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Editors
Joanna Rokita-Jaśkow
Alicja Witalisz

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Wydawca
Wydawnictwo Naukowe UP
30–084 Kraków, ul. Podchorążych 2
tel. / faks 12 662-63-83, tel. 12 662-67-56
e-mail: wydawnictwo@up.krakow.pl
http://www.wydawnictwoup.pl

druk i oprawa Zespół Poligraficzny UP

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Introduction

The following volume is a collection of papers from the area of applied and general linguistics. The first seven articles concern second language acquisition research and language pedagogy, mostly related to the group of young learners. While the selection of papers comes from a variety of teaching backgrounds, including Serbia, Turkey and Poland, their findings can be further generalised onto other contexts. An opening paper by Albertyna Paciorek outlines the state-of-the-art of research into implicit learning of foreign languages. She presents the evolution of interest in implicit learning from nativist to emergentist theories and discusses their implications for language pedagogy. Zeynep Camlibel investigates whether pre-service teachers feel prepared and are actually willing to teach young learners. The remaining authors verify the usefulness of different teaching methods and materials. Anita Buczek-Zawiła describes an experimental study that was carried out in order to verify the effectiveness of the multimodal approach to teaching pronunciation. Agata Cierpisz evaluates various EFL coursebooks in respect of developing intercultural competence. Ivana Cirković-Miladinović investigates the use of language learning strategies as perceived by young learners and their teachers, and observes further potential for research and practice. Dorota Lipińska scrutinises the effectiveness of phonetic training on young learners' production, while Renata Botwina and Olga Jakubiak provide a synthetic summary of the techniques and principles of teaching young learners.

The second section includes papers devoted to theoretical linguistics, yet many of them have clear implications for second language and translation pedagogy. Christoph Haase presents an analysis of two academic texts with a special focus on cause-effect relationships. In a similar vein Rafał Matusiak proves the incomprehensibility of English legal texts despite the official policy of making the texts as plain as possible. Anna Ścibior-Gajewska and Joanna Podhorodecka analyze the influence of streaming students into ability groups in grammar classes. Douglas Wilcox focuses on the technique of creative writing as an effective tool in teaching translation. In the final paper Grzegorz Wlaźlak scrutinises selected derivative noun forms in 18th-century English dictionaries.

We hope that the papers will meet with interest of researchers and academics working in a variety of fields and will inspire further inquiries of the topics outlined.

Joanna Rokita-Jaśkow and Alicja Witalisz

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Albertyna Paciorek
Pedagogical University of Cracow

Theoretical and pedagogical importance of implicit learning research

Introduction

A typical language learning experience involves spending hours (and money) on classes, memorizing vocabulary lists and grammar rules. Then practicing them discussing such classic topics as people's appearances, environmental issues, past habits, or cities of the future. Eventually come the euphoric moments of passing high-level exams, and one is ready to travel to the country of choice, to communicate and put all the hard work to good use. It is usually then that we discover that performing well on a language test and communicating efficiently in the natural environment do not always correspond. We find ourselves wondering how do young children pick up their first language (L1) so effortlessly and in a span of just a few years develop a fully fluent command? And why, despite at times very elaborate, metacognitive knowledge of linguistic rules, second language (L2) users produce utterances which differ from those of native speakers?

One explanation which has been proposed for this discrepancy is that children and adults engage very different learning mechanisms. Implicit learning pertains to learning without awareness of the fact that one is learning something and without awareness of the nature of what is being learnt. It therefore addresses the development of unconscious competence akin to what we believe is the nature of linguistic knowledge and the process of its acquisition in the first language. There is a considerable debate whether the same process is still in operation in the acquisition of an L2 (DeKeyser 2003; Williams 2009). Research into implicit learning has roots in psychology, beginning with seminal work by Arthur Reber (Reber 1967). However, it was not until Krashen's Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (Krashen 1981) that scientists began to see its importance for language acquisition. Implicit learning is therefore a relatively young field of inquiry, but one that quickly gains much attention.

Currently, most studies of the second language acquisition have addressed explicit learning, that is a conscious, intentional process that we engage in when, for example, we expect a test. However, explicit knowledge does not transfer to fluent language use in context, as evidenced by the notorious difficulties that learners face with certain features that do not appear in their first language. Furthermore,

test results could be affected by participants' using mnemonic techniques, task-irrelevant strategies, temporary shifts of attention and interest. Addressing implicit learning of language offers a window to the process of acquisition unaffected by these factors. It provides a theory-neutral and psychologically sound methodological framework for addressing the issues of learnability. While certain aspects of language may be naturally acquired, others may necessarily require conscious learning. Identifying exactly which ones can be acquired naturally is the Holy Grail for language pedagogues.

This article aims to delineate how implicit learning research has begun to illuminate the work on language acquisition and discuss its importance for theory and practice. First, though, certain methodological concern must be addressed. Some specialists challenge the notion of „implicitness" and suggest that any learning effects that seem implicit actually reflect fragmentary conscious knowledge, e.g. memory for parts of a sound stream (e.g. Perruchet 1994, 2008; Shanks 2005). Implicit learning researchers must therefore resort to methods in which what they measure is not a part of the task requirement. For example, in Paciorek & Williams (2015a), I asked whether participants remembered pairings of words from previously seen sentences. Most of the pairings were novel (although the individual words were seen before, they were not seen together). Some pairings followed an underlying semantic regularity the learning of which I was measuring, and some did not. By demonstrating participants' high acceptance of novel pairings that conformed to the rule and relative success at rejecting those that did not, while reporting no awareness of the rule at the end of experiment, I concluded that implicit learning took place. What is suggestive is that at no point did the participants have to think of the underlying regularity, as it was not a part of the task. In all, actions speak louder than words in implicit learning research. In trying to show what someone has attained implicitly, they have to be caught unawares, otherwise they control their performance.

The following sections provide an overview of the current contribution of implicit learning studies to the understanding of language acquisition, pedagogy, as well as language learning in populations with special educational needs. Gaps in our current knowledge will be sketched as well, with some proposed ways to address them. The intended overall picture is the one of promise this line of research carries in the field.

Theoretical importance of implicit learning research

Emergentism vs nativism

The central question in second language research, as mentioned in the introduction, is why certain features pose a notorious challenge for second language learners, especially those who do not mark them in their first languages. Let us use learning of definiteness as an example. Polish learners of English, even at high-levels of proficiency, often exhibit inconsistencies in their use of the definite ('the')

and indefinite ('a') articles. What is the reason for these observed difficulties in acquiring definiteness? Different predictions have been put forward within two leading, yet competing theoretical frameworks: generativism and emergentism.

Generativism, or the Universal Grammar (UG) approach, spearheaded by Noam Chomsky (e.g. Chomsky 1957), stresses the importance of the age of acquisition. After the biologically determined 'window of opportunity' our parameters become set, and if definiteness is not one of them, it remains unavailable (Hawkins 2001). Definiteness in L2 is therefore predicted only to be learnable by native speakers of languages which also mark it. On the other hand, emergentists account for language learning in terms of the interaction of basic, non-linguistic factors, such as perceptual mechanisms, working memory, processing capacity, the character of the learning mechanisms and pragmatic principles, among others – which although related to language, are not language specific and do not pertain to inborn grammatical principles (O'Grady 2005). Emergentists predict that manipulating the presentation of the material to be learnt (e.g. making articles more visually prominent), or making the relevant conceptual information pertaining to definiteness more obvious in the sentence context will all have an impact on learning, even for the speakers who do not mark it in their L1s.

How could implicit learning shed light on this classic linguistic debate? Under implicit learning conditions, learning novel markers of definiteness could be compared among speakers of languages which do and which do not mark it in any way. Should the novel markers prove to be only learned by those whose languages already mark it and not by the native speakers of the languages that do not, it will provide strong evidence in support of generativism, stronger than explicit learning would. On the other hand, according to emergentist theories, any differences would find their explanation in domain-general cognition, that is not specific to language. Also, if increasing perceptual salience (e.g. by introducing double marking) improved the learning in those with otherwise weaker performance, the evidence could be taken as support of empiricist predictions.

In sum, research involving typologically motivated predictions pertaining to the learnability of different, notoriously difficult to learn features, such as definiteness, but also gender categories, tones, or argument structure needs to be carried out to determine whether different L1s would indeed have the predictable impact on implicit learning. In terms of specific predictions which have been proposed, White (2003) implies that from the UG perspective „acquisition of L2-like argument structure is not inevitable, depending on which language is L1 and which is the L2." Earlier she argues that „the failure to lose L1 argument structure arises in situations where the L1 grammar yields a superset of the possibilities permitted in the L2. That is, positive L2 input for restructuring the lexical entry is lacking." (White 2003: 239). This is a theoretical prediction, though. More empirical evidence for distinguishing the role of L1 and the universal principles for second language learning is still needed and implicit learning provides an ideal methodological environment to investigate it.

Cognitive mechanism of learning

Apart from the role of L1 in subsequent language acquisition and illuminating the nativism vs emergentism debate, implicit learning also offers promise for another theoretical debate, this time in psychology. Methodological advances in implicit learning research, which necessarily require distinction between conscious and non-conscious processes, allow scientists to better understand the role of awareness in learning and a deeper insight into cognitive underpinnings of the learning mechanism; the mechanism which for decades has been understood as being statistical in nature. So far, implicit learning literature has largely overlapped with what is known as 'statistical learning.'

Statistical learning concerns learning through passive absorption of frequency and co-occurrence statistics in the input; in other words: acquisition is determined by how often we encounter a particular word or a phrase, for example, and in what context. The same underlying mechanism may be assumed as for implicit learning (Misyak, Goldstein & Christiansen 2012), although there is less of an emphasis on the implicitness of the resulting knowledge (as opposed to the implicitness of the learning process) than in traditional implicit learning research. The focus in statistical learning research is on how *form level* co-occurrence statistics (e.g. transition probabilities within a constant stream of meaningless syllables) might be used to bootstrap learning at more abstract levels, such as lexical segmentation (Saffran, Newport & Aslin 1996), phrase structure (Saffran 2001), and non-adjacent dependencies (Gomez 2002).

Recent advances in implicit learning research have been particularly relevant to language acquisition through their focus on the development of *form-independent* regularities, specifically based on meaning (e.g. Leung & Williams 2011), as it is the meaning-based regularities rather than form-based regularities, that reflect the nature of language. For example, Paciorek & Williams (2015a, 2015b) addressed this issue using a number of paradigms including false-memory and reaction-time.[1] It was tested if people unconsciously generalise beyond the level of form, by seeing if they implicitly pick up on which newly introduced words (verbs) can be followed by abstract and which by concrete nouns. It turned out that the participants did indeed develop sensitivity to these co-occurrence patterns – without being able to report this knowledge at the end of the experiment.

Pedagogical importance of implicit learning research

The role of 'noticing'

In the field of second language acquisition research a great deal of skepticism about the possibility of implicit learning at all is perhaps most clearly expressed in the work of Schmidt (e.g. Schmidt 1990, 1995), and resonates in his seminal

[1] False-memory phenomenon may be used as a measure of learning, as participants are more likely to erroneously recall something they haven't seen if it is related to something they encountered and learnt something about, than to something they do not. In reaction-time experimental paradigms participants are likely to react slower to something that contradicts their intuition, and faster to something that agrees with it.

'noticing' hypothesis. Schmidt was primarily concerned with the roles that attention and awareness play in the learning process. He proposed 'noticing' to be the minimal combination of attention and a low level awareness, necessary and sufficient for converting input to intake (Schmidt 1990). He proposed that stimuli outside focal attention, and therefore outside awareness, might activate preexisting memory representations, but only subliminally, and that subliminal learning is impossible.

Once 'noticed,' a given aspect of language may be consciously analyzed, compared to other things which were 'noticed,' giving rise to a higher level of awareness – 'understanding' (which involves what is generally understood as 'thinking'). Schmidt wrote skeptically about the possibility of forming generalizations and abstract rules without noticing at the level of understanding. Such generalizations and abstract rules are arguably required to acquire numerous linguistic regularities, including definiteness, in our example. Still, he saw clear importance in this kind of research and identified „unconscious induction and abstractness of the knowledge that results from learning" as „the most important issues involved in implicit learning studies" (Schmidt 1995: 35).

Additionally, the findings by Leow (1997, 2000) challenge the idea that learning can be established without awareness. His studies involved the learning of irregular (stem-changing) verbs in Spanish. Participants were solving a crossword puzzle during which they were required to report any thoughts coming to their mind. Interestingly, only those who commented on the changes of stem in the critical items later showed significant gains between pre-test and post-test. The study therefore suggests, that there is no learning without 'noticing.'

More promising results come from the research by Williams (2005), Leung & Williams (2011, 2012) and Paciorek & Williams (2015a, 2015b). In Williams (2005) participants were first taught a system of four determiners: gi, ro, ul and ne. They were told that they had a similar role to the English definite article, but they were also sensitive to the distance between the speaker and the object (near vs far). Participants were not informed about another regularity, namely that two of them appeared with animate and two with inanimate objects. After exposure to sentences containing the novel articles, in an unexpected test participants' performance was significantly above chance. Crucially, it was the case for those who reported no awareness of the regularity pertaining to animacy. In the already mentioned study, Paciorek & Williams (2015a) have adapted a false-memory procedure to demonstrate implicit learning of semantic collocation patterns of novel verbs.

What this research points out to, is that the classical view of the role of 'noticing' in second language acquisition may need to be updated. While noticing at the level of form may be necessary for learning, certain form-independent generalizations are possible in the absence of 'noticing' at the level of understanding. Hopefully future work will be devoted to delineating indeed which kinds of generalizations do and which do not occur in the absence of understanding.

Individual differences in language aptitude

Despite a dose of earlier skepticism, there is currently also a great deal of motivation for implicit learning research in the field of language acquisition. It is fostered by the findings supporting the strong relationship between the two. To

date, numerous aspects of language have been shown to involve implicit or statistical learning, including, among others, word segmentation (Onnis, Waterfall & Edelman 2008; Saffran, Aslin & Newport 1996), orthography (Pacton, Perruchet, Fayol & Cleeremans 2011), phonotactics (Chambers, Onishi & Fisher 2003), argument structure (Hudson Kam 2009; Wonnacott, Newport & Tanenhaus 2008; Wonnacott, Boyd, Thomson & Goldberg 2012) and syntax (Chang, Dell & Bock 2006; Rebuschat & Williams 2009). Even though not all material may be equally learnable by implicit means, interestingly, those aspects of language which have proved challenging for learners, such as arbitrary gender categories (Braine et al. 1990; Brooks, Braine, Catalano, Brody & Sudhalter 1993; Guillelmon & Grosjean 2001; Williams 2003), or scrambling (Williams & Kuribara 2008; Iwasaki 2003), also tend to be the ones with which second language learners notoriously experience difficulties.

Furthermore, individual differences in implicit learning have been shown to correlate with language abilities independently of other factors such as IQ or working memory (Conway & Pisoni 2008; Conway et al. 2009; Misyak, Christiansen & Tomblin 2010). Kaufman et al. (2010) reported a study investigating the association of individual differences in implicit learning with numerous cognitive variables, such as psychometric intelligence, working memory or academic performance. They found that implicit learning was not related to overall intelligence or working memory. It turned out to be related only to academic performance on foreign language exams, and two aspects of psychometric intelligence: verbal analogical reasoning and processing speed – arguably, crucially linguistic traits.

Also, language disabilities have been linked to impaired implicit learning. For example, dyslexia with impaired implicit sequence learning (Howard, Howard, Japikse & Eden 2006; Jiménez-Fernandez, Gracia Vaquero, Jiménez & Defior 2011), and specific language impairment and agrammatism with a deficiency in artificial grammar learning (Evans, Saffran & Robe-Torres 2009; Plante, Gomez & Gerken 2002; Christiansen, Louise Kelly, Shillcock & Greenfield 2010). The longstanding debate in the literature over whether dyslexia is linked to a breakdown of implicit sequence learning is particularly interesting, as conflicting evidence has been reported. Dyslexia is a cognitive disorder affecting reading and writing skills, with the absence of an intelligence deficit or other cognitive disabilities. For this reason it was hypothesized that its underlying cause does not relate to conscious learning processes, but rather the implicit learning mechanism underlying abilities relying on sequence processing, such as the ability to read or write. In a convincing study and analysis by Jiménez-Fernandez, Gracia Vaquero et al. (2011) the authors argue, that those studies which claim to demonstrate successful implicit sequence learning among dyslexics, are based on materials which allow participants to use complementary strategies. For instance, in a number of studies the events in sequences were not balanced for frequency, allowing participants to report based on event familiarity. Certain sequences also involved regularities which were simple enough to decipher consciously. When event frequency and cue saliency are controlled, only healthy control participants and not dyslexics show learning. These findings support the general conclusion that implicit learning is related to

language and it is driven by those aspects in the stimuli which are salient enough to be processed. It is therefore related to people's processing abilities, and the better we understand why people differ in their performance on implicit learning tasks, the better insight we will get into individual differences in language aptitude. The findings also reinforce the importance of methodological rigor in researching implicit processes.

The role of explicit 'seed'

The section above discussed the way in which the first language could shape implicit learning by providing a prior knowledge base. In light of studies showing that first language may indeed determine what is naturally learnable in L2 (e.g. Leung & Williams (2011)). Investigating the role prior knowledge plays in facilitating or constraining implicit learning could be particularly illuminating in the light of the major debate between generativism and emergentism, as mentioned above, but it has a further pedagogical importance as well. It is worth extending the question about L1 and ask: what role does explicit knowledge have for language acquisition?

Is explicit knowledge a type of scaffolding on which implicit learning can subsequently operate and fine-tune the existing representations? In other words, are the two systems, if separate, dependent upon each other? Looking at the form-independent, semantic implicit learning research, we notice the fact that participants in most experiments to date were provided with some explicit aspect of meaning. Is it actually a crucial condition for implicit learning of this kind to take place? In experiments by Paciorek & Williams (2015b) participants were at least told to think of the novel verbs in terms of whether they increase/decrease something; in Williams and Leung's (2012) studies they are told the new particles are like English determiners but indicate a near/far distinction; in Goschke (2007) experiment the effect emerges on a naming task, where participants name the objects they see, which also, at least in part, relies on explicit knowledge.

A possible way to test the degree of dependence of implicit upon explicit learning in a semantic learning task would be to introduce variability in the explicit dimension of meaning of novel target verbs. So for example, a newly introduced verb *powter* could mean 'to increase' in some training sentences, and 'to decrease' in other. Should similar learning effects be obtained to the ones reported in published work (Paciorek & Williams 2015a), it would seem that implicit learning does not require a fixed, explicit 'seed' to subsequently fine-tune, but rather it is an independent process. In light of the findings from Goujon (2011) such a situation is not unlikely. There, semantic contextual cueing only emerged when learners had an opportunity to categorize the scene prior to the visual search, even if the scene they categorized was different from the one on which they performed their search. Whether these findings can be extended to language is an open question. Language could be different in that respect, as participants may have natural expectations that words have a constant meaning, and introducing inconsistencies could impair learning. Determining the role explicit knowledge plays in implicit learning clearly

remains an issue waiting to be addressed, especially since it would be directly informative for language pedagogy.

Learning in impaired populations

Addressing the question of the extent to which impaired populations are capable of implicit learning could prove very informative for neuroscience, as well as pedagogy. For example, testing whether amnesic patients could develop semantic knowledge implicitly would be informative about the nature of hippocampal and cortical learning. The hippocampus is assumed to be responsible for storing specific memories which the cortex then uses to extract similarities and form generalizations. Impairment of the hippocampus is a common cause of memory loss and it is currently debated whether or not this damage prevents the development of semantic representations. Up to now, the studies which suggest no semantic learning in amnesia relied on procedures (e.g. word list learning) in which healthy individuals would use explicit strategies. It would be useful to re-address the issue using procedures which stimulate the development of implicit semantic knowledge, rather than explicit knowledge.

In addition, investigating implicit learning of the form-independent, semantic type among autistