underlying concepts. In second language learning the learner acquires the concepts through a second language. In CLIL the more complex the content is, the more advanced language skills are required. Although content and language learning are parallel processes in a CLIL classroom, there is a view that content of

particular subject can serve as a kind of scaffold for the language learning process. A lot of parents worry that their children who learn subjects in a foreign language may have problems. When looking at the CLIL classroom this view is not true. In most cases "the CLIL learner processes the content more deeply whereas the mother-tongue learner processes the content in a more shallow way"[1] Lamsfuß-Schenk (2002, pp. 191–206). As a result the CLIL learner in comparison to the mother-tongue learner is more successful at school.

It should be also mentioned that the CLIL learner develops a type of linguistic proficiency "which is characterized to a large extent by speech acts which belong to formal language registers" (Marsh and Wolff 2007, p. 20). The learners acquire a high linguistic proficiency due to the constant focus on the development of reading and writing skills. This high linguistic aptitude can be very beneficial in their future lives. High linguistic expertise is especially valued in working life.

In addition, CLIL learners develop a kind of academic competence. Cummins (1987, pp. 57–73) calls it *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)*. According to Cummins "learner use of language related to academic and not to everyday content makes the learner develop a type of linguistic proficiency which is characterised to a large extent by speech acts which belong to formal language registers" (Cummins 1987, p. 57).

In many cases, content that learners acquire is a complex one however, they prefer to work with this kind of content because "they are able to identify with it" (Wolff 2007, p. 20). Learners can easily identify with the content and become more involved and motivated.

The next feature of the CLIL learner is that during the process of learning he/she becomes more aware of the language. According to van Lier (1996), "Language awareness can be defined as an understanding of the human faculty of language and its role in thinking, learning and social life. It includes an awareness of power and control through language, and of the intricate relationships between language and culture" (van Lier 1996, p. 11).

5 The Current Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of metacognitive strategies in L2 reading comprehension among CLIL learners. For this purpose, the following research questions were posed:

- What kind of metacognitive strategies do the CLIL learners use in L2 reading comprehension?
- Are they aware of these strategies?
- Does the usage of metacognitve strategies in L2 reading comprehension differ among the 'more skilled' and 'less skilled' readers?

[1] The translation from German into English was done by the author of the article.

5.1 Participants of the Study

The participants were 53 2nd year students from the Department of Psychology (University of Silesia). Two of the courses were taught in English twice per week (90 min each). Their ages ranged from 20 to 23. This sample consisted of 35 females (66 %) and 18 males (34 %). They were all native Polish speakers who had learnt English for 10 and 15 years. All of them stated that apart from learning English at school they attended language schools or private classes. In order to get into the Department of Psychology and enrol into the courses offered in English, the candidates had to take the final secondary school examination in English (*Matura—the extended level*).

5.2 Data Collection Instruments

In order to identify the participants as less and more skilled in reading ability Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL®) in reading comprehension was conducted. The TOEFL® is used to check the level of English language proficiency of non-native speakers. It is used worldwide and recognised at many Universities, especially in the USA. TOEFL® consists of reading, listening, speaking and writing section but for the purpose of the study only the reading comprehension section was used. The reading comprehension test lasts from 60 to 80 min and it consists of 3 academic texts (article, argumentative essay and historical/biographical narrative) and around 50 questions (multiple choice or gapped). In the current study, participants with reading scores at the top 25 % of the sample on TOEFL® were identified as good readers and those at the bottom 25 % of the sample were identified as poor readers.

Additionally, *Metacognitive Reading Awareness Inventory (MRAI)* designed by Miholic (1994, p. 85) to assess college students' concrete and conscious awareness of reading strategies was used. It consists of 10 items representing four domains of metacognitive awareness such as monitoring and reading one's efforts during the course of reading to reach desired goals (questions 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, and 9), conditional knowledge of strategy application (question 3), planning the cognitive event (question 4) and evaluation of the process (questions 6 and 10). Each item may have more than one correct answer and responses that indicate metacognitive reading awareness have been provided by the author of the MRAI. Additionally, one open-ended question was added to the inventory, namely: *What else do you do when you have problems with reading? Please, provide your own answers.*

5.3 Study Implementation

The participants of the study had been informed about the purpose of the study (February 2012) and agreed to participate in it. The research was conducted in March 2012 during one of the classes being taught in English. Firstly, the participants of the study were asked to take TOEFL® reading comprehension test. The participants read the passages silently and were asked to answer the questions by choosing one from the multiple choices or filling in the gapped sentences. The test lasted 60 min. Subsequently, the tests were collected and the participants had a 10 min break. After the recess they were asked to fill in the *Metacognitive Reading Awareness Inventory (MRAI)* designed by Miholic (1994, p. 85). It took 30 min to complete the inventory. The participants of the study did not encounter any problems and did not have any questions while completing the inventory. The participants were informed that they would be provided with the results of the study.

6 Results

On the basis of TOEFL® test in reading comprehension more skilled and less skilled students in reading comprehension were indentified.

As it can be seen from Fig. 1, 61 % of the study participants were identified as more skilled readers, which means that their score was at the top 25 % of the sample of TOEFL® reading comprehension test, while 39 % of the study participants were identified as less skilled readers meaning that their score was at the bottom 25 % of the sample of TOEFL® reading comprehension test.

The data received from the TOEFL® reading comprehension test the answers provided in the *Reading Strategy Awareness Inventory* (Miholic, 1994, p. 85) (Appendix 1) were analysed. On the basis of the responses four metacognitve domains may be identified, namely: monitoring and reading one's efforts during

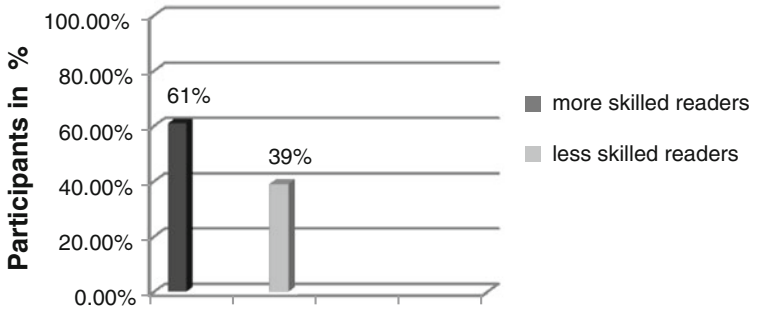


Fig. 1 More skilled versus less skilled readers

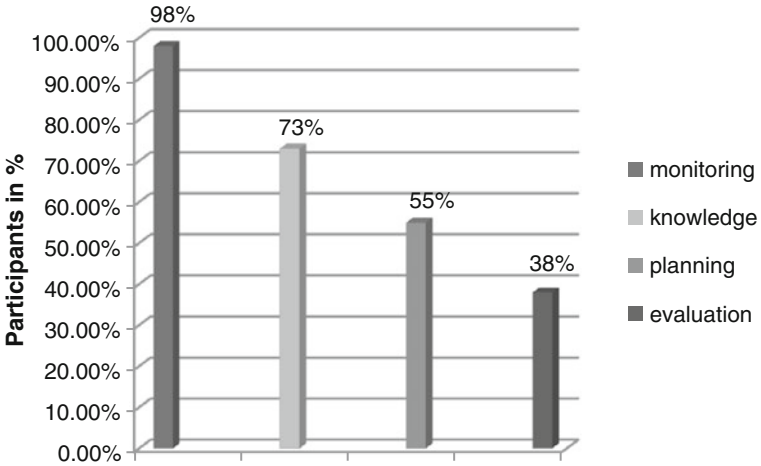


Fig. 2 More skilled readers

the course of reading to reach desired goals, application of the previous knowledge, planning the cognitive event and evaluation of one's processes. Firstly, the answers of the more skilled readers are to be presented and then the answers of the less skilled readers.

As it can be seen from the data provided above (Fig. 2), 98 % of the study participants monitor their reading process in order to reach desired goals. 73 % are aware of special reading strategies which they have to use in order to understand the text. 55 % of them carefully plan "reading event" and only 38 % evaluates their reading strategies.

There is a significant difference between the strategies applied by more skilled and less skilled readers. In the following diagram the answers provided by less skilled readers are provided.

As it can be seen from the data (Fig. 3), 33 % of the study participants monitor their course of reading in order to reach desired goals. 37 % of the study participants apply their previous knowledge while reading, 17 % plan the "reading event" and 12 % evaluate their reading process.

The participants of the study were asked one more open-ended question in which they were encouraged to say what they do when they have problems with reading in L2. The following answers were provided:

As it can be seen from the answers provided above (Table 1), students use various reading strategies in L2 when they have problems. In fact, whilst it is not important what kind of reading strategies in L2 they use, it is crucial that these strategies are effective and helpful.

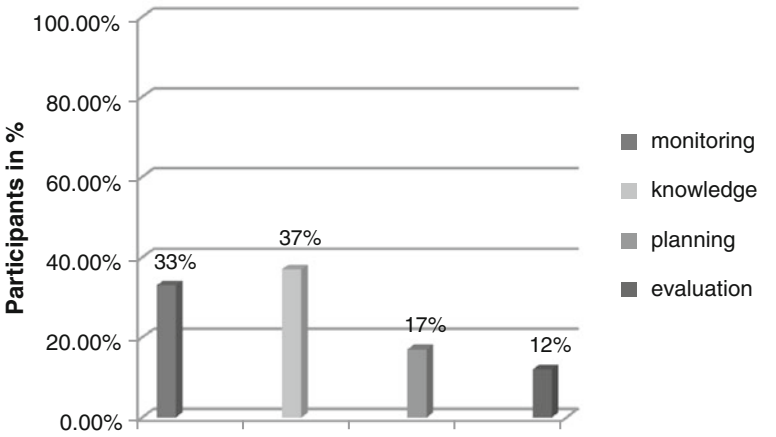


Fig. 3 Less skilled readers

Table 1 Students' answers concerning reading strategies in L2 when facing some problems

Students' answers
I always translate new vocabulary into Polish
I read the text aloud
I always use a monolingual dictionary
I read one paragraph and then I try to write a short summary of this paragraph
I analyse the context very carefully
I ask my teacher for help
I use the words around to figure the unknown word out
I read as many books as possible in English
I prepare myself before I start reading. I always try to think whether I know something about the subject
I read the text more than once
I leave the text for some time and go back to it again
I relate the new information to something I already know
I underline words that I don't know
I always think about what I'm reading and if I have a bad day and I can't concentrate I don't read at all
I read every day before I go to bed in order to be better and better in reading skills but I don't read at the weekends because I go clubbing and I'm too tired to read

7 Discussion

The main goal of the study was to investigate the role of metacognitive awareness in L2 reading comprehension among CLIL learners. What is more, the aim was to find out what kind of metcognitive strategies they use, whether they are aware of them and if the usage of metacognitive strategies differs among more skilled and less skilled readers. The results of the analyses show that all participants of the

study use some metacognitive strategies in L2 reading comprehension but not all of the CLIL participants are aware of them. However, when being asked what they do when encountering some problems with reading comprehension in L2 most of them enumerate the same reading strategies such as trying to read the text once again, analysing it paragraph by paragraph or using the words around to figure the unknown word out.

It has been mentioned previously that the literature concerning the use of metacognitive reading strategies in L2 especially among CLIL learners who are exposed to reading in a foreign language all the time is limited. Previous studies investigating the use of metacognitive reading strategies in L2 focused on the use of these strategies by more and less skilled readers. The data gathered from the current study shows that there is a significant difference as far as metacognitive strategies exist between more skilled and less skilled CLIL learners. The results do not go in tandem with data provided by Guo and Roehring (2011, p. 59) who found out that no particular differences existed among "good readers" and "poor readers" as far as metacognitive strategies in L2 reading comprehension are concerned. They conducted their research among Chinese-speaking university students who did not learn subjects in English but learnt English as an additional subject at the University. Additionally, they also checked the role of vocabulary and syntactic awareness. In the case of my studies, CLIL learners who received higher score in TOEFL® reading comprehension test were also more aware of the cognitive strategies that they apply while analysing the text. On the other hand, CLIL learners who received a lower score in TOEFL® reading comprehension test were only partly aware of the cognitive strategies that they apply while analysing the text. The metacognitive strategy that all CLIL learners were most aware of was the application of the previous knowledge while reading the analysing the text. This finding proves that if the CLIL learners are more aware of their reading strategies which they apply while dealing with a text, they have fewer problems with understanding the text and therefore do better at L2 reading comprehension tests.

8 Conclusions

While dealing with reading comprehension activities in the CLIL environment, it should be remembered that reading comprehension is goal-oriented and may be defined as searching for meaning and sense. In the CLIL environment, this goal is not only to develop reading comprehension skills or search for meaning of particular words but also to expand content knowledge. Secondly, reading comprehension is the act of interpretation. Comprehension is a highly active constructive process, and it is here that the key to language learning as well as content learning lay. Furthermore, the process of reading comprehension is dynamic and strategic. In other words, the best idea is to introduce techniques and activities which will not be monotonous for the CLIL students and which will require the use of different reading strategies.

There is an implication of a need for future research to verify the results obtained from the current study, especially as the data was collected within a short period of time. The question that still remains unanswered is why there was no difference as far as the awareness of metacognitive strategies used in L2 reading comprehension between "good" and "poor" Chinese readers is concerned and there was a significant difference between the "more" and "less" skilled CLIL readers? Presumably, there is a difference between the way the Chinese students are taught English and the European students. The Chinese seem to be more exposed to the written word and therefore they pay more attention to various reading strategies at the very beginning of their language education. Despite the possible conclusions that have been drawn from this study, it is necessary to emphasise that this study needs to be repeated with larger samples. It would also a good idea to conduct a similar study among Polish university students who do not learn subjects in a foreign language and to see whether the results obtained from the study correspond to the ones obtained from the Chinese study (Guo and Roehring 2011). Future longitudinal and experimental studies may shed more light in the estimation of casual influence.

References

Anderson, R. C. and P. D. Pearson. 1984. A schema-thematic view of basic processes in reading comprehension. In: *Handbook of reading research* eds. P. D. Pearson, R. Barr, M. L. Kamil and P. Mosenthal, 255–291. New York: Longman.

Baker, L. and A. L. Brown. 1984. Metacognitive skills and reading. In *Handbook of reading research Vol. III*, eds. P. D. Pearson, R. Barr, M. L. Kamil and P. Mosenthal, 353–394. New York: Longman.

Barnett, M. A. 1988. Reading through context: How real and perceived strategy use affects L2 comprehension. *Modern Language Journal* 72: 155–162.

Brown, A. L. 1980. Metacognitive development and reading. In: *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension.*, eds. R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce and W. F. Brewer, 453–481. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Carrell, P. L., B. G. Pharis and J. C. Liberto. 1989. Metacognitive strategy training for ESL reading. *TESOL Quarterly* 23: 647–678.

Chamot, A. U. 1987. The learning strategies of ESL students. In *Learner strategies in language learning*, eds. A. Wenden and J. Rubin, 71–84. London: Prentice-Hall.

Gelderen, A. V., R. Schoonen, K. D. Glooper, J. Hulstijin, A. Simis, P. Snellings, A. Smith and M. Stevenson. 2003. Roles of linguistic knowledge, metacognitive knowledge and processing speed in L3, L2 and L1 reading comprehension: A structural equation modeling approach. *The International Journal of Bilingualism* 1: 7–25.

Guo, Y. and A. D. Roehring. 2011. Roles of general versus second language (L2) knowledge in L2 reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 23(1): 42–64.

Hillocks, Jr. G. 1987. Synthesis of research on teaching writing. *Educational Leadership* 44(8): 71–82.

Lamsfuβ-Schenk, S. 2002. Geschichte und Sprache. Ist der bilinguale Geschichtsunterricht der Könidsweg zum Geschichtsbewusstsein? In: *Bilingualer Sachfachunterricht, Lehrer-Lernef-orschung und Bildungspolitik zwischen Theorie und Empirie, Schriften zu Bilingualismus und*

Bilingualem Sachfachunterricht 1, eds. G. Bach, S. Breidbach and D. Wolff, 191–206. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

O'Malley, J. M., A. U. Chamot, G. Stewner-Mazanares, R. Russo and L. Kupper 1985. Learning strategies applications with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly* 19: 285–296.

Oxford, R. 1990. *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Palincsar, A. S. and A. L. Brown. 1984. Reciprocal teaching of comprehension fostering and monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction* 1: 117–175.

Paris, S. G., B. A. Wasik and J. C. Turner. 1991. The development of strategic readers. In *Handbook of reading research Vol. 2*, eds. R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal and P. D. Pearson, 609–640. New York: Longman.

Paris, S. G. and P. Winograd. 1990. How metacognition can promote academic learning and instruction. In *Dimensions of thinking and cognitive instruction.*, eds. B. F. Jones and L. Idol, 15–51. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Paris, S. G. and J. E. Jacobs, 1984. The benefits of informed instruction for children's reading awareness and comprehension skills. *Child Development* 55: 2083–2093.

Phakiti, A. 2003. A closer look at the relationship of cognitive and metacognitive strategy use to EFL reading achievement test performance. *Language Testing* 20(1): 26–56.

Pressley, M. and P. Afflerbach. 1995. *Verbal protocols of reading: The nature of constructively responsive reading.* Hillsadale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Raymond, P. M. 1993. The effects of structural strategy training on the recall of expository prose for university students reading French as a second language. *Modern Language Journal* 77: 445–458.

Schoonen, R., J. Hulstijn and B. Bossers. 1998. Metacognitive and language-specific knowledge in native and foreign language reading comprehension: An empirical study among Dutch students in grade 6, 8 and 10. *Language Learning* 48: 71–106.

Sheorey, R. and K Mokhtari. 2001. Differences in the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies among native and non-native readers. *System* 29: 431–449.

Taraban, R., K. Rynearson and M. S. Kerr. 2004. Analytic and pragmatic factors in college students' metacognitive reading strategies. *Reading Psychology* 25(2): 67–81.

van Lier, L. 1996. *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. London: Longman.

Wolff, D. 2003. *Content and language integrated learning: A framework for the development of learner autonomy*. In *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: Teacher, learner, curriculum and assessment*, eds. D. Little, J. Ridley and E. Ushioda, 211–222. Dublin: Authentik.

Wolff, D. 2007. CLIL: Bridging the gap between school and working life. In *Diverse contexts – converging goals. CLIL in Europe*, eds. D. Marsh and D. Wolff, 15–26. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang GmbH.

Part III
Culture

What's in a Name? Naming Habits in Polish and Portuguese Food Culture

Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Abstract Much intercultural misunderstanding comes from different conceptualisations of some constructs. It is important to observe the uniqueness of perceptions of culturally-grounded phenomena and how they function in different languages: in one's native language versus a second/foreign language being acquired/learnt. The importance of cross-linguistic understanding of culturally-grounded concepts is a prerequisite for the development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), understood as the ability to participate successfully in L2/FL discourse(s), and for being inter-culturally competent. (Gabryś-Barker 2011). One aspect of conceptualization which may be seen as contributing to intercultural understanding is expressed by the way we name things, which seems to me to be very culture-grounded, and therefore expressing certain values and patterns of human behaviour characteristic of certain nationals. The language habits I am particularly interested in here are those observed in the ways restaurants are named in the two culturally distinct contexts, of Portugal and Poland. The choice of this area was determined by my (maybe idiosyncratic) perception of its significance in Portugal and its relative insignificance in Poland. Naming habits can not only be read as expressing concern for food and its culture in a given society but, it seems to me, they go much deeper in describing peoples' underlying value systems. The present study looks at the corpus of restaurant names in Aveiro (Portugal) and Gliwice (Poland), which are two pretty homogenous places. They are both well-off towns of medium size, with academic and research centres in the sciences. The analysis presented here are quantitative and qualitative but focus mostly on the qualitative aspect, searching the origins of restaurant names and extrapolating from these into more culturally-grounded interpretation. The study is a continuation of previous projects which were set in the same comparative Polish-Portuguese context and investigated different cultural constructs of offence and flattery (Gabrys-Barker 2008) and perceptions of time (Gabryś-Barker 2011).

D. Gabryś-Barker (✉)
University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland
e-mail: danutagabrys@hotmail.com

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_14,

1 Introduction

When looking through the history of teaching and learning foreign languages and particularly that of English, we can observe that development leads 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 moved 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 lead 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 leading 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 the issues of national identity are raised more and more often as some nations feel threatened by this standardization process.

National cultures are built of symbols, heroes and rituals on the surface, and values in their deep structure (Hofstede 1994). Symbols are expressed externally by the code of non-verbal communication (e.g. gestures), dressing styles and daily behavioural patterns such as ways of greeting each other, ways of conversing or behaving at the table, choice of meals and places to eat, and approaches to religious practice. Appadurai (1990) considers lifestyles and their manifestation, such as clothes or food, as soft cultural forms that bear hardly any relation to values as they can be easily changed under the influence of other lifestyles. A good example of this could perhaps be the impact of American culture in various spheres of life, such as food for instance. Does the popularity of such food chains as *McDonald's* mean that the values they also represent become part of the culture on which it is imposed?

In the study presented in this article I would like to discuss the extent to which the way we name things expresses certain values and patterns of human behaviour characteristic of certain nationals. The language habits I am particularly interested in here are those observed in the ways restaurants are named in two culturally distinct contexts, those of Portugal and Poland. The choice of this study area was determined by my personal perception of the strongly pronounced significance of food culture in the Portuguese context and its relative insignificance in Poland. Naming habits should not only be read as expressing concern for food and its consumption in a given society but, it seems to me, they go much deeper in describing peoples' underlying value systems. The awareness of language used in naming things, places, people, etc., like language awareness as it is generally understood, may mean:

- awareness of cognitive aspects of language: conceptual (semantic) and formal (grammatical and metacognitive)
- emotional sensitivity with reference to the affective domain of language use (e.g. influencing attitudes) and determined by not just the interlocutor him or herself but by cultural norms in which a given language functions
- social awareness of what is appropriate in a given context (Donmall 1985, p. 7)

This study is a continuation of my research into culture-grounded issues. Previously discussed issues related to flattery and offence (Gabryś-Barker 2008), perceptions of time (Gabryś-Barker 2011) and space (work in progress).

2 Naming Habits

It has been known ever since Levi-Strauss's work at the beginning of the twentieth century that linguistic features of language demonstrate the cultural patterns, values and beliefs held by a given society. In *The Savage Mind* he demonstrated how proper names are assigned reflecting kinship relationships and the social structure of the community studied. Numerous studies that followed pointed to differences observed in naming and addressing people in different languages and cultures.

As Sharpe says:

> We are all born into a time, and we all inherit the cultural view of that period (…) sharing of background knowledge amounts to sharing cultural values. These values help to bring order and predictability into people's use of language by creating norms that make people′s actions more readily intelligible. (…) members of a speech community get to know these values though socialization (2009, p. 78).

At the same time, he adds that culture is not a constant and it "runs like a river through each successive society, its currents becoming even deeper and more varied as time passes" (ibid., p. 79). Thus, also naming habits will change as values and beliefs change with passing time. Among other things, the development of technology, modes and intensity of intercultural communication impose a new outlook on what was strongly ingrained as unique to a given nation. In other words, globalization, as mentioned earlier, deprives us of our uniqueness as communities functioning within their own value and belief systems.

However, some domains of life may show more resistance to this standardization than others. These will be the ones that we take particular pride in, as being our major achievements and which are historically-grounded. One of them, I believe, is food culture, which functions as part of one's national heritage. For example, some nations are famous and admired for their cuisine as uniquely their own (Indian, Chinese), some follow others if a certain food culture seems more suitable to their faster lifestyle (American food), some nations adopt foreign cuisines in their own kitchens as preferential to their own (the British). But food culture does not mean only what we eat; it also means the whole context of food

consumption: times and length of meals, places chosen for a meal or most importantly, who we share our meals with and the value we attach to the act of eating in relation to other daily activities, for example work.

When we find ourselves in unfamiliar (for us) territory, the choice of a place to eat will be determined by a variety of factors. One of them, probably not a decisive one, will be the name of the place. The name will certainly be the first sign that captures our attention in terms of its informative value (type of cuisine the place offers), rating (fine dining vs. casual) or perhaps its originality or typicality. In our foreign travels, we usually tend to look for restaurants that call themselves *typical of the region* as being most appealing, which unfortunately is rarely the case since this serves mainly as a means to attract tourists. Globalizing processes have eliminated a lot of names that were regional or historically-grounded—which were often perceived in some way as provincial and lacking in modernity. Maybe these are more commonly found in places less popular with tourists. At the same time, however, we observe certain changes of attitude, with the old coming back and regionalisms being revived. Such signs can mark the uniqueness of a place.

How does one choose a restaurant name? A variety of sources provide prospective "restauranteurs" with guidelines on criteria for selecting a successful name for a new restaurant. Citing just one source here, they relate to:

- location as a source for a name (local attractions such as historical places or natural phenomena—a lake or a river):

> Often times naming a restaurant is simple. The owners take a cue from their restaurant's location. (…) *The French Laundry*, in Napa valley, California, is one of the countries most esteemed restaurants. Its name stems from the fact the restaurant building once housed a French steam laundry during the nineteenth century. The building was also once a brothel, but the restaurant owners wisely stayed away from incorporating that name (http://restaurants.about.com)

- concept of the restaurant in terms of the offered cuisine (local or foreign, such as Indian or Chinese, either a fine dining and upscale or a casual one) to be reflected in its name:

> Choosing a restaurant name can also come from a theme on a menu. Chinese restaurants do this perfectly, with names like *Jade Palace, Fortune Fountain,* and *The New Great Wall.* Each of these restaurants names let customers know that they serve Chinese food. For example, if you are serving authentic Mexican food, calling the restaurant *Giovanni's* will confuse your patrons, who may think you serve Italian food. (*ibid*.)

- adding a personal touch to the name:

> Opening a restaurant is like having another child in many ways. Sometimes a restaurant's name is a reflection of the owner's name or someone dear to them. (…) Perhaps your grandmother influenced your joy of cooking, so you might name your restaurant after her. Whatever the meaning behind your restaurant′s name, be prepared to share it with the public, who love a good story (*ibid*.)

- base the name on a play on words:

> Paula Deen's first restaurant business was called *The Bag Lady*, because she and her sons went around delivering bagged lunches to local businessmen. (…) Fun restaurant names

have nothing to do with food, are usually easy to remember, and pass on by the word of mouth. (ibid.)

- avoidance of names close to trademarked restaurants (e.g. a variation on a well-known name such as McDonalds) to eliminate legal trouble.
- easy spelling or pronunciation, thus easy to find on the Internet (its website)

In this study I would like to see which of the above criteria are relevant and to what extent they reflect the deeper values of the culture they represent in the national contexts under investigation

3 Importance of Food in National Cultures: The Case of Portugal

World-renowned cuisines such as Indian or Chinese do not require much advertisement or recommendation. Indian and Chinese restaurants are everywhere in the world and, curiously enough, the Indian dish *chicken tikka massala* has been pronounced Britain's favourite meal. Portuguese cuisine is not so well-known, though as might be expected when asked about it, we would come up with the idea that it must be mainly sea food and fish, taking into consideration the stereotype of the Portuguese as a nation of fishermen. But for Portuguese people, food culture is one of the leading issues which comes up when its people present their beloved country. Portugal is sometimes represented in guide books as a country symbolized by four Fs: football, Fatima, fado and food. The best example of the significance of the fourth F—*food* is the film produced and available on YouTube entitled: *What Finns should know about Portugal.* It is a five-minute list of things for which Portugal is, or should be, known. References to its famous period of geographical discoveries and to Portugal's maritime empire in the modern era, mentioned as major Portuguese achievements, are greatly outnumbered by the praise given to food. Here are a few examples:

We invented the salted cod/pastel de nata (custard tart)
In most cultures, parts of pork are eaten. In others it is not eaten. The Portuguese on the other hand eat the whole pig. We even invented the dish with its entrails.
We taught the English to drink tea. And the first English Queen to drink it was Portuguese.
Our national dish is fished in Norway—4000 *kms away.*
We invented the Japanese tempura.
The Portuguese massa tenra pastry *is the basis of the Chinese rolls.*
We were the ones who took chilli to India, without us there be no curry.
We invented rosė. We sell rose. But do not drink rose. (You Tube)

This overwhelming concern and pride taken by the Portuguese in their achievements in food and cooking are reflected in a whole array of cultural events related to gastronomy. Annual *Festas de Gastronomia* are regular events of regional food eating with *folclóricos (*folk singing and dancing), for example *Festa*

Leitão Bairrada runs every August. Last year's *Sete Maravilhas de Gastronomia* (Seven Gastronomic Wonders) demonstrates the seriousness of this loving attitude of Portuguese towards their regional foods and a sign of the greatness of Portugal these days as they see it, which otherwise would be difficult to demonstrate given the difficulties the country is facing at the moment. Last year, at the peak of the debt crisis, Portugal organized this large-scale food competition, in which each region of the country was to enter on-line the list of their best regional foods in seven different categories as contenders for the best Portuguese dish:

> Candidatures to this competition were open to any company, restaurant or individual who could present a recipe that was more than 50 years old, **"genuine and represented traditional Portuguese values"**. (www)

The competition took 6 months from the initial listings, to the semi-final and the final celebration with the red carpet, fireworks and envelops holding the names of the winners, like an American-style Oscar ceremony. This represents a passion for food, but not just any food. It is love for Portuguese food and thus, for Portugal itself. Portuguese people may equivocate about themselves as patriotic but most visibly they are. The event was even reported in the British press at the time it took place. The Portuguese fight for their food and its position in their own markets, which is demonstrated for example, by recent articles in the national Portuguese chapter *Jornal de Notícias* (10th February 2012) under the titles: *Europa ataca o nosso bacalhau (*Europe attacks our cod)—on EU new ways of processing fish or *Querem acabar com o bacalhau português* (They want to finish off Portuguese cod).

Unfortunately, food and in particular the restaurant industry, are not doing as well now as they did in the past in Portugal and it is not only EU restrictive practices but the crisis which has made quite a few restaurants go bankrupt. The question is whether it will affect people′s attitude and practices in relation to food. Probably not, as enough places will remain to eat well and relatively cheaply. Informed sources maintain that food and eating are essential components of the Portuguese character. António Sobral, an academic from the Universidade de Lisboa, gave an interview to a Polish magazines (*Poradnik Domowy* no 4 (260), April 2012, pp. 72–73) in which he confessed "Our lives revolve around waiting for the next meal (…) Our lunch lasts 3 h, we walk to it slowly to develop an appetite as a Portuguese proverb says *Appetite is the best spice*. (…) Lunch places are close to work, as we do not like to walk; we know the place, the waiter knows us and we chat, we study the menu, we do not do anything when eating because it is not advised during digestion, except for perhaps talking, and talking about food. (…) Then we go back to work with the prospect of dinner later on". Maybe this is a slightly exaggerated, ironical picture but it is given by a native Portuguese brought up in this food culture.

Do we as Poles hold the same views about Polish food? How important is it in our lives, as part of our culture and the values we hold? I am not at all sure. We seem to have easily adopted foreign cuisines and almost every town boasts at least one Indian or Chinese restaurant, to say nothing of more upmarket types of food

(e.g. French) and most certainly, we will find *McDonald's, Pizza Hut* or *KFC*, not to mention various smaller venues catering for the lovers of kebabs or some such. Where are the *bigos, pancakes* and *pierogi* places? Indeed, there are more and more of these coming into existence but they usually occupy much more modest places and are more casual in their décor. They serve simple food, no fuss. Portuguese food is also simple, however it is served with greater admiration and ceremony. Furthermore, the Polish attitude to food changes when we leave the country and become immigrants. We "take" our *bigos* or *kielbasa* with us and we miss our Polish bread when living abroad. It is interesting that a place like London which is popular with both Poles and Portuguese, has 25 Polish restaurants, compared with only 15 Portuguese, not to mention numerous Polish delis and regular shops.

4 Study: Research Focus and Tools

The first area of research of this project relates to Polish and Portuguese perceptions of the different dimensions of a given culture and their importance for developing intercultural communicative competence understood as

> (…) part of a broader foreign speaker competence which identifies the ability of a person to behave adequately and in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures. Adequacy and flexibility imply an awareness of the cultural differences between one's own and the foreign culture and the ability to handle cross-cultural problems which result from these differences. Intercultural competence includes the capacity of establishing one′s identity in the process of cross-cultural mediation and of helping other people to stabilise their self-identity (Buttjes and Byram 1991, p. 137).

The analysis of the data focuses on perceptions of food and its importance in two language learning contexts: for Polish as a foreign language and for Portuguese as a foreign language.

The second research area relates to language awareness and more precisely awareness of how restaurant names—if at all—reflect national values and beliefs. The study looks at the restaurant names in two contexts, Polish and Portuguese. Thus two towns were chosen for this analysis, Gliwice in Poland and Aveiro in Portugal. Although Gliwice is a bigger settlement of almost two hundred thousand inhabitants compared to Aveiro's ninety thousand, they are comparable in character. Both towns are academic and research centres in sciences: chemical, electrical and computer ones, with two educational institutions of high status, the Silesian Polytechnic and University of Aveiro. Certainly one important difference lies in the fact that Aveiro is also a tourist centre, the picturesque *Venice of Portugal* with its colourful canals and *moliceiros* (traditional decorated fishing boats), whereas Gliwice though a very important regional centre, cannot aspire to being a tourist attraction on the same scale. However, Gliwice is considered to be the most attractive town in Silesia and largely untouched by its past association

with coal mining. Both towns are pretty well-off and it shows in their fairly well-preserved architecture, parks, sports facilities and shopping centres. Apart from considering eating venues in the centres of these towns, I also include their suburbs, as eating out of town has grown fast these days and became a fashionable activity.

The study consisted of two stages in which different data collection tools were used (Table 1).

5 Data

5.1 Perceptions of Culture and Its Dimensions and the Place of Food Culture (Stage 1)

The subjects were asked to evaluate the degree of importance of the proposed categories to their L1 culture in the context of foreign language instruction:

Imagine you are asked to write a syllabus for a ***Polish/Portuguese as a foreign language course*** *(intermediate level) which assumes the centrality of cultural issues and the development of intercultural communicative competence. Which of the following aspects of Polish/Portuguese culture would you consider for inclusion in the syllabus? Mark your choices on the scale of importance and comment on them.*

Table 2 presents the data collected from both groups of subjects.

For the Polish subjects, the highest score was assigned to holidays and customs, and then to behavioural patterns and cultural achievements, whereas political life, social issues and religion were discarded as having no significant relation to Polish culture. In trying to interpret these responses, we need to separate carefully what the subjects really think from the attitudinal responses, such as those negative ones towards religion, for example. There is no question that in Polish history, religion and most particularly the Catholic religion and the Catholic church, have played a significant role in preserving our national identity, in preserving customs related to the major holidays of Christmas and Easter, among others. The negative attitude to the church, but also to politics, presented here by the subjects results from what they observe in public life today and what the media imposes on them. Politics is everywhere in Poland, every act is political. Unfortunately, there seems to be very

Table 1 Study description

Stages	Study focus	Tools
1	* Dimensions of culture	A survey administered to two comparable groups of subjects (29 Polish and 22 Portuguese university students)
	* Food as culture	A narrative on food culture: *Do you think that the food culture of a given nation reflects the values of this nation?*
2	* Corpus of names	Gliwice and Aveiro restaurants (internet listings)

Table 2 Subjects' perceptions of different dimensions of culture

Categories of culture important in FL instruction	Important Pol. versus Port. (%)	Not important Pol. versus Port. (%)
Cultural achievements (literature, arts, etc.)	75–**81**	25–19
Significant historical events	70–**87**	30–13
Geographical location	72–73	28–27
Holidays and customs	**99**–68	1–32
Sports	28–23	72–**77**
Food culture	**73–77**	27–23
Behavioural patterns	**83–**52	17–48
Social issues (unemployment, single mothers, minorities, etc.)	28–50	**72–**50
Political life	14–50	**86–**50
Religion	28–13	**71–87**

Pol Polish, *Port* Portuguese

little deeper reflection on how these two, religion and politics, show who we are as a nation.

In the case of the Portuguese group, historical events and cultural achievements were seen as fundamental to an understanding of Portuguese culture. On the other hand, religion and sports were pronounced unimportant as cultural categories. The great esteem the Portuguese hold for their history relates mostly to the past period of great discoveries and to the times of Portuguese sea and colonial power. Religion is still often associated with the repressive period of Salazar, when the church accommodated itself to the oppression of the previous century, Thus it has been rejected as an unimportant dimension of Portuguese culture However, as in the case of Poles and religion, here the period of totalitarian rule has left a lot of traces in Portuguese mentality. Portugal is still a Catholic country, but it is mostly the older generation that fills the churches during Sunday masses. Young people have turned away from Catholicism and if they are religious, they have tended to choose other religions. What comes as a surprise in the survey is a strong negative response to sports, which especially in the case of the Portuguese would seem to be important and always in the news, mostly in relation to football. Maybe it is so because 90 % of the Portuguese subjects were girls.

On the one dimension which is of interest to this study, food, it is perceived by both groups as an important domain of culture, which of course ties in with holidays and customs.

In the narrative on *Do you think that the food culture of a given nation reflects the values of this nation*?, the food culture of a given nation was perceived as reflecting the cultural values of that nation by 98 % of the subjects. Table 3 demonstrates the main factors the subjects perceived as relevant to how food fits within the wider culture of a nation (Table 3).

Both the Polish and the Portuguese see the connections between history and food traditions, which are demonstrated in the types of food and customs of eating during (religious) holidays such as Christmas and Easter. However, what also

Table 3 Factors shaping food culture of a nation

Polish versus Portuguese	Factors influencing food culture identified by the subjects
Polish	Attachment to history and tradition traditions and importance of family food preparation and consumption (time devoted to, not food itself) helps to understand the nation (what is appropriate what is not, what is values and what is not) health care role in national holidays geographical location (climate) (fast) life style (Americans) and attitude to life globalization makes the culture-grounded perception of food decrease influence of foreign cuisines (Indian) importance of food is different in different countries intertwined with behavioural patterns (celebrating the meals) social status of a family relationships
Portuguese	Historical events and historical traditions food geographically influenced religion social status and economic situation of the country food as important for tourists (image of the country) globalization health issues relationships

surfaces very strongly in the data is a current concern to eat healthily (which most certainly is demonstrated in global trends to eat more vegetables and fish and to eliminate sugars and fats). On the other hand, the subjects emphasize the global character of what we eat that fits in with the lifestyles of a modern person, as in America, where not much time is spent on food preparation and one needs to eat fast as time is money. Thus, a significant part of modern cuisine and eating habits is demonstrated in the popularity of fast food outlets. Also, food culture as expressed by eating habits is perceived as an important aspect of relationships and what families can afford to buy and eat.

Polish subjects most strongly emphasized that food culture demonstrates certain styles and attitudes to life, certain values and priorities that people have. These were first of all, the importance of family and family bonds built by sharing meals at the same time and in the same place. Also food culture determined certain behavioural patterns, and not only necessarily relating to how to behave at the table but roles in preparing food, the shared responsibility of a couple or husband and wife. The subjects acknowledge very markedly the importance of foreign cuisines in Polish food culture, which does not seem to figure in Portuguese comments.

Portuguese comments, much more sparingly when compared with the Polish, emphasize the way the economy of the country determines how and what they eat. As in the past, when Portugal was one of the poorest countries in Europe and cheap fish and potatoes were the basic foods, now when the times of crisis have imposed certain restrictions on people's lives, food culture seems to be degrading in the eyes of the respondents. This is probably not the case for tourists who come on their holidays to Portugal, and for whom, according to the subjects, Portuguese food culture is sometimes tailored.

The attitudes and reflections on food culture and national values expressed in the narratives show a great overlap between the perceptions held by Polish and Portuguese subjects. They admit to common categories of importance but they interpret those categories differently.

5.2 Restaurant Names (Stage 2)

In my analysis of restaurant names I eliminated the names of fast food ventures as they are operated as chains and both the type and the names of these places are generic. Every town of any size will have *McDonald's*, possibly *KFC* and most certainly, some sort of pizza delivery franchise (like *Tele-pizza* or.*Pizza Hut*), and so do Gliwice and Aveiro.

Apart from the fast food places, Gliwice has 37 restaurants, whereas Aveiro has 61, so the city which has less than half the population has almost twice as many restaurants. Not to mention the fact that in Portugal such places as *cafes*, *bars* and *pastelerias* function partially as restaurants that serve hot lunches daily.

5.2.1 Gliwice

Over a period of more than 50 years, I have observed the changes that have occurred in my hometown Gliwice with respect to the restaurants functioning in the town. These changes demonstrate quite well certain trends universally seen across the world: the disappearance of traditionally named places in prime locations and the appearance of fashionable and popular fast food ventures. For example the *Polonia* restaurant was replaced by the *McDonald's* franchise, whereas the *Mysliwska* restaurant was shut down and the place was rented to *KFC*, later on to *Pizza Hut.* Funnily enough, even Pizza Hut did not survive as it was replaced by one of the biggest foreign-operated banks. The sign of our times?

Table 4 shows examples of Gliwice restaurants classified into five name groups.

In the names of restaurants in Gliwice, the dominating category is place. In some cases the restaurant takes its name from the function of the place before, for example *Stary Browar* (Old Brewery) which is located in the place of the former brewery, whereas *Spichlerz* (Corn Shed) used to be the place where corn was stored in the past. This trend is quite visible these days as a popular naming habit.

Table 4 Gliwice restaurant names (selected examples)

Category	Place	Historical/ literary	Proper names	Nature	Type of food
Names	Gazdówka	Secesja	Gabriella	Gospoda	Winharmonia
	Kuźnica	Patria	Kala Food	pod Wiązem	Naleśnikarnia
	Karczma Chłopska	Spartan	Marko	Grota	
	Siedlisko	Bachus	*La Perla*	Puszta	
	Spichlerz	Babilon	Lerico–Klub Hemingway	Tajemniczy Ogród	
	Stara Chata	Mag	Campagnola	Zodiak	
	Stary Browar				
	Casa Austria				
	Capri				

Also charm is attached to places related to farming and village inhabitants and restaurant names reflect that, for example *Stara Chata* (Old Hut) or *Karczma Chłopska* (Peasants' Inn). This is not very typical of industrial Silesia and the city character of Gliwice. Other names express a certain longing for places such as *Capri* for instance. Proper names used as restaurant names very seldom seem to be Polish ones, as even their spelling is foreign (usually English), e.g. *Gabriella* or *Kala Food*, not to mention those which are totally foreign borrowings, e.g. *Campagnola* or *Lerico.*

Another category of names demonstrates our longing for nature in the middle of the Silesian landscape and thus, we can enjoy our meals in *Gospoda pod Wiązem* (The Elms′ Inn), *Tajemniczy Ogród* (The Secret Garden) or *Puszta* (Dense Forest) in the middle of the town. Our Polish attachment to historical, literary or symbolic subjects is expressed by *Spartan, Bachus* and *Babilon* among others. Hardly any restaurant advertises itself by marking their speciality types of food; the only exception is *Naleśnikarnia* (Pencake Place) and a few little bars serving *pierogi* (dumplings).

5.2.2 Aveiro

Five groups have also been identified in the case of Aveiro restaurant names, but they are not the same five (Table 5):

Table 5 Aveiro restaurant names (selected examples)

Category	Proper names	Type of food	Sea-related	Place	Related to royalty
Names	Abilio Marques	A Grelha do Chef	A Barca	Restaurante	Cozinha do Rei,
	Adega do Evaristo	Peixaria	A Nau	do Lago do Meliá Ria	O Infante
	Adega	Bitoque	Bombordo	Cervejeria	Real Cozinha Velha
	S.Gonçalinho	e Francesinha	Doca	do Rossio	
	Alexiandre	Café com Natas	Marinhas	Salpoente	
	Batista	Sopa do Mar	Moliceiro	Telheiro	
	João Capela	Galetos Dourados		S. Roque A tasca do Confrade	
	Tia Micas	Tourigalo		Convivio Solar	
	Zico	Cagaréu		de Estátuas,	
	Donna Picanha	Restaurante Octavio dos Leitões, Cebolieros		Mercantel	

Proper names used as restaurant names are usually personal identification of the owner or his/her family (e.g. *Tia Micas*), often diminutives to express affection for the person, perhaps known to the locals. The type of food in the name emphasizes proudly the speciality of the house used to attract the attention of prospective patrons. Aveiro is a harbour and its location on the *ria* and the ocean is also well reflected in the restaurant names which evoke images of a port *Bombordo*, a dock *Doca* and the ships and boats characteristic of the region, cf. *Moliceiro*. Eating is an occasion to socialize and make friends, hence *A Tasca do Confrade* or *Convivio* offer cosy places to enjoy company over a meal.

Names of restaurants on the outskirts of Aveiro or on the main roads leading to the town often advertise the type of food, for example chicken (*frango*) or roasted piglet (*leitões*), that these places specialize in. Either royal references are made or names of the restaurant owner or his family are incorporated into the restaurant names:

> Rei do Frango, Rainha do Frango, Senhor do Frango, Casa do Frango, Reino do Frango, Império do Frango, Rei dos Leitões, Marquês dos Frangos,
> (King of Chicken, Queen of Chcken, Mr Chicken, House of Chicken, Kingdom of Chicken, Empire of Chicken, King of Roasted Piglet, Marquess of Chicken)
> and *Restaurnante Octavio dos Leitões, Pedro dos Leitões, Linhares dos Leitões.* (Restaurant of Octavio of Roasted Piglet, Pedro of Roasted Piglet, Linhares of Roasted Piglet).

Evoking royal connections can be seen as ennobling the food served and affirming its quality. Most of these restaurants are family-run and frequented by the same customers, mostly locals, who not only know the place but also the owner and his/her family. So familiarity is evoked by the name: familiarity of the place, the quality of the food and an occasion for socializing, an enjoyable *festa de gastronomia* is assured. Both royal and family names demonstrate that the Portuguese value their food and eating occasions, which means to them so much more than the act of obtaining nourishment. It is a form of celebration in the company of the people with whom they are friendly and with whom they share these values. No wonder that such an occasion may last 3 h.

As a tourist and desiring food and good restaurant experiences in Portugal, one needs to be aware how to recognize the signs of a good place to eat and enjoy oneself. Certainly places like the restaurants enumerated above, although they may seem limited in what they offer by their names—just a chicken or a roasted piglet, they usually offer anything one might wish to eat. Their owners take pride in this one chosen specialist dish, but of course, it does not mean that there are no other dishes on the menu also served.

The Portuguese are much more a nation of farmers that we Poles are these days, but peasant symbols are mainly rejected; instead an aristocracy of food is invoked, the nobility being something the Portuguese have celebrated in their past history. Also as in the example of *Doutor Frango*, a chicken wearing an academic cap and robes valorises food by analogy with academic achievement, perhaps a more recent trend as education and especially higher education have become significantly less elitist. Portuguese society still has a memory of its peasant past and so

retains a deference to higher education which is often missing in other northern and central European countries

Love of the country and more precisely, the place where one lives is marked by names relating to its historical past, e.g. *Salpoente* or *Moliceiro.* History and the past are important to the Portuguese and it was also marked in the narratives, where the subjects assumed that history and historical events are the most important dimension of understanding of their culture and country. The names mark the place to commemorate the past but also to show it proudly to tourists that come in big numbers to Aveiro.

6 Conclusions

To sum up, despite the fact that globalization is demonstrated by standardization of food and the distribution of fast food franchises is marked in both Poland and Portugal, these two countries have retained their own cuisines and food cultures, however to different extents. Portugal has to be seen as more food culture-oriented and more celebratory of their food even in restaurant names, as was shown in this study. Both groups of subjects emphasized the importance of food as a dimension of national culture, whereas in the restaurant names it is more visible in the Portuguese data. Poles are more likely to just cite a location for their restaurants, real or imaginary.

The Portuguese restaurant names studied here more than Polish ones demonstrate the character of their region, proudly emphasizing its rootedness or uniqueness, whereas Polish names are more abstract and symbolic. Sometimes they evoke the past but more often create an ambience for the desired, imagined or dreamed of location the patrons might wish to frequent.

In the Portuguese data, personal aspects are emphasized when they are genuine names of the owners or even diminutives of these names. This was also observed in the Polish data, however, in such cases names were either spelt in English or translated into English to give them perhaps a more impersonal and more international character. Also, Polish names evoke literary or even mythical characters. This very clearly points to a value attached to cultural achievements and humanistic education. The issue of value of education was expressed in one Portuguese name, as mentioned earlier but it operates very differently: as it directly combines food and education (*Doutor Frango*).

In conclusion, restaurant names in Poland reflect a more abstract and symbolic way of thinking. They are depersonalized and often refer to the past or literary sources. It is not only the existence of foreign cuisine restaurants and their popularity in Poland that emphasizes the foreign element in food culture; it is also in the non-Polish-sounding names of restaurants serving Polish cuisine. Interestingly, Poles value their Polishness more when they leave their country to live abroad. For example, Polish restaurants in London will have Polish names and rarely will they be under the cover of English spelling.

The patterns of differences observed in the restaurant names can be summarized as:

- personal (Portuguese) versus international (Polish)
- proper names of people (Portuguese) versus literary names/figures (Polish)
- concrete place function (Portuguese) versus symbolic (Polish)
- royal references (Portuguese) versus bucolic/rustic (Polish)
- character of the place (Portuguese) versus desired destination (Poland)

Food culture embraces not only this linguistic aspect of restaurant naming habits but a lot of other dimensions that could contribute to the discussion of cultural similarities and differences between these two nations. It would be interesting for example to look at meal time conventions (Portuguese rigidity vs. Polish flexibility), the length of a meal and ways of promoting it, restaurant decorative and service styles, and many more. These however go beyond the scope of a linguistic study such as this.

References

Appadurai, A. 1990. Disjuncture and difference in the global cultural economy. In *Global culture. Nationalism, globalization and modernity,* ed. M. Featherstone, 295–310. London: Sage.

Buttjes, D. and M. Byram. 1991. *Mediating languages and cultures. Towards an intercultural theory of foreign language education.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Donmall, A. 1985. *Language awareness.* London: CILT.

Gabryś-Barker, D. 2008. White people in fur coats versus dark-haired and exotic: A Polish-Portuguese study of offence and flattery. In *Giving and taking offence,* ed. A. Barker, 123–138. Aveiro: Universidade de Aveiro.

Gabryś-Barker, D. 2011. Time as cultural construct: Some preliminary remarks on the conceptualization of time in L1 and L2. In *Aspects of culture in second language acquisition and foreign language learning,* eds. J. Arabski and A. Wojtaszek, 151–166. Berlin/ Heidelberg: Springer.

Hofstede, G. 1994. *Cultures and organisations.* London: HarperCollins.

Cultural and Intercultural Awareness of International Students at an Australian University

Beata Malczewska-Webb

Abstract The aims of this chapter are to examine the issues concerning cultural and intercultural awareness of international students at an Australian university. First, the chapter explores the multidimensional nature of linguistic and cultural awareness and focuses on the distinction between cultural and intercultural awareness (Liddicoat and Scarino 2009). The data was collated from the survey administered to one hundred international students who responded to open questions investigating their international experience of studying and living in Australia. The analysis of the data addressed different criteria including the indicators of the development of cultural and intercultural awareness, deficit and surplus aspects of the students' experience and student linguistic and cultural background. Research outcomes suggested that overall the students built a rich repertoire of facts about the second language and culture which contributed to the development of cultural awareness. However, the evidence for the development of intercultural awareness was very limited. This pointed to the fact that student participation in the international experience does not warranty the attainment of the ultimate goal of the international education, the development of the intercultural competence. The chapter stresses the importance of the systematic focused tasks assisting students in becoming intercultural beings. Further, the development of cultural and intercultural awareness and the themes in students' remarks are examined from the perspective of student cultural and linguistic background. The conclusions refer to the complexity of students' international experience and point to the dynamic nature of students in transition.

B. Malczewska-Webb (✉)
Bond University, Gold Coast, QLD, Australia
e-mail: bwebb@bond.edu.au

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_15,

1 Introduction: Linguistic, Cultural and Intercultural Awareness

The aim of this chapter is to examine the issue of cultural and intercultural awareness of international students at an Australian university. First, the chapter defines concepts and types of awareness and views awareness from different perspectives. Further, the chapter outlines research methodology and examines the data collected from the student survey. Next, the results are presented, discussed and followed by conclusions.

In the last two decades, the view that conscious language learning enhances language learning opposed strong views previously propagating naturalistic approaches in language learning and teaching. Much debate has since been generated on the nature and role of awareness in language education, with research covering equally theoretical disputes and language classrooms findings (Svalberg 2007; James and Garrett 1991, in Svalberg 2007; Fairclough 1992). The studies on culture awareness, although initiated in the 1990s (Kramsch 1993; Tulasiewicz 1997), have burgeoned in the last 15 years (Males 2000; Fageeh 2011; Patron 2007; Lueck and Wilson 2010; Winch-Dummett 2006; Watson-Raston 2002; Liddicoat 2005; Liddicoat and Scarino 2009; Cumming-Potvin et al. 2003). Consequently, language and culture awareness has firmly established itself as one of the significant areas in current approaches to language learning and teaching.

Most definitions of language awareness include references to conscious cognitive processes such as 'conscious awareness of the nature of language (…)' (Donmall 1985 in Svalberg 2007) or 'explicit instruction' (Svalberg 2006 in Svalberg 2007). However, many current definitions of awareness reflect the inalienable nature of the relationship between language and culture. Accordingly, the Association of Language Awareness currently defines language awareness as 'explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use' (ALA website http://www.languageawareness.org/web.ala/web/about/tout.php). The definition covers a wide range of study fields and topics including understanding other people's languages and cultures. Intercultural education also considers language awareness from the perspectives of both first and additional language education (Tulasiewicz 1997; Tulasiewicz and Adams 2003, p. 82). In the last decade, researchers explored the use of language awareness in sensitising language users to the role of language in intercultural education. This recognition of broadened focus from the focus on additional language only is demonstrated in the current teaching orientations, including intercultural education (Tulasiewicz 1997; Liddicoat and Scarino 2009).

This important association between language awareness, first language and intercultural education is manifested in the formulation of intercultural language education within the Australian context developed by the project Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning in Practice (Liddicoat and Scarino 2009; Scarino and Crichton 2007). Considering the multicultural and multilingual nature of the

Australian society, Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning reflects the increased importance of the content shift from learning an additional language and the focus on second language pedagogy to developing intercultural competence (Kramsch 1993; Scarino and Liddicoat 2009; Scarino and Crichton 2007). This concept in teaching assumes the fundamental relationship between language and culture and aims to develop intercultural competence, in shaping the 'intercultural being' (Byram 1997; Phipps and Gonzales 2004; Liddicoat and Scarino 2007).

Other researchers (Schmidt 1990; Radwan 2005; Svalberg 2007) also suggested a view of awareness which recognises the multifaceted nature of awareness. They propose that the process of 'noticing' be differentiated from developing awareness, as noticing is limited to collecting information about the second culture, while awareness happens at the level of the understanding of that culture (Svalberg 2007, p. 290). A similar distinction between levels and types of awareness is also considered in formulating intercultural communicative competence (Byram et al. 2001; Byram 2008). Accordingly, the intercultural communicative competence involves not only a set of knowledge, skills and attitudes about knowing the self and the other; knowing how to relate and interpret meaning and developing critical awareness; but it also includes 'knowing how to discover cultural information' and 'knowing how to relativise oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of others' (Corbett 2010, p. 2).

Similarly to the complex nature of awareness viewed in the research presented above, the framework of awareness adopted for the analysis of the data in this chapter also underlines its complex character. Accordingly, it makes a differentiation between the cultural and intercultural perspectives in viewing and developing language awareness (Liddicoat and Scarino 2009). The cultural perspective refers to the development of knowledge about the second culture, which is seen as inalienably connected to the second language. This knowledge, however, is external to the learner and does not challenge the learner's identity, practices, values, attitudes, beliefs or worldview. Conversely, the intercultural perspective entails the transformational element; it involves the understanding of how one's own culture and view shape the understanding of self, world and others (Liddicoat and Scarino 2009, p. 21). Kiely (2009) also supports a distinction in the levels of awareness by suggesting the differentiation between noticing the facts about language and culture and understanding these facts. Consequently, it is proposed that, while the development of the knowledge about a different culture is an important aspect within the cultural-intercultural competence continuum, the intercultural awareness can only be developed through learners' engagement with that knowledge.

Furthermore, Liddicoat and Scarino (2009) state that developing the desired intercultural competence and intercultural awareness happens through engagement in the relationships between the cultures occurring in the language classroom. They propose that this engagement can be facilitated through an interconnected set of activities involving noticing, comparing, reflecting and interacting. Through noticing linguistic or cultural issues, students construct a body of knowledge about the second culture. The domain of noticing involves visual, auditory, cognitive or affective observations about what learners see, think, feel or understand about self

or others. Noticing linguistic and cultural facts, in the context they occur, establishes the basis towards developing intercultural awareness. However, while this knowledge contributes towards the development of the intercultural awareness, it is in itself only an important step towards achieving the ultimate goal in language and culture education, which is to become interculturally proficient.

Besides noticing, two other tasks of comparing and of reflecting aim to develop the intercultural awareness (Liddicoat and Scarino 2009). These tasks engage the learners in comparing their interactions with their first and the second language and culture and reflecting upon these interactions. Learners may compare the outcomes of noticing; their observations, as well as their interpretations and reactions to these. The comparisons indicate the beginning of making connections between learners' old and new knowledge about language and culture (ILTP website http://www.iltlp.unisa.edu.au). These processes of comparisons and reflections, according to Liddicoat and Scarino (2009), encourage the development of a learner as an intercultural being.

Moreover, the reflections are also the evidence of learners' cognitive and affective engagement in emerging intercultural awareness. Reflecting may involve responses about issues such as linguistic and cultural differences, consequences of choices and practices, oneself as a language user, negotiating between self and other, identity or learning or resolving linguistic and cultural conflicts (http://www.iltlp.unisa.edu.au). Through reflections, learners formulate cognitive or affective responses which are the evidence of developing understanding of self and other. Learners' comparisons and reflections establish their involvement with external cultural knowledge signifying the development of intercultural awareness.

The cycle of activities proposed by Liddicoat and Scarino (2009) to promote the development of intercultural awareness involves learners' noticing, comparing and reflecting and interacting. Learner observations are the result of noticing and they contribute to building cultural awareness; the knowledge which is external to the learner. Conversely, 'comparisons' and 'reflections' show engagement of the learner with the second language and culture and they promote the development of intercultural awareness. These processes are communicated through interactions with others during which the process is further negotiated. While the examination of such negotiations with the other goes beyond the scope of this research, students' communications are explored for the evidence of the development of the cultural and intercultural awareness. Thus, the statements of noticing are examined from the perspective of cultural awareness, while the transition into intercultural awareness is explored in the statements encoding students' comparisons and reflections about language and culture.

The distinction between cultural awareness and intercultural awareness is particularly useful in view of the fact that the contemporary globalised world requires the ability to negotiate meanings within multilingual and multicultural societies. Successful functioning in such diverse communities requires more than just knowing facts about other languages and cultures. Understanding self in relation to others in the diverse world and being able to negotiate meanings can

only be achieved through active engagement at the level of both cognitive and affective domains.

2 Aims, Sample, Methods and Instruments

The aim of this chapter is to examine statements made by international students at an Australian university about their experience of living and studying in another country from the perspective of cultural and intercultural awareness. Students' responses to questions about the negative and positive aspects of their life and study in Australia were analysed for the indicators of awareness and its types. Data was collected from the questionnaire completed by students enrolled in Academic English subjects. The student sample consisted of 50 Chinese students and 50 students of other nationalities including European and Middle-Eastern students. The reason for this distribution was the fact that the earlier studies (Malczewska-Webb 2011) suggested that Chinese students demonstrated a significantly higher level of linguistic and cultural awareness than other international students and this chapter set out to explore this issue further. This chapter also compares the earlier findings with a larger sample of students participating in this project. Students were also asked open questions about their most problematic and most enjoyable aspects of their life in Australia and their study at an Australian university.

The data was analysed according to the type and the topic of students' responses. Students' statements indicating awareness were classified into observations, comparisons and reflections. Observations were viewed as the indicators of the development of linguistic and cultural awareness. In the statements referred to as 'comparisons', students compared between their home language or culture and the new language or culture. Students' comments referred to as 'reflections' involved cognitive or affective remarks following the comparisons. Both comparisons and reflections were seen as indicators of the learner engagement in the process of developing intercultural awareness. The data was analysed according to the contents of the responses as well as student background. The results and their interpretations are presented next.

3 Developing Cultural Awareness

3.1 Developing Cultural Awareness: Overall Results

Overall, students made 145 statements referring to the linguistic and cultural issues indicating awareness; which generated a rich database of responses. The majority of 84.1 % (122) of all statements included the outcomes of noticing; observations. Both comparisons and reflections occurred infrequently, with only 9 (6.2 %) of comparisons and 13 reflections (9.7 %) found in the sample. These results showed that, while students communicated a relatively large number of comments

displaying awareness, the number of remarks viewed as indicating the intercultural awareness was significantly smaller.

The issues the students referred to in their responses were grouped into broad areas of the second language and the second culture. Overall, out of 145 statements, 39.3 % (57) concerned the second language and 60.7 % (88) were about the second culture. This pattern varied between the three categories of observations, comparisons and reflections, with the largest type of student responses, observations, representing 84.7 % (122) of the sample and focusing on both, the second language and the second culture. Almost half of the students' observations, 45 % (56), referred to their experience and use of the second language.

3.2 Developing Cultural Awareness Through Noticing: Second Language

All observations concerning the second language were classified as cognitive and they formed four sets: overall language performance and communication (21), spoken discourse (16), written discourse (18) and grammar (1). In the first set of responses, overall language performance and communication, students observed the need for improved opportunities for learning English ('more English', 'more language courses', 'more assistance with English', 'more advanced English', better communication') and communication in general ('improve communication', 'improve communication skills'). The second cluster, the spoken discourse, comprised observations, with students referring to their needs for improving language skills of speaking and listening ('speaking and listening', 'practice spoken English', 'improve spoken English'). They also made observations about specific tasks and academic skills which needed improvement such as 'lecture', 'presentation' or 'presenting idea in tutorial'. Similarly, students made detailed observations in relation to the areas of difficulty with the written discourse. These comments included references to general language skills: 'more reading and writing' as well as specific areas of 'academic writing', 'writing academic essay', 'writing a critical essay' or sub-skills such as 'expressing idea in an essay'. Only one student pointed to needing more grammar.

These comments demonstrated the fact that students pay careful attention to their experience with the second language learning and performance. It is important to state that, while students clearly perceived the language as an important aspect of their experience, all the comments related to the second language were classified as *deficits*, the term referred to negative statements relating a problem or a negative aspect of an issue concerned. There were some discrepancies between the observations made about L2 by the Chinese and other students. Most significantly, the Chinese students made 81.3 % (13) of the observations concerning the spoken discourse, compared to only three comments made by other students. Also, the Chinese students made twice as many observations about their needs for improving general language and communication (66.7 %) as their

European and Middle Eastern counterparts. Both groups made a similar number of observations in relation to the written discourse, with the Chinese students contributing to 61.1 % of these comments.

Although Van Lier (1996) suggests a separation between performance and cognitive domains in relation to second language awareness, statements associated with the use of the second language in this study were classified as part of the cognitive domain following a three-category system (cognitive, social, affective) used in this chapter. The cognitive domain consisted of issues concerning facts about learning, knowledge and education in general. The social domain involved perspectives on learners' relationships and interactions with others and the outcomes of these interactions. The affective domain dealt with the observations students make about their feelings, emotions, beliefs or values in relation to any aspect of their international experience.

While analysing the statements referring to comparing and reflecting about the second language and culture, it was discovered that students in these statements focused almost entirely (with one only comment about the language) on issues concerning the second culture. Consequently, while students noticed a relatively large number of issues concerning their cognitive academic language proficiency, learner training and metalinguistic awareness (Van Lier 1996), while comparing and reflecting on their international experience, they clearly focused on issues related to the second culture, and not the second language.

3.3 Developing Cultural Awareness Through Noticing: The Second Culture

While observations concerning L2 included all deficit statements involving the cognitive domain, a similar number of the observations about the second culture differed in both attitudes and types of the comments identified. When making observations about the second culture, students' responses were classified as representing all three domains; cognitive, social and affective. The majority of these responses were within the affective domain (56.1 %), whereas the cognitive and social domains included a similar number of comments each, with 19.7 % (13) and 24.2 % (16) of the sample respectively.

The affective domain included the majority of 56.1 % (37) observations. Almost a third of these, 29.7 % (11), constituted deficit statements concerning awareness. However, the majority of the statements in this category, 70.2 % (26), consisted of the surplus observations, the statements referring to positive aspects of the issue at question. The themes of the affective domain referred to the difficulty with cultural traditions, culture in general, food ('most difficult: food', 'no traditional Chinese food here'). Culture and food dominated the observations made by the Chinese students, while European students (from Germany and Norway) also referred to the stress caused by the workload. Most students reported difficulties caused by the study workload and the food.

The large number of the surplus observations about the second culture (26) made it the largest single category within the sample. The three main topics referred to by the students included the natural environment (65.4 %), followed by the observations about the positive attitudes towards the overall international experience (19.3 %) and, third, comments related to the Australian lifestyle (15.4 %). The Chinese and the Middle-Eastern/European cohorts made a very similar amount of positive observations about the natural environment. The observations demonstrated the awareness about a wide range of topics, including 'climate', 'weather', 'environment', 'sunshine', or 'the beaches'. There was some discrepancy in responses between the two cohorts in relation to the overall international experience. This cluster of responses (19.2 %) included surplus observations ('everything here is beautiful') which were only made by the students from Europe or the Middle East. The third, smallest set of remarks contained only a few life-style references about leisure activities such as 'shopping', 'travelling' or 'fishing' were made by. In these three sub-categories of the affective domain, students demonstrated rich cultural knowledge which formed the foundations of their cultural awareness.

Students' statements showing cultural awareness within the cognitive domain concerned their studies and referred to problems with their education such as 'research in the library' and academic study in general. The students pointed to the need for more cultural knowledge about their host country ('to know more about the country and way of living here'). The students from the two cohorts voiced an almost equal number of surplus statements. The surpluses referred to both general aspects of their education ('study experiences', 'library studying') and to specific observations about the university ('being a student at Bond University', 'Bond provides excellent academic support for international students'). The analysis of the cognitive domain of the students' responses indicated that, while both cohorts voiced a similar number of deficit statements, the Chinese students made only a third of the positive observations.

While commenting about the second culture, the students overall made a similar amount of observations concerning the social domain (24.2 %: 16). The deficits ranged from references to living in another country ('difficult integration'), 'getting along with local people', to more culturally specific matters such as involvement with 'a western society'. The social domain included more surplus observations (10) about similar issues such as getting on with the locals ('friendly people', 'extremely nice people') and enjoying the multicultural life in Australia ('meeting people' or 'making friends with people from all around the world'). The Chinese students contributed to the majority of both deficit and surplus statements concerning the social domain, with positive comments focusing on the 'locals' whereas other students' commented most on the value of the multicultural aspects of their social experience. Overall, it appears that the Chinese students were more actively 'noticing' (73.3 %) various aspects of the social domain than the other group of students but were making a very similar amount of surplus and deficit observations about the social domain.

The analysis of the data from the perspective of cultural awareness indicated that the students' observations consisted of diverse opinions, demonstrating the development of extensive knowledge about life and study in a host country. Students' areas of particular attention included their interaction with and the use of the second language. Within the cognitive domain, students showed a high level of linguistic and cultural awareness in relation to their overall performance and language skills. The focus on communication or skills in use, rather than discrete areas of language study, may be motivated by the fact that the students use the language for the purpose of functioning in another country, for studying and life purposes, rather than just to study the language. The students' interactions with the second culture resulted in the focus on the awareness within the affective domain. The focal points of students' awareness comprised the natural environment and overall international experience. The cultural awareness in the social domain demonstrated students' awareness of positive and negative aspects of students' interactions with the host community and its multicultural nature.

Significant differences were found while examining the background of the students in relation to the areas of their awareness focus. Accordingly, the Chinese students made significantly more observations about the cognitive aspects of their experience with their second language use and study, particularly in overall language use, communication and spoken discourse. The Chinese cohort also exhibited richer awareness in the domain of social interactions. Conversely, the European and the Middle Eastern students' comments indicated significantly broader awareness in the area of affective domain, with the focus on the positive overall experience.

4 Developing Intercultural Awareness: Comparisons and Reflections

After examining the students' responses in relation to cultural awareness through noticing, students' responses were examined for the comparisons and reflections as the indicators of the development of intercultural awareness. The comparisons made the smallest cluster of the three types of statements, at 6.3 % of the sample (9). No statements referred to the second language; all nine comparisons (five deficit and four surplus comments) referred to the second culture. The deficit comparisons related to the cognitive aspects of the second culture, specifically to differences in academic aims and styles in learning ('different assignments', 'different study') and teaching ('different teaching to Malaysia'). The deficit statements made by the Chinese students referred to the differences between the Chinese and Australian cultures ('different culture between China and Australia'). The surplus comparisons were made mainly (three out of four) by the European students, who, in positive terms, compared 'cultural ways and attitudes' between Australia and Germany, or pointed to 'the diversity between Europe and

Australia'. The only Chinese student who expressed a surplus opinion pointed to a positive aspect of being Chinese and experiencing the culture of different countries.

The comparisons between the overall cultures were classified as parts of the affective domain as the comments did not involve dealing with particular items of information, rather, they indicated sensitivity to goals, values and beliefs and the readiness to compare the known and the unknown ones. The students focused on and internalised primarily the issues concerning different learning and teaching styles and the differences in cultures between their first culture and the second cultures. Although the comparisons make a very small part of the overall sample, they indicated students developing the intercultural awareness in relation to the most salient areas of their interaction with the second language and culture.

The last category, the reflections, also constituted a much smaller sample of responses (14) than observations did. Students' engagement was directed almost entirely (with one exception) to their interactions with the second culture, not the second language, in eight deficit and six surplus reflections. It was, however, impossible to demarcate between the affective and other domains based only on the theme of the response as the nature of the reflections proved to be inherently affective. Consequently, while the statements concerning study differences in observations and comparisons were previously classified as part of the cognitive domain, these were classified as affective while analysing reflections. In the reflections, the students did not simply comment on facts but they expressed their attitudes and feelings about a range of issues concerning teaching and learning.

Therefore, the first sub-group of the reflections is referred to as 'the affective—cognitive category' and it contained students' reflections on differences between their first and second culture in the area of teaching and learning. The Chinese students expressed very positive attitudes towards the new style of teaching requiring 'learning new critical thinking and developing their own opinion'. They also noted the fact that, by comparison with the host country's standards, the level of their mathematics education in China was significantly higher. The European/Middle-Eastern group of students expressed their positive attitude towards education ('education is good') due to close professional relationships with their lecturers. The students from the European/Middle Eastern cohort complained about the 'different style of teaching' and teacher expectations. European students complained about the workload and 'too much uni work and no time to relax' (Norway, Germany). Overall, in the reflections, the Chinese students communicated more positive views on teaching and learning than their European/Middle Eastern counterparts. These outcomes suggested that the Chinese students embraced the differences in the educational systems and issues such as and workload in a more successful way than the European and Middle Eastern students.

The next cluster of the reflections involves the comments relating to the social domain but due to the nature of reflections previously mentioned, it is accordingly referred to as the affective-social sub-category. Overall, the students expressed negative attitudes towards difficulties with social interactions resulting from the cultural differences between their classmates and lecturers. They also pointed to

the problems with meeting people from 'a different society', or 'other nationalities'. In the only surplus reflection concerning the social issues, the Chinese student stated that having new friends was the best part of the international experience.

In the set of reflections which formed the next sub-category of the affective domain, students also commented on culture in general and cultural differences. The deficit statements concerned the negative impact of cultural differences on communication ('differentiation between cultures makes it hard to communicate effectively': Russia), lifestyle ('needed warning about the different level of life [price] and 'different expectations': France) and food (China). Conversely, a student representing each regional group enthused about the positive 'aspects of the Australian (new) culture'.

In the cluster of reflective statements constituting the affective domain, students made remarks demonstrating their feelings and attitudes towards the areas salient in the development of their intercultural awareness. The reflections concerned students' experience of studying in Australia, their interactions with other students at the university and wider community and their appreciation of and the difficulties stemming from the differences between their first and second cultures. The students' focus emerging in the reflections corresponded closely to their concerns expressed in the comparisons. This similarity of focal points supports the view that the comparisons and reflections are closely interconnected as they both play an important role in the transition from students' cultural to intercultural and intercultural awareness and the development of the intercultural competence.

5 Developing an Intercultural Being: Students in Transition

The analysis of the sample demonstrated that students offered opinions which were the results of all three processes: noticing, comparing and reflecting. From the cultural-intercultural perspective, these outcomes suggested that students were able to build extensive knowledge about the second language and the second culture as a result of their interactions with both. They demonstrated avid skills in observing and commentating about a wide range of facts and phenomena in their new environment. Following the suggested framework of thought, the research outcomes indicated that the international students had the ability to develop cultural awareness, a body of knowledge about the second language and culture external to the learner.

However, in order to achieve the ultimate aim of intercultural education, explicitly, to create 'an intercultural being', further cognitive processes need to take place in order to develop intercultural awareness. The processes of comparing and reflecting, proposed in the professional literature as fulfilling that aim, require learner engagement in and the processing of the information constituting cultural awareness. The limited evidence of these processes in the sample suggests the

pyramid-like structure of the transition between cultural and intercultural awareness. A large quantity of observations creates a base necessary for the comparisons and reflections to follow. It is suggested here that the intercultural awareness is generated from the cultural awareness as the themes follow closely; the salient aspects of the cultural awareness information are chosen and undergo a process of selection and synthesising. As a result, only a small part of the cultural knowledge is transferred into the intercultural competence.

To sum up, the students noticed and communicated on a significantly larger variety of phenomena than they engaged in. This wide discrepancy between the quantity of information constructing cultural and intercultural awareness suggests a greater difficulty in developing the intercultural awareness. Despite the fact that the participation in the international educational experience fulfills the criteria needed for raising awareness in EFL contexts, such as authenticity of materials students use, problem-solving tasks, a diversity of cognitive processes or working in different groups (Piechurska-Kuciel 2000), the mere participation of a student in the international experience may not be sufficient in ensuring the development of the intercultural awareness. Consequently, in order to assist the students with the construction of their intercultural competence, teachers need to use focused tasks promoting comparisons and reflections.

6 Cultural and Intercultural Awareness and Students' Background

As far as the similarities and differences between the Chinese and European/Middle-Eastern cohorts' responses were concerned, several interesting outcomes were noted. The Chinese students made more willing and able observers who noticed and communicated more facts about their experience. This outcome supported the previous study conducted with another diverse group of students which suggested that the Chinese students exhibited a richer level of linguistic and cultural awareness. Noticeably, the Chinese students communicated the majority of deficit statements in relation to the second language. They exhibited well-developed awareness of their second language learning and performance, in particular, their concerns with spoken discourse and overall communication.

This outcome indirectly supported the view that analytical learning, which is a principal feature of the Chinese education, assists learners' noticing skills. According to Schmidt (1990), features of language cannot be learned unless they have been noticed. Noticing is an essential starting point to further learning and it appears that the students' analytical educational background creates an advantage not only in the process of learning a language (Corder 1975; Carter 2003) but more broadly, in the process of constructing learners' cultural awareness. In turn, as suggested early by Girard (1990), the development of cultural awareness contributes to the development of communicative competence. At the level of cultural awareness, learners concentrated on their interaction with the second language as

well as the second culture, and, in the case of the Chinese students in particular, the process consisted of a significant amount of negative statements reflecting the challenging nature of the international experience.

The discrepancy between the two cohorts in quantity and quality of the contributions to the observations shaped differently while evaluating the comparisons and the reflections. Both cohorts communicated considerably fewer comments, suggesting a significantly slower development of the intercultural awareness. The most salient points of students' engagement included aspects of the second culture and not the second language. The evaluation of comparisons revealed that students predominantly 'made connections' between the new and the old knowledge between different styles of teaching and learning and overall culture. The most significant evidence for students' engagement was the change of balance between the cognitive, social and affective domains, with the affective domain dominating the responses in the comparisons and reflections. This shift from the balance of the three domains into the increase of the affective domain suggested the shift between the cultural and intercultural awareness. Students' intercultural awareness emphasised their engagement in the most significant aspects of their experience of living and studying in Australia. These aspects included the perceived differences between cultures in relation to teaching and learning styles and the ways with which these differences impacted on the students' communication and their overall wellbeing.

Significant differences were also noted between the two cohorts concerning their development of the intercultural awareness. The Chinese students expressed proportionally a much more positive attitude towards their international experience at the level of the intercultural awareness than the cultural awareness. It seems that the more engaged the group was, the more positive attitudes they expressed including the overall functioning in the new culture as well as embracing the new teaching and learning styles. In contrast, the European group did not embrace these differences as well as the Chinese group did, particularly in relation to issues resulting from different teaching styles and the workload.

These results supported the findings of the earlier studies on international students' experience (Malczewska-Webb 2011; Kiely 2009; Watson-Raston 2002; Lord 2009; Hellstén 2002; Kiely 2009). These studies outline a difficult and universal process of transition the international students experience during their life and study in a different country. The studies suggest that focal difficulties these students experience stemming from the cultural differences or difficulties with different educational systems, are inherent to the nature of the international experience.

7 Conclusions: Students in Transition

To sum up, the results of the analysis of students' perceived experience in studying and living in Australia supported the results of the previous studies exploring the experiences of students living in another country. These studies indicate that students undergo a gradual process of building different levels of awareness,

sensitivity or competence (Lueck and Wilson 2010; Kiely 2009; Malczewska-Webb 2011). This study promotes the concept of 'students in transition' described by Hellstén (2002) and it demonstrates that the transition relates not only to the relationship between the old and the new culture but also the different levels of awareness. During their international experience, students build a rich repertoire of facts about their own language proficiency and culture surrounding them, which contributes to their cultural awareness (Kiely 2009; Lord 2009; Malczewska-Webb 2011). The process of developing the intercultural awareness is much slower and more challenging which supports the view that opportunities to interact with another cultural group does not have to result in cultural awareness or, it should be added here, intercultural awareness (Lessard-Clouston 1996).

Living and studying in another culture forces the students to interact with, engage in and learn from the interactions between self and the other. It is paramount, however, to involve 'students in transition' in the focused activities promoting the development of intercultural skills (Liddicoat and Scarino 2007; Corbett 2010) and 'unplugging the affective domain' (MacFarlane 2011). The development of intercultural awareness enables students to balance between culture, communication, motivation and social context, which, in turn is imperative for successful learning (Watson-Raston 2002). The development of affective domain and intercultural awareness will assist students in transition in the understanding of self in relation to others and will maximize their successful learning and living in a host country.

References

Abu Radwan, A. 2005. The effectiveness of explicit attention to form in language learning. *System* 33: 69–87.

Association for language awareness. http://www.languageawareness.org/web.ala/web/about/tout.php. Accessed 10 April 2012.

Aziz Fageeh, A. 2011. At crossroads of EFL learning and culture: How to enhance cross-cultural awareness in EFL college students. *Cross-cultural Communication* 7: 62–72.

Byram, M. S.1997. *Teaching and assessing intercultural competence.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M. S. 2008. *From foreign language education to education for intercultural citizenship. Essays and reflection*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M. S., A. Nichols and D. Stevens. 2001. *Developing intercultural competence in practice.* Dublin: Multilingual Matters.

Carter, R. 2003. Language awareness. *ELT Journal* 57: 64–65.

Corbett, J. 2010. *Intercultural language activities with CD-ROM*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Corder, S. Pit. 1975. *Introducing applied linguistics*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd.

Cumming-Potvin, W., P. Renshaw. and C. van Kraayenoord. 2003. A sociocultural analysis of language learning: New forms of literacy practices in a language and culture awareness programme. *Language and Education* 17: 391–407.

Fairclough, N. 1992. *Discourse and social change.* Cambridge: Polity Press Cambridge.

Girard, D. 1990. Conciliating communication, culture, and language awareness. In *Language teaching methodology for the nineties,* ed. A. Sarinee, 192–205. Singapore: SEAMEO.

Hellstén, M. 2002. Students in transition: Needs and experiences of international students in Australia. Paper presented at the 16th Australian International Education Conference, Hobart, Tasmania. http://www.aiec.idp.com/pdf/Hellsten_p.pdf. Accessed 10 April 2012.
Kiely, R. 2009. Observing, noticing and understanding: Two case studies in language awareness in the development of academic literacy. *Language Awareness* 18: 329–344.
Kramsch, C. 1993. *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Lessard-Clouston, M. 1996. Chinese teachers' views of culture in their EFL learning and teaching. *Language, Culture and Curriculum* 9: 197–224
Liddicoat, A. J. 2005. Culture for language learning in Australian language-in-education policy. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics* 28: 28–42.
Liddicoat, A. J. and Scarino, A. 2007. Intercultural language teaching and learning. Australian Government Quality Teaching Programme. http://www.iltlp.unisa.edu.au. Accessed 10 April 2012.
Liddicoat, A. J. and Scarino, A. 2009. *Teaching and learning languages: A guide.* Carlton: Curriculum Corporation.
Lord, G. 2009. Second-language awareness and development during study abroad: A case study. *Hispania* 92: 127–141.
Lueck, K. and Wilson, M. 2010. Acculturative stress in Asian migrants: The impact of social and linguistic factors. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 34: 47–57.
MacFarlane, K. 2011. Unplugging the affective domain: Can 'Slow Spaces' really improve the value of cultural literacy?' *Transformations: Journal of Media and Culture* 20. http://www.transformationsjournal.org/journal/issue_20/article_05.shtml. Accessed 10 April 2012.
Malczewska-Webb, B. 2011. Australian experience of culturally diverse university classrooms. In *Aspects of culture in second language acquisition and foreign language learning*, eds. J. Arabski and A. Wojtaszek, 121–139. Berlin-Heidelberg: Springer.
Malczewska-Webb, B. 2013. Attitudes and perceptions of international students towards their life in Australia. In *Affectivity in second language acquisition*, eds. D. Gabryś-Barker and J. Bielska. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
Males, T. 2000. What is critical in the critical language awareness? *Language Awareness* 9: 147–159.
Patron, M-C. 2007. *Culture and identity in study abroad contexts*. Oxford: Peter Lang.
Phipps, A. and M. Gonzales. 2004. *Modern languages: Learning and teaching for an intercultural field.* London: Sage.
Piechurska-Kuciel, E. 2000. Consciousness-raising and language awareness: A comparison. In *Studies in foreign language acquisition and teaching*, ed J. Arabski, 225–233. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Universytetu Ślaskiego.
Scarino, A. and J. Crichton. 2007. *Why the intercultural matters to language teaching and learning: An orientation to the ILTLP programme.* Australian Government Quality Teaching Programme. http://www.iltlp.unisa.edu.au. Accessed 10 April 2012.
Scarino, A. and A. J. Liddicoat. 2009. *Teaching and learning languages: A guide*. Melbourne: Curriculum Corporation.
Schmidt, R. W. 1990. The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11: 129–158.
Svalberg, A. 2007. Language awareness and language learning. *Language Teaching* 40: 287–308.
Tulasiewicz, W. 1997. Language awareness: A new literacy dimension in school language education. *An International Journal of Teacher Development* 3: 393–405.
Tulasiewicz, W. and A. Adams. 2003. Literacy, language awareness and the teaching of English. *English in Australia* 139: 81–85.
Van Lier, L. 1996. *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy, and authenticity*. London: Longman.
Watson-Raston, D. 2002. Teaching in Australian classrooms: Issues influencing adult East Asian students. *Teacher Development* 6: 289–303.
Winch-Dummett, C. 2006. Successful pedagogies for an Australian multicultural classroom. *International Education Journal* 7: 778–789.

English as a Lingua Franca in the Eyes of Polish Students

Anna Niżegorodcew

Abstract This chapter focuses on the perception of English as a lingua franca (ELF) by a group of Polish MA English Philology students, following the implementation in class of a project on intercultural communication between two English Departments, one in Poland and the other in Ukraine. The described small scale study involved the students' answers to three study questions: 1. The subjects' awareness of the concept of ELF and their treatment of the role of English in the world. 2. The subjects' awareness of the influence of ELF upon other languages and national identities. 3. The subjects' level of aspirations in studying English. The results of the study indicate that the subjects are familiar with the concept of English as a lingua franca and they understand it as a language used for communication with other English users. English is viewed as a language of opportunity and success. Only a few subjects notice negative aspects of using English as a global language. The majority of the subjects are concerned about their own desired native speaker proficiency in English. Also only a few subjects prefer to be recognized as non-native speakers of English. A general conclusion which can be drawn from this small scale study is that in the eyes of Polish students of English, ELF is definitely an asset rather than a threat.

1 Introduction

Following the publication of a volume of chapters based on a joint intercultural project between two English Departments, one from Poland (the English Philology Department of the Jagiellonian University in Kraków) and the other from Ukraine (the English Philology Department of the Precarpathian National University in

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

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_16,

Ivano-Frankivsk) (Niżegorodcew, Bystrov and Kleban 2011), its implementation in class in a course on intercultural communication provided the authors with direct feedback from the students on their perception of the matters dealt with in the volume. One of the primary considerations discussed in the introductory part of the volume is the role of English as a lingua franca in intercultural communication in the contemporary world.

The approach adopted by this author (Niżegorodcew 2011) on the relationship between the English language and culture is similar to Risager's partial separation of the global ELF from its original British and American culture due to "social networks (…) on the basis of transnational patterns of migration and markets" (Risager 2006, p. 2). I claimed that while teaching English as a foreign language, we can draw not only on British or American cultures but also on Polish, Ukrainian or any other cultures with which our students are familiar. In particular, in intercultural contacts in ELF, we should draw on our local cultures. In such circumstances, ELF becomes our *own* language because we appropriate it in order to express our own cultural identity. At the same time, however, we appropriate global ELF culture, mainly due to the Internet and the omnipresent popular English language culture.

The question arises, however, to what extent we are aware of sociocultural consequences of using (or not using) ELF in the contemporary world, first of all, in terms of realizing how our own identities are affected by the use of English. In particular, the question concerns advanced non-native English speakers, such as English Philology students. The described small scale study is an attempt to probe Polish English Studies students' awareness of the role of the global ELF.

2 Understanding English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

Originally, English as a lingua franca (ELF) was associated with a claim made by Jenkins and Seidlhofer that English used by non-native speakers can be described in formal terms as a separate variety of English (Jenkins 2000; Seidlhofer 2001). However, since sociocultural aspects of language learning and use have become more and more important since Firth and Wagner (1997) criticized purely psycholinguistic second language theory (Block 2003), English used by non-native speakers has been perceived more as functions of communication in a shared language than a new variety of English. In view of very different contexts of non-native uses of English, as well as very diverse linguacultural backgrounds of its users, focus has been shifted from formal properties to communicative patterns associated with non-native uses of English (e.g. Saraceni 2008; Seidlhofer 2011).

In fact, the very process of using English for international and intercultural communication may be defined as *English as a lingua franca*. For instance, in one of the recent definitions of ELF, its authors state that it is simply "[t]he use of English by speakers of varying linguacultural backgrounds for whom there is not usually another shared language available" (Cogo and Dewey 2012, p. 8). Such a

definition is close to the French term *la communication exolingue* (Porquier 1984). What is stressed in the definition are varying linguacultural backgrounds of the speakers who communicate in English as a shared language.

In my approach to ELF in intercultural communication, I proposed a distinction between a careless and limited English language use for impoverished intercultural communication, to some extent similar to the use of pidgins, and an advanced non-native use of English allowing only for certain minor deviations from native norms but drawing on diverse cultures and languages and making them available to one another (Niżegorodcew 2011, p. 35).

A clarification of the confusing status of ELF, understood either as a variety of English or as the process of communication in English, may be found in Kachru's taxonomy of *circles* in which English is used (Kachru 1985). Kachru proposed three circles of English use: Inner, Outer and Expanding circles. The taxonomy was based on a historically grounded expansion of English from the areas where it was originally used to other areas. The Inner Circle countries, according to Kachru, are countries where English is used as the main first language, e.g. Great Britain, the United States, Australia. On the other hand, Outer Circle countries refer to the areas where English was brought with the rise of British colonies, and where it later became a second language, e.g. India, some African countries. Finally, with an increasing international role of Great Britain and the United States, English has become popular in the countries where it was never used as a first or second language. In Expanding Circle countries, English is taught, learned and, to some extent, used at present as the primary additional language. Thus, the Expanding Circle covers European countries, Far East, Middle East, as well as Latin America.

It should be noted, however, that there is a fundamental difference between English used in Outer Circle and Expanding Circle countries. English as an additional language can hardly be called a separate variety of English since it has not been nativized in the same way as the Englishes in Outer Circle countries. Thus, pedagogical norms in the Expanding Circle countries follow standard native norms, usually either British or American. Consequently, it is questionable whether English taught as an additional language in European countries can be called *Euro-English*, that is a separate variety of English used in European countries (Modiano 2006; Berns 2009). Rather it can be treated as the most easily available shared language used by Europeans of varying linguacultural backgrounds.

One of the possible consequences of English becoming the main medium of global communication is limiting or even endangering the use of other languages, in particular languages spoken by minorities, smaller nations or ethnic groups, whose multilingual speakers, especially in Inner and Outer Circle countries, use English as a more prestigious variety instead of using their first languages. Twenty years ago the threat was called by Phillipson (1992) a *linguistic imperialism*. Canagarajah (1999) claimed that in local English classrooms teachers and students should find ways to resist English use, first of all, by switching to their native tongues. Global interlingual influences of English are particularly noticeable in other languages in the adoption of English terms or replacement of native lexical

items by their English equivalents. On the other hand, new lexical items and non-standard uses of English in various non-native contexts change standard English. Authors who write from the position of native speakers of English grow aware of changes occurring in English due to its use as a global lingua franca (Crystal 2003).

Global ELF makes intercultural communication easier since native English language speakers become more tolerant of linguistic variations in the shared language and they acknowledge the right of non-native speakers to appropriate it and modify its use (Rudby and Saraceni 2006; Pennycook 2007; Singleton and Aronin 2007). In turn, non-native speakers, especially those who have communicated internationally in English, perceive their own greater flexibility and greater tolerance of non-standard English (Kita 2008).

It remains to be seen in what direction ELF will evolve, whether, as is claimed by Crystal (2003, p. 185), it will become World Standard Spoken English (WSSE) or if it will be more diversified to eventually create different varieties. The question rises how its use will affect people in the Expanding Circle countries who will speak it. Will they feel at ease with their Englishes, like people in Outer Circle countries, who have nativized English and in fact adapted it to suit their purposes? Or will they still follow strictly native speaker norms, being permanently stigmatized as non-native, that is, less competent speakers of English?

The answer to the question lies in the hands of national educational authorities and English non-native teachers, whose approach to teaching English is usually much less tolerant than that of the general public. They also focus much more on surface forms than on the underlying language functions. It transpires that in the foreseeable future, school and university syllabuses of ELT in the Expanding Circle countries will adhere to native British or American norms as far as formal accuracy is concerned, although English language functions may be modified in them. According to Jodłowiec (2012), ELF in language pedagogy can be understood not so much as the goal of the learning and teaching process but as a more flexible approach to the linguistic and other resources at the learners' disposal.

3 The Study: English as a Lingua Franca in the Eyes of Polish Students

A small scale study I conducted with my MA students at the English Philology Department was partly a follow-up of a course on intercultural communication based on the co-edited volume (Niżegorodcew, Bystrov and Kleban 2011). The students were first assigned some readings from the volume and later they were supposed to answer questions following the readings. The questions were not classical reading comprehension tasks, rather they treated the readings as springboards for reflection and discussion.

3.1 Aims of the Study

The study aimed, firstly, at discovering if the students were familiar with the concept *English as a lingua franca* and how they treated the role of English in the contemporary world. Secondly, students were supposed 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. Additionally, the study 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, such as foreign accent and other minor deviations from the native norm.

3.2 Subjects

The subjects in the study were two groups of MA students specializing in applied linguistics at the English Philology Department of the Jagiellonian University. The number of all subjects was 21, including 12 students who attended the course on intercultural communication. The majority of the students were females. They were all in their early twenties, except for one student. The subjects were graduates of first degree studies in various higher schools in Poland. Their proficiency in English was at the C1 or C2 level.

3.3 Tasks

The first group of the subjects (12 students), those who attended the course on intercultural communication were to answer the following questions in essay form: 1. What is the role of English in the contemporary world? 2. What is ELF? 3. Is English language teaching a modern form of imperialism? The second group of subjects (only first year students) were to give answers to the following questions: 1. What is ELF? 2. When did you first learn about ELF? 3. Would you like to use English as a native speaker or would you like to be distinguished somehow from native speakers? In either case give arguments to support your opinion.

Both groups were asked about their awareness of English as a lingua franca. The students who had completed the course on intercultural communication were expected to have a more extensive knowledge on various functions of English in the contemporary world and they were given a question about the role of English. They were also familiar with Phillipson's claim that English language teaching could be treated as a modern form of imperialism. Consequently, they were asked about their opinions on the matter. The question about personal opinions on their

desired level of English language proficiency was given as an additional question only to first year students.

The tasks aimed at eliciting answers to the above study questions: 1. The subjects' awareness of the concept of ELF and how they treated the role of English in the contemporary world. 2. The subjects' awareness of the dangers to other languages and national identities, including their own, associated with using English as a global ELF. 3. Additionally, first year students' level of aspirations in studying English.

3.4 Results: A Qualitative Analysis

All the answers, collected in the written form, were analysed qualitatively according to the above study questions. The following quotes from the answers are grouped in three clusters: 1. Definition of ELF and the role of English in the contemporary world. 2. Awareness of a negative (or positive) influence of ELF upon other languages and national identities. 3. Level of aspirations in studying English.

3.4.1 Definition of ELF and the Role of English in the Contemporary World

The subjects expressed opinions and defined ELF in the following way:

"English nowadays has the status of ELF, that is, the instrument which mediates between people of various cultural backgrounds"

"ELF means communication in English between speakers with different L1"

"ELF is a language spoken internationally by both NS and NNS"

"ELF is a language used as a tool for communication between speakers who do not share mother tongues'

"It is a special way of using the English language (…) the ultimate goal is mutual understanding"

"[English in the contemporary world is] the language of academic conferences and publications"

"[English] gives the opportunity to study abroad in famous and prestigious universities"

"[English] is used in international companies and businesses"

"[English] is used in mass media"

"English is important in tourism"

"[When one knows English], one can read books, magazines etc. in original"

"English is the language of technology, computers and the Internet"

"[English] facilitates communication processes worldwide"

"Without this common language [English] most people would not have a chance to get to know (…) fast-developing knowledge in various areas"

"The popular culture [in English] is a means of unifying people all over the world"

"When applying for a job, a good command of English is a huge advantage"

"Possessing the English language people have opportunity to communicate with interesting people, talk on various topics, make useful contacts and find new friends among foreigners"

"There are different reasons why [English] is so popular (…) and they are not connected with target culture/s"

3.4.2 Awareness of a Negative (Or Positive) Influence of ELF Upon Other Languages and National Identities

The majority of the subjects stressed positive aspects of English language teaching, learning and using, such as:

"There is nothing to be afraid of [in learning and using English]"

"The influence of English remains insignificant as national identities and national languages still prevail in national curriculums"

"For me English means freedom [opposite of imperialism], it is my tool of independence and window on the world"

"[ELT is not imperialism because] it is no longer dominated by the native speaker model"

Yet, according to some of the subjects:

"English sneaked up on us and became a modern lingua franca"

"We cannot escape the flood of English [from the media]"

"Corporate cultures dominate the world through English"

"Some cultures might feel threatened by the necessity of speaking [English] and by the imposition of western values that often come with it"

3.4.3 Level of Aspirations in Studying English. Would you Like to be Identified as a Native Speaker? Why/Why not?

For the majority of the students answering this question, attaining native speaker proficiency in English is the goal, although some of them admit that this goal seems to be unattainable. They would like to speak like native speakers because:

"As a future teacher I would like to be a model for my students"

"It is easier to find a job if you speak like a NS [native speaker]"

"[Speaking like a native speaker] would improve my self-esteem"

"[Speaking like a native speaker] is really prestigious"

"I don't like when people don't really care what I am saying in English but they are more interested in my accent and where I am from"

However, some students would not like to be identified as native speakers.

"[If you are not identified as a native speaker] it makes communication with other non-native speakers more natural and friendly, you do not show superiority by a more 'correct' version of English you speak"

"When talking to native speakers, [and if one makes a mistake] it is better accepted if one is not trying to imitate them"

"I would not like to be perceived as a native speaker by native speakers as it can lead to some intercultural misunderstandings"

"I would like to be recognized as a Pole, which is who I am, who has achieved a high level of proficiency in English I am proud of"

3.5 Discussion

The following discussion deals with the above three clusters of answers. English as a lingua franca (ELF), as a relatively new concept, was introduced to the majority of the respondents in Polish higher education institutions at the first degree level. As far as ELF awareness is concerned, the subjects define it through its communicative functions and its role in the modern world as a language of intercultural communication. What is interesting, the subjects do not mention any formal ELF features although "a special way of using the English language" is mentioned. Although the respondent did not write what she/he meant, the phrase might refer to some deviations from the native norm.

The respondents provide a wide range of contexts where the use of English is necessary and advantageous for non-native speakers since that is how they understand the role of English in the contemporary world. In the students' answers, English is clearly equated with ELF. Using English is not linked with British or American cultures and target language cultures are not even mentioned in this context, as one of the respondents states "[t]here are different reasons why [English] is so popular (…) and they are not connected with target culture/s". The respondents seem to treat English as if the language was one of their possessions, e.g. "*possessing the English language* people have opportunity to communicate with interesting people, talk on various topics, make useful contacts and find new friends among foreigners". Generally speaking, the answers concerning ELF and its functions are very positive or even enthusiastic about the unifying role of the global ELF.

The second cluster of answers deals with positive and negative opinions about teaching English as a foreign language. Although the question was formulated in such a way that it suggested, to some extent, negative opinions, the majority of the respondents rejected them, being convinced that English is a language of opportunity. They enjoy new possibilities and opportunities, such as travelling abroad, meeting foreign people in Poland and abroad, studying abroad through Erasmus exchanges, accessing the Internet and so on. Interestingly, one student stated that for her/him the English language is associated with freedom and independence. Another student was of the opinion that English language teaching is not

dominated by the native speaker model and, consequently, it cannot be equated with imposing power of one nation upon another. As has been said before, the subjects do not identify the English language with British or American cultures.

Most of the respondents do not consider teaching, learning and using English as a threat to their national or linguistic identity because, as one of them says, "[*t*]*he influence of English remains insignificant* as national identities and national languages still prevail in national curriculums". It is definitely true in Poland and in other Expanding Circle countries with national languages spoken by the large majority of the population. However, in the case of smaller languages and ethnic minorities, in particular those living in Inner and Outer Circle countries, the situation may be dramatically different. Another issue the respondents are unaware of is the privileged position of the English language use in the academia and scientific publications, which discriminate against other languages.

Nevertheless, some awareness of negative aspects of the global ELF use is present in a few answers. One of the respondents is aware that "[c]*orporate cultures dominate the world* through English". Another states that "[s]*ome cultures might feel threatened* by the necessity of speaking [English] and by the imposition of western values that often come with it". Paradoxically, the very choice of words shows apprehension about a possibility of being dominated by the English language, "English *sneaked upon us*" or "We *cannot escape the flood* of English".

The most interesting answers are those concerning the level of students' aspirations in studying English. Although there are not enough of them to draw any general conclusions, the answers give us insights into what the respondents value in their English language use and why they would or would not like to speak like native speakers. Firstly, those who would like to be identified as native speakers believe that it would raise their self-confidence. Secondly, they could find a better job. They also believe that they might be better English teachers. However, they are realistic about their language abilities and think that they would never attain native speaker proficiency in English. On the other hand, those respondents who would not like to be identified as native speakers provide the following reasons: firstly and most interestingly, solidarity with other non-native speakers and pride in identifying oneself as a proficient non-native speaker of English, and, secondly, the awareness that even if they might not be recognized at first as non-native speakers, they are likely to make various mistakes and blunders, which would lead to intercultural misunderstandings. Those answers clearly indicate that at least some respondents are aware of the sociocultural aspects of English language use.

3.6 Conclusion

Conclusions which can be drawn from this small scale study are as follows. The group of the English Philology students whose opinions were analysed are familiar with the concept of English as lingua franca and they understand it as a language

used for communication with other English users, both native and non-native speakers. Such focus on communication is in line with the Communicative Approach they are familiar with but it also embraces an intercultural approach in which ELF mediates between various cultures and nations, not being bound with British or American cultures. There is some indication that the students notice in ELF some deviations from the native norm although they do not specify them. It should be remembered that the students have not had much experience in using English in international contexts yet. It remains to be seen how they may change their views being confronted with different varieties of English spoken in different contexts.

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. On the other hand, after having read and discussed issues connected with ELF in intercultural communication, some students raise questions about sociocultural consequences in Poland and other Expanding Circle countries of using the global ELF. A possible future study on the perception of ELF by different groups of foreign language students, e.g. students of French or German Philology, would probably bring interesting comparative data. It can be speculated that the awareness of negative aspects of the global ELF teaching and use would be greater in such students.

References

Berns, M. 2009. English as a lingua franca and English in Europe. *World Englishes* 28: 192–199.

Block, D. 2003. *The social turn in second language acquisition.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Canagarajah, S. 1999. *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cogo, A. and M. Dewey. 2012. *Analysing English as a lingua franca.* London: Continuum.

Crystal, D. 2003. *English as a global language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Firth, A. and J. Wagner. 1997. On discourse, communication and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *Modern Language Journal* 81: 285–300.
Jenkins, J. 2000. *The phonology of English as an international language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Jodłowiec, M. 2012. Euro-English and language pedagogy. In *English across national, social and cultural boundaries*, ed. E. Willim, 95–104. Krakow: AFM Publishing House.
Kachru, B. 1985. Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In *English in the World: Teaching and learning the language and literatures*, eds. Q. Quirk and H. Widdowson. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Kita, A. 2008. ERASMUS students' experiences during the mobility period: An exploratory study. Unpublished MA thesis, Jagiellonian University.
Modiano, M. 2006. Euro-Englishes. In *The handbook of world Englishes.*, eds. Kachru et al., 223–239. Malden MA: Blackwell.
Niżegorodcew, A. 2011. English as a lingua franca in intercultural communication. In *Developing intercultural competence through English: Focus on Ukrainian and Polish cultures*, eds. A. Niżegorodcew, Y. Bystrov and M. Kleban, 29–43. Kraków: Jagiellonian University Press.
Niżegorodcew, A., Y. Bystrov, and M. Kleban, eds. 2011. *Developing intercultural competence through English: Focus on Ukrainian and Polish cultures.* Kraków: Jagiellonian University.
Pennycook, A. 2007. *Global Englishes and transcultural flows.* London: Routledge.
Phillipson, R. 1992. *Linguistic imperialism.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Porquier, R. 1984. Communication exolingue et apprentissage de langues. In *Acquisition d'une langue etrangere III.*, ed. B. Py. Paris: Presses Universitaires de Vincennes.
Risager, K. 2006. *Language and culture: Global flows and local complexity.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
Rudby, R. and M. Saraceni. 2006. *English in the world: Global rules, global roles.* London: Continuum.
Saraceni, M. 2008. English as a lingua franca: Between form and function. *English Today* 94: 20–26.
Seidlhofer, B. 2001. Closing a conceptual gap: The case for a description of English as a lingua franca. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 11: 133–158.
Seidlhofer, B. 2011. *Understanding English as a lingua franca.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Singleton, D. and L. Aronin. 2007. The role of English in the multilingual world. In *PASE papers 2007: studies in language and methodology of teaching*, eds. J. Arabski, D. Gabrys-Barker, A. Łyda, 11–21. Para: Katowice.

Polish Students' Perceptions of English as an International Language

Anna Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Jakub Bielak

Abstract Attempts to redefine the concept of motivation in language learning with its major principle of integrativeness (e.g., Dörnyei 2005, 2009; Yashima 2009) have brought into attention the fact that, in the case of the English language, identification of a specific target group with which to integrate has become problematic. Doubts concerning the explanatory power behind integrative motives has inspired researchers to look for a more reliable account of what drives people to engage in the lengthy and painstaking task of learning a foreign tongue, which resulted in the emergence of concepts such as the L2 Ideal Self (e.g., Dörnyei 2009) or International Posture (Yashima 2009), understood as favourable disposition towards the international community and not any specific ethnic group. It appears that many learners of English as a foreign language have ceased to perceive the language as belonging to any particular national group, but rather view it as a universal code for international communication, very much linked to technology and popular culture. Considering the fact that nowadays approximately only one out of four people communicating in English is a native speaker of the language (NS) (Crystal 2003), it needs to be recognized that, in most cases, English is a means of communication for its non-native users (NNS). Undoubtedly, this cannot leave the system unaffected, neither does it leave NNSs' views and attitudes unchanged. As observed by Singleton and Aronin (2007, p. 13), "English has (…) permeated the sense of identity of a large number of non-native speakers to the extent that it is now 'owned' by them." Thus, it can be assumed that we are witnessing the emergence of a multiethnic community with which learners of English can identify. The study whose results are reported in the present chapter was undertaken with a view to exploring the opinions and perceptions held by students of English philology, the sample whose unique character

A. Mystkowska-Wiertelak (✉) · J. Bielak
UAM WPA Kalisz, Kalisz, Poland
e-mail: mystkows@amu.edu.pl

J. Bielak
e-mail: kubabogu@amu.edu.pl

A. Łyda and K. Szcześniak (eds.), *Awareness in Action*,
Second Language Learning and Teaching, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-00461-7_17,

needs to be recognized, concerning their awareness of English as a lingua franca (ELF). The data accumulated in the course of the present research imply that becoming native-like is still the objective that many learners strive after. However, the position of a native speaker as a paragon or a role model for language learners seems to have been taken over by a successful bilingual. Moreover, it transpires that philology students' attention is rarely captivated by social and political issues concerning British or American society more than any other nationalities, which may necessitate changes in the way such issues are tackled in the language classroom.

1 English as an International Language

Despite raising serious concerns or even being accused of "linguistic imperialism" (Phillipson 1992), English appears be taking numerous extended footholds in many spheres of human activity on a global scale, including technology, economy, science, popular culture, to name but a few, with ample borrowings. As Niżegorodcew (2011, p. 35) aptly points out, negative attitudes to another language may result from historical legacy or present-day "political or cultural rivalry." On the other hand, as the author continues, there are nations that gladly accept, however not without caution, English as a synonym of westernization which is frequently associated with development and opening opportunities, as well as a counterbalance for other languages, as might be the case with Russian in the countries of the former communist bloc. Another argument justifying the spread of English can be found among opinions expressed by House (2003), who reflects on the diverse role national languages and the English language play within Europe—while the former contribute to national identification, the letter enables effective intercultural communication, not in the least threatening national identity of peoples living in Europe.

English is not the first international language known in history. The languages that enjoyed the status of linguae francae in the past owe their lasting appeal not only to, or in spite of, their linguistic features but mainly to ideological, economic, military and political support of the source from which the languages started their conquest; and thus, Latin contributed to the advancement of Christianity, French—rationalism, and Russian—communism (Niżegorodcew 2011, p. 35).

For some, accepting a lingua franca must inevitably lead to impoverishment of culture, as it involves simplified and hence degraded and limited language use for basic intercultural communication. According to Niżegorodcew (2011, p. 36), although as she stresses she does not share the view, for some people "(…) a lingua franca means a degradation of symbols, degradation of culture itself; creating a 'supermarket of culture' where everything is cheap and for sale". On the other hand, it needs to be acknowledged that some values and features of diverse backgrounds of NNSs permeate into English, enriching and transforming it. Thus

it needs to be accepted that, as Seidlhofer (2005, p. 339) claims, "English is being shaped at least as much by its non-native speakers as by its native speakers."

A number of different terms have been used to refer to the phenomenon: ELF (e.g., Baker 2009; Canagarajah 2007; Dewey 2007; Jenkins 2005, 2006a; Seidlhofer 2004, 2005b; Seidlhofer, Breiteneder, and Pitzl 2006) appeared side by side with English as an international language (e.g., Holliday 2005; Jenkins 2000; Pennycook 1994; Seidlhofer 2003; Widdowson 1997), English as a global language (e.g., Brumfit 2002; Crystal 1997, 2003), or English as a world language (e.g., Mair 2003), all of which have been applied to uses of English across the three circles: *inner, outer* and *expanding*, as operationalized by Kachru (1992). The frequently cited three circles correspond to three different contexts of the use of English. The inner circle comprises countries where English is used as the mother tongue (e.g., the United Kingdom, the USA, and Australia). The outer circle embraces such countries as India, Nigeria or Singapore, where English is either an official language or second language, and the expanding circle consists of contexts where the language is widely used as a foreign language or a lingua franca, such as Poland, France or Spain.

While, traditionally, English as an international language denoted intranational and international communication within and across Kachruvian circles (cf. Seidlhofer 2005), ELF corresponds to communication between speakers from different language backgrounds. In the words of Jenkins (2006a, p. 161), ELF is "(…) a contact language across linguacultures whose members are in the main non-native speakers". More importantly, perhaps, ELF contexts are not geographically located, although are generally associated with the expanding circle countries, "(…) but can be virtual and transient in nature, and can also involve speakers from both the mother tongue and post-colonial contexts" (Cogo 2012, p. 97). No matter how resonant the Kachruvian division has been, it needs to be recognized that, over time, significant diversifications of the uses as well as people using English have taken place, which might deem the circle model not fully adequate to the present-day situation, since as noted by House (2009, p. 363),

> [b]oth in the case of nativised varieties and the global use of English as a lingua franca, we are of course not dealing with one monolithic, hegemonic English voice but with a great diversity of different voices. This means that the English language has largely outgrown the norms of the Kachruvian inner circle (1992) and has become not only a useful default means of communication but is often also used as a tool for national, regional and local renaissance and resistance by its new expert non-native users.

What follows is the recognition that ELF should not be regarded as an imperfect version of the standard, not an interlanguage, but rather a distinctive variety (Jenkins 2006a, b; Seidlhofer 2004), whose unique characteristics and use are worth investigating. This stance has been reflected in the growing interest and concomitant studies.

The choice between ELF and English as a foreign language (EFL) might have significant repercussions in language policy and language teaching. From a learner's point of view, the main difference between the two lies in the ultimate aim

language instruction is to be achieved: in EFL the learner intends to reach the native-like proficiency level, in ELF, he or she wants to achieve "expert level" competence (Jenkins 2006b, p. 141) to be able to function successfully in the contexts English is a means of communication.

2 Review of the Literature

As Kontra and Csizer (2011, p. 136) report, the two main lines of enquiry of ELF concentrate on (a) investigating its characteristic features and use (e.g., Breiteneder 2009; House 2003; Jenkins 2000, 2005a, b; Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen 2007, 2010; Mauranen 2003; Meierkord 2000; Murray 2012; Pitzl, Breiteneder, and Klimpfinger 2008; Seidlhofer 2003; Seidlhofer, Breiteneder, and Pitzl 2006) and (b) on exploring attitudes of language users, including teachers and learners, towards the concept as such (e.g., Ehrling 2007; Hynninen 2010; Timmis 2002).

Many empirical studies reported to date have addressed the level of phonology, which can be greatly ascribed to the work of Jenkins (e.g. 2000, 2006a, b) who compiled a list of lingua franca core features essential for intelligibility and those non-essential, such as the sounds [θ,ð] or the dark [ɬ], without which the message can be sent and interpreted correctly. The predominance of empirical investigations within the field of phonology can be attributed to the fact that exploring this aspect of ELF "has the distinct advantage that one is dealing with a relatively closed system, which is not the case with other aspects of language. This may be why no definitive findings can be reported to date on ELF pragmatics and ELF lexicogrammar" (Seidlhofer 2007, p. 144).

More recently, however, a growing amount of research into the nature of ELF interaction has emerged (for a review see Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey 2011) but, as observed by Cogo (2012), the aim of the studies is not inasmuch revealing emergent ELF forms as it is exploring the pragmatic strategies employed by speakers while communicating. Thus, what grasps researchers' attention is not identifying surface-level core features which might make ELF a separate variety but functional processes involved in communication. Initiatives that address all aspects of ELF interactions involve the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE), the Asian Corpus of English (ACE), and the Helsinki ELFA Corpus.

The second main line of enquiry that ELF has inspired are investigations revolving around students,' teachers' and language users' attitudes towards the notion of ELF (e.g., Ehrling 2007; Hynninen 2010; Timmis 2002). For example, in the study conducted by Timmis (2002) teachers and students coming from different ethnic backgrounds were enquired about using NS norms while teaching and learning English. Interestingly, the results revealed that most learners opted for acquiring native-like standards in pronunciation, which, as Timmis (2002, p. 242) points out, indicates that they "saw native-speaker pronunciation as a benchmark

of achievement." Their teachers, however, believed that the students' objective was intelligibility rather than reaching the native-like norm. Much in the same vein were the results obtained by Sifakis and Sougari (2005) who reported that Greek learners of English also equaled native-like pronunciation with high levels of achievement. The German participants of the study carried out by Ehrling (2007), described as ELF users due to the demands of the context within which they dwelled, associated English with either the United Kingdom or the United States. Only a small number of them perceived English as a means of communication with speakers from countries where English functions as a lingua franca.

Yet another study into the perceptions learners of English hold towards the concept of ELF in the Finnish context was conducted by Hynninen (2010). The interviewees perceived ELF as a modified version of English, adjusted to the capabilities of non-expert users. Overtly expressing their doubts concerning ever reaching the native-like level, Finnish students reported that exchanges with NSs motivated them to make conscious effort to achieve grammatical correctness. Hynninen (2010, p. 40) concluded that, in the respondents' view, grammatical correctness did not play a substantial role in ELF communication.

An attempt to gauge beliefs and perceptions of Hungarian learners of English with respect to ELF was undertaken by Kontra and Csizer (2011) who analysed narratives produced by students in response to the examination topic: *Does it make sense for students to learn to speak English as a native when the vast majority of English speakers are not natives?* As the authors claim, their objective was to tap into the perspective of people who intend to be professionally involved with the English language. The results clearly show that most of the respondents were definitely aware of the use of English as a lingua franca. Moreover, in majority, they were able to indicate ELF features at the level of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and pragmatics. Nonetheless, many of them showed a preference for native varieties, which stays in line with the results of the above-reported studies which revealed that, despite realizing the changing role of English in today's world, learners chose to follow the native norm.

In the Polish context, the theme was undertaken by Wach (2011) who attempted to establish the importance of sounding native-like to students majoring in English as well as tap into their opinions on the usefulness of non-native pronunciation in international communication. Moreover, the researcher was interested in the students' perceptions concerning ELF pronunciation norms as a model for teaching. The findings revealed that the respondents strongly opted for acquiring of the NS pronunciation as opposed to ELF pronunciation. A positive stance towards NS norm was also evident in answers concerning the choice of the model applied in teaching. Having the advantage of analyzing the responses provided by two groups of participants, varying in the focus on pronunciation practice, Wach (2011, p. 260) concluded that more emphasis on this aspect of language resulted in more favourable views on the value of NS pronunciation in learning and teaching.

3 The Study

The study whose results are presented here is quantitative and qualitative in character and, given the unique characteristics and a small size of the sample, should be treated as a pilot study aimed, among other things, at refining data collection tools and the procedure so that it could be applied in different educational contexts and at different proficiency levels. The primary aim of the research was to investigate attitudes and perceptions of Polish learners of L2 English and identify ways in which they voice their opinions about ELF and its role in their own learning.

3.1 Participants

The sample consisted of 93 BA students of English, the majority of whom were female (72.9 %). On average they were 21.3 years of age and had been learning the language for the period of 11 years. When asked to evaluate their own command of English on the scale resembling the traditional school scale from 2 (poorly) to 5 (very well), the students chose grade 3 or 4, thus the average amounted to 3.78. The course of studies comprises classes of speaking, writing, integrated skills, phonetics, practical grammar. Moreover, they attend lectures and classes in didactics and methodology, descriptive grammar, the history and culture of English speaking countries, English and American literature. The courses, especially those referring to language instruction or description of the system, as well as experience in language learning make this group of respondents a sample of unique characteristics, as already mentioned, because it can be assumed that their knowledge and awareness concerning the area of focus of the present article would be, if not exhaustive, definitely more thorough than that of an average language learner. Another aspect which contributes to the special quality of the group is the significance that is attached to pronunciation during all classes and exams coupled with the amount of time spent weekly on formal phonetics practice within the scope of either British or American standard. What needs to be stressed here is also the fact that most of the participants declared their willingness to enter the teaching profession, thus the aim of serving as model for prospect pupils of theirs might be considered an important motivating impulse.

3.2 Data Collection

Two types of data collection tools were used to gather the required information: a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The first of them, apart from background questions, consisted of 30 Likert-scale items where the students were

supposed to indicate to what extent a specific item applied to them by choosing on a scale from 5 (very strongly) to 1 (not at all). The questionnaire was partly inspired by the materials available at Global Pre-Service Teacher Exchange Platform (http://edacross.saguarosprings.com) and its items represented two orientations, either favourable towards ELF or EFL, that were randomly distributed in the document. The preference for the former orientation could be manifested by agreeing with such statements as:

1. In my opinion a standardized Euro-English is the best for teaching.
2. I don't speak English with any particular accent.
3. It doesn't bother me when I read/hear something in mixed British/American English.
4. It doesn't matter which accent my teacher speaks.
5. My aim is to be able to express intended meaning without effort.

The term "standardized Euro-English" was chosen to avoid terminological confusion which might result from the need to define ELF.

The preference for EFL was hoped to be tapped by statements like the following:

1. I get irritated when I hear somebody mix American and British English.
2. I prefer to communicate in English with native speakers.
3. My aim is to become native-like.
4. Native speakers should be models for learners of a foreign language.
5. Teachers should not allow mixing American and British English.
6. I learn British/American slang.

Quite disconcertingly, Cronbach's alpha calculated for the whole questionnaire was only .54, which opens space for considerable doubts concerning the reliability of the tool. The same coefficient calculated for the part of the questionnaire referring to the ELF orientation only amounted to .70, which renders it at an acceptable level of internal consistency (cf. Dörnyei and Taguchi 2010). All this testifies to the usefulness of the piloting procedure which offers a possibility of refining the tools applied and rethinking the procedure so that all the flaws are eliminated.

In order to gain a deeper insight and develop a better understanding of the issue it was decided that another data collection tool should be employed in the present study. Semi-structured interviews with 4 participants were recorded, transcribed and analysed. The contributions were elicited with the use of a list of questions including queries about the participants' contacts with NSs and NNSs, their interest in the political and social life of the English speaking countries, becoming native-like and strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native teachers of English. Detailed as they were, the questions were rather considered a starting point for a discussion so that the students were encouraged to express the views they freely associated with the topic.

3.3 Results

Qualitative and quantitative analyses of the collected data were conducted. Mean values and standard deviations were calculated for each of the statements as well as percentages for all of the responses, which enabled a more ingrained analysis of the information gathered in the course of the study.

3.4 Questionnaires

Although the questionnaire consisted of two parts, each of which was intended to tap into alternative stances towards teaching English and thus identify groups of learners, either opting for English as a lingua franca or advocating teaching the British or American variety, the results turned out inconclusive in this respect, suggesting that learners appreciate the international character of the language and accept NNSs' contributions; nevertheless, they express a very strong preference towards the NS norm. And thus, as can be seen in Table 1, when asked about best teachers of the language, 40 % agreed and 18 % strongly agreed that native teachers are a much better option than non-natives in this role. However, as many as 45 % of the respondents conceded that their Polish teachers spoke English well enough to teach. A great majority of the students (42 %—*agree*, 43 %—*strongly agree*) expect their teachers to help them stick to the native norm and expect their teachers to expose them to teaching materials that are either British or American, depending on which group they belong to (Item 23, $M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.01$). Similarly, most of them believe (29 %—*agree*, 43 %—*strongly agree*) that, depending on the same principle, their teachers should speak with either a British or American accent.

When asked about their objectives, 46 % strongly agreed and 13 % agreed that they intended to become native-like ($M = 4.2$, $SD = 1.0$). Whereas, 56 % strongly agreed and 26 % agreed that their aim was to be able to express intended meaning without effort (Item 17, $M = 4.3$, $SD = 0.97$). It appears that many of the respondents identify being native-like with speaking English with a proper accent. Jointly, as many as 79 % declare that the statement "*I speak English with a British/American accent*" applies to them strongly or very strongly. Only 1 % of the participants disclosed that they thought they did not speak English with any particular accent. The majority of the students declared that they expected their teachers to correct all their pronunciation mistakes, not only those that impede communication (Item 20, $M = 3.2$, $SD = 1.11$). In the participants' opinion, teachers should not allow mixing American and British English (24 %—*agree*, 39 %—*strongly agree;* $M = 2.9$, $SD = 1.15$), however, there was quite a considerable group of learners who would like to be exposed to different Englishes in the classroom (35 %—*to some extent*, 25 %—*agree*, 13 %—*strongly agree;* $M = 4.3$, $SD = 0.74$). Moreover, strong appears a tendency within the sample to

Table 1 Means and standard deviations with percentages rendering the students' choices on the Likert scale

		1 not at all (%)	2 not much (%)	3 to some extent (%)	4 strongly (%)	5 very strongly (%)	*M* (%)	*SD* (%)
1.	All my teachers should speak with either a British or American accent, depending to which group I belong	3	9	16	29	43	4.0	1.11
2.	American English is the best for teaching/British English is the best for teaching	3	1	17	42	37	4.1	0.93
3	I am much interested in current cultural events in the USA/Britain	3	13	14	39	31	2.6	0.93
4.	I am much interested in current political issues in the USA/Britain	9	38	38	12	4	3.4	0.91
5.	I am much interested in current social issues in the USA/Britain	3	12	40	35	10	3.0	0.84
6.	I regularly read websites/newspapers on the above mentioned issues	3	20	55	16	5	3.1	1.28
7.	I get irritated when I hear somebody mix American and British English	8	33	18	20	20	2.7	1.42
8.	I have international friends with whom I communicate in English	30	17	23	17	13	3.8	0.96
9.	I prefer to communicate in English with native speakers	2	6	23	42	27	2.2	1.05
10.	I don't have any particular accent when I speak English	32	32	27	8	1	2.2	1.34
11.	I speak English with a British accent	46	12	16	20	5	3.3	1.48
12.	I speak English with an American accent	17	16	13	26	28	2.8	1.09
13.	I think a standardized Euro-English is the best option for teaching	13	26	39	15	8	3.1	1.38
14.	I think about emigrating to the USA/Britain	18	13	30	16	23	2.9	1.05
15.	It doesn't bother me when I read/hear something in mixed British/American English	9	26	34	22	10	2,7	1,37
16.	It doesn't matter which accent my teacher speaks	26	23	19	19	13	4.3	0.92
17.	My aim is to be able express intended meaning without effort	1	4	13	26	56	4.2	0.97
18.	My aim is to become native-like	1	6	15	31	46	4.2	1.00
19.	My Polish teachers speak English well enough to teach it	4	4	11	35	45	2.5	1.23
20.	My pronunciation mistakes should not be corrected unless the teacher understands what I am saying	27	25	25	15	9	3.2	1.11
21.	My teachers should acquaint me with different accents, different Englishes	6	20	35	25	13	4.3	0.74

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

		1 not at all (%)	2 not much (%)	3 to some extent (%)	4 strongly (%)	5 very strongly (%)	*M* (%)	*SD* (%)
22.	My teachers should help me stick to the native-speaker's norm	0	1	14	42	43	4.6	0.77
23.	My teachers should use recordings and texts and materials that are either British or American, depending to which group I belong	1	2	4	22	71	3.7	1.01
24.	Native speakers are best language teachers	0	16	26	40	18	3.5	1.04
25.	Native speakers of English should decide what is correct in the language or not	4	11	33	32	19	3.8	0.92
26.	Role models for learners of a foreign language should be native speakers	1	5	27	38	29	3.7	0.85
27.	Role models for learners of a foreign language should be successful bilinguals	0	3	40	32	25	3.8	1.15
28.	Teachers should not allow mixing American and British English	4	8	26	24	39	2.9	1.15
29.	To learn a foreign language you must go to the target language country	13	9	41	14	24	3.3	1.22
30.	I learn British/American slang	11	14	32	29	14	4.0	1.11

experience negative feelings while hearing somebody mix different varieties of English (Item 7), with 20 % of the respondents who agree and another 20 % of those who strongly agree ($M = 2.7$, $SD = 1.42$). Only 8 % of the sample expressed a preference for a standardized Euro-English that could be the basis for teaching, 18 % strongly disagreed, yet 30 % remained undecided ($M = 3.1$, $SD = 1.38$), stating that, to some extent, such an option could be taken into consideration.

The EFL orientation is also evident in the choices related to Item 26 which states that NS have the right to decide what is correct in the language (33 %—*to some extent*, 32 %—*agree*, 19 %—*strongly agree;* $M = 3.8$, $SD = 0.85$). An impressive number of the participants disclosed they considered emigrating to an English speaking country (see Table 1, Item 14; $M = 2.9$, $SD = 1.05$), which may not be surprising, given the unemployment rate among graduates and which may partly account for the respondents' willingness to achieve native-like standards that would facilitate integration with the target language community. 32 % of the students participating in the study responded that the statement "I learn British/American slang" was true about them to some extent, 29 % claimed it described them strongly, and 14 % that it applied to them very strongly ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.11$).

Quite disconcertingly, although the majority of the respondents declare being interested in current cultural and social issues in Britain and the USA (Items 3, 4, 5; $M = 2.6$, $SD = 0.93$; $M = 3.4$, $SD = 0.91$; $M = 3.0$, $SD = 0.84$, respectively), only 21 % of the sample report regularly reading websites or newspapers related to these issues, which might imply that the interest is superfluous and probably inadequate.

Obviously, the choice between the EFL and ELF orientation has a bearing on classroom reality, including selection of materials, ways of motivating students and also course objectives. Thus, it seemed legitimate to ask the respondents about their preferences with respect to role models presented to learners of a foreign language. One of the options included NSs, the other, the so-called "successful bilinguals"—people who mastered a foreign language to such a degree that it enabled them to function successfully within their chosen profession in the target-language community or internationally. Most apparently, the respondents seem to believe that both options are worth presenting and propagating since 38 % agreed and 29 % strongly agreed that the former option was advisable and 32 % agreed and 25 % strongly agreed that the latter was commendable. A closer inspection of the questionnaires revealed that many of the participants rated high both options.

3.5 Interviews

The choice of the interview as a data collection tool resulted from a deep conviction that getting to know an individual's thoughts, feelings, underlying motivations and taking into account unique perspectives and an interplay of contextual

factors may lead to a better understanding of the issue under investigation. Ushioda (2009), who came up with the concept of a *person-in-context relational view,* argued for the need to approach learners as real persons rather than as theoretical abstractions. Statistical analyses of data collected in the course of surveys, she claimed, "depersonalise learners, who are treated simply as abstract bundles of variables" Ushioda (2011, p. 12). For this reason, the present authors have attempted to explore the area conducting a semi-structured interview with highly motivated students of English philology. The present section will comprise a brief presentation and discussion of the collected data followed by tentative conclusions and recommendations.

A total number of 4 interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants and transcribed. The interviewees were 3rd-year female students of the BA programme, all of whom had taken part in the Erasmus exchange scheme. Highly motivated and proficient learners of the English language as they were, they declared that entering the teaching profession was not high on their priority list. They either envisaged their future as translators or did not have very precise plans.

The first question concerned the variety of the English language that should be taught at schools. The choices, far from a standardized Euro-English, depended on the group a respondent belonged to. And thus, one of the students said:

> We should learn British English because Britain is closer (…) and many young people emigrate so British English is more useful.

A representative of an American group was convinced that American English should be recommended as:

> Everything is in American English (…) films, lyrics, the Internet. Many of us watch stand-up comedians, different shows, sitcoms and they are all American. You have more contact with American English than any other.

The interviews corroborated the assumption made on the basis of the results gathered in the questionnaire delineated above that philology students show little interest in current social and political issues of the countries whose language, history and culture they are studying. One of the respondents said:

> English is a lingua franca (…) you can communicate wherever you go, but I didn't want to learn about American or British institutions; it is useless unless you want to go to the States or the UK.

This kind of attitude might have developed because, as the interviewees disclosed, their contacts with NSs were infrequent so were visits to the English speaking countries, neither did they plan paying such a visit. Most of opportunities to communicate in English involve interaction with proficient speakers of English coming from various ethnic backgrounds. Nevertheless, the respondents appear to appreciate the benefits resulting from contacts with native teachers: "*native teachers could teach pronunciation, culture, colloquial, every-day language.*" However, they acknowledge expertise of non-native teachers rooted in their own experience as language learners:

> a non-native knows which aspects to deal with, which are important or difficult (…) you can't say that native teachers are better than non-native.

All of the interviewed students appreciate the role of successful bilinguals in the learning process and admit that presenting their biographies and accomplishments could act as a motivating factor:

> (…) a native speaker didn't have to do anything special to be able to speak so bilinguals who learnt the language should be models for learners, this would be motivating, I don't know any such people's names.

> (…) I don't know any person who learnt English and did something important in Britain or America but such people should be known to learners.

Baffling seems the fact that they were not able to refer to any such person in particular, being themselves experienced language learners and having used numerous course books and been exposed to various teaching materials. This testifies to the fact that current didactics does not appreciate the potential impact these people might have on the level of motivation.

Inquired about attaining the level of being native-like, the participants differed in their opinions. While some declared their willingness to reach the highest standards:

> to be native-like, I know it will never be possible absolutely to become native-like but I'll try (…) English is my passion, another student stated that.

I wouldn't like to be native-like; behave like Americans, no, but I would like to have perfect pronunciation.

Pronunciation turned out to be the aspect of language most frequently referred to throughout the interviews. It appears that achieving a native-like command of English was generally equalled with acquiring perfect pronunciation, which might, on the one hand, result from the fact that the respondents, one day, might have to serve as models for their pupils, if they become teachers, on the other, that they had had to spend much time and effort practising it, the letter being in line with the conclusions drawn by Wach (2011, p. 260). Disconcertingly, such aspects of language as grammar or vocabulary were not brought up in the conversations when the topic of approaching the native ideal was mentioned.

4 Conclusions

The findings obtained in the present study clearly show that the participants are definitely aware of the lingua franca use of English. Nevertheless, despite realizing that most interaction happens between NNSs, they express a strong preference for native varieties. Such a stance may partly result from the experience of the respondents as language learners, who, being part of the educational system which has not yet accommodated the concept of ELF in materials and attitudes, are

required to follow traditional paths of language development and study the history and present day of the two dominant English-speaking countries, denying the fact that now the language belongs to a wider international community. On the other hand, perhaps, the tendency to stick to the NS norm may stem from the fact that, becoming teachers of English, many of the students will be expected to act as models for their pupils to follow. Interestingly, the students' perceptions of a native-like command of English appear to be associated mainly with a very high standard of pronunciation, while mastery over other subsystems seems to be of a slightly lesser value.

The conclusions drawn from the results accumulated in the study might serve as a basis for taking informed decisions in language teaching and language learning. Thus, students' readiness to pursue NS levels should be recognized and taken into account while designing the teaching process. However, worth considering is equipping learners with communication strategies that would enable NNS–NNS interaction, since this type of contact appears to be most frequent. As most teaching materials depict NSs whose merit in accomplishing native standards cannot be attributed to effort and perseverance, it seems legitimate to say that the didactic process should be enriched with materials concerning successful bilinguals, language learners, whose experience might have a great instructive and motivating value.

It needs to be recognized, however, that the sample represented in the study whose account is presented here has its special qualities that make it impossible to generalize the conclusions onto a wider population of language learners. First and foremost, all of them are English philology students, which means that they will be professionally involved with the language as teachers or translators. Such a choice of a career naturally involves willingness to achieve highest standards, which are associated with the NS norm. Thus, it can be assumed that their aims surpass the mere ability to communicate basic messages. On the other hand, their experience as language learners cannot be underestimated, since, in the course of learning the language, they must have developed their own learning strategies and attitudes that best match their preferences and beliefs but, on the other hand, might be reflective of the teaching practices they became the object of. Hence, the main limitation of the study is its lack of generalizability because of the educational context within which the study was conducted. A comparison between the results presented here and those accumulated in other settings and among different age groups could contribute to a more thorough understanding of the issue.

References

Baker, W. 2009. The cultures of English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly* 43: 567–592.

Breiteneder, A. 2009. English as a lingua franca in Europe: An empirical perspective. *World Englishes* 28: 256–269.

Brumfit, C. 2002. *Individual freedom in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Canagarajah, S. 2007. Lingua franca English, multilingual communities, and language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal* 91, Focus Issue: 923–939.
Cogo, A. 2012. English as a lingua franca: concepts, use, and implications. *ELT Journal* 66: 97–105. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccr069.
Crystal, D. 1997, 2003. *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Dewey, M. 2007. English as a lingua franca and globalization: An interconnected perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 17(3): 332–354.
Dörnyei, Z. 2005. *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition.* Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Dörnyei, Z. 2009. The L2 motivational self system. In *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, eds. Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda, 9–42. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
Dörnyei, Z. and T. Taguchi. 2010. *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. New York and London: Routledge.
Ehrling, E. J. 2007. Local identities, global connections: Affinities to English among students at the Freie Universität Berlin. *World Englishes* 26: 111–130.
Holliday, A. 2005. *The struggle to teach English as an international language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
House, J. 2003. English as a lingua franca: A threat to multilingualism? *Journal of Sociolinguistics* 7: 556–578.
House, J. 2009. Introduction: The pragmatics of English as a lingua franca. *Intercultural Pragmatics* 6(2): 141–145.
Hynninen, N. 2010. We try to speak all the time in easy sentences: Student conceptions of ELF interaction. *Helsinki English Studies* 6: 29–43.
Jenkins, J. 2000. *The phonology of English as an international language. New models, new norms, new goals.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Jenkins, J. 2005a. Implementing an international approach to English pro-nunciation: The role of teacher attitudes and identity. *TESOL Quarterly* 39: 535–543.
Jenkins, J. 2005b. ELF at the gate: The possibility of teaching English as a lingua franca. *Humanising Language Teaching* 7 (2) Retrieved from http://www.hltmag.co.uk/mar05/idea.htm.
Jenkins, J. 2006a. Current perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly* 40(1): 157–181.
Jenkins, J. 2006b. Points of view and blind spots: ELF and SLA. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 16(2): 137–162.
Jenkins, J., A. Cogo and M. Dewey. 2011. Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching* 44(3): 281–315.
Kankaanranta, A. and L. Louhiala-Salminen. 2007. Business communication in BELF. *Business Communication Quarterly* 70(1): 55–59.
Kankaanranta, A. and L. Louhiala-Salminen. 2010. "English? – Oh, it's just work!": A study of BELF users' perceptions. *English for Specific Purposes* 29: 204–209.
Kachru, B., ed. 1992. *The other tongue*, 2nd edn. Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
Kontra, E. and K. Csizer. 2011. "They can achieve their aims without native skills in the field of work or studies": Hungarian students' views on English as a lingua franca. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching* 1(1): 135–152.
Mair, C., ed. 2003. *The politics of English as a world language*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.
Mauranen, A. 2003. Academic English as lingua franca – a corpus approach. *TESOL Quarterly* 37: 513–527.
Meierkord, C. 2000. Interpreting successful lingua franca interaction: An analysis of non-native/non-native small talk conversations in English. Linguistik online 5. Retrieved from http://www.linguistik-online.com/1_00/MEIERKOR.HTM.
Murray, N. 2012. English as a lingua franca and the development of pragmatic competence *ELT Journal* 66(3): 318–326 doi:10.1093/elt/ccs016.

Niżegorodcew, A. 2011. English as a lingua franca in intercultural communication. In *Developing intercultural competence through English: Focus on Ukrainian and Polish cultures,* eds. A. Niżegorodcew, Y. Bystrov and M. Kleban, 29–44. Kraków: Jagiellonian University Press.

Pennycook, A. 1994. *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.

Phillipson, R. 1992. *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pitzl, M.-L., A. Breiteneder and T. Klimpfinger. 2008. A world of words: Processes of lexical innovation in VOICE. *Vienna English Working Papers* 17(2): 21–46. Retrieved from http://anglistik.univie.ac.at/fileadmin/userupload/dep_anglist/weitere_Uploads/Views/views_0802.pdf.

Seidlhofer, B. 2003. A concept of 'international English' and related issues: From 'real English' to 'realistic English'? Autour du concept d'anglais international: De l''anglais authentique' a l''anglais réaliste'?. Strasbourg: Language Policy Division, Council of Europe. Retrieved from http://www.coe.int/CulturalCooperation/education/Languages/Language_Policy/Policy_development_activities/Studies/SeidlhoferEN.pdf?L.

Seidlhofer, B. 2004. Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 24: 209–239.

Seidlhofer, B. 2005. English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal* 59(4): 339–341.

Seidlhofer, B. 2007. Common property: English as a lingua franca in Europe'. In *International handbook of English language teaching,* eds. J. Cummins and C. Davison, 137–153. New York, NY: Springer.

Seidlhofer, B., A. Breiteneder and M.-L. Pitzl. 2006. English as a lingua franca in Europe: Challenges for applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 26: 3–34.

Sifakis, N. C. and A. Sougari. 2005. Pronunciation issues and EIL pedagogy in the periphery: A survey of Greek state school teachers' beliefs. *TESOL Quarterly* 39(3): 467–488.

Singleton, D. and Aronin, L. 2007. The role of English in a multilingual world. In *PASE papers 2007: Studies in language and methodology of teaching foreign languages*, eds. J. Arabski, D. Gabryś-Barker and A. Łyda, 11–21. Katowice: Para.

Timmis, I. 2002. Native speaker norms and international English: a classroom view. *ELT Journal* 56(3): 240–249.

Ushioda, E. 2009. A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In *Motivation, language identity and the l2 self*, eds. Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda, 215–228. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. 2011. Motivating learners to speak as themselves' in Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning. In *Identity, motivation, and autonomy in language learning*, eds. G. Murray, X. Gao and T. Lamb, 11–24. Bristol: Multilingual Matters

Wach, A. 2011. Native-speaker and English as a lingua franca pronunciation norms: English majors' views. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching* 1(2): 247–265.

Widdowson, H.G. 1997. EIL, ESL, EFL: global issues and local interests. *World Englishes* 16(1): 135–146.

Yashima, T. 2009. International posture and the ideal L2 self in the Japanese EFL context. In *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, eds. Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda, 144–163. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.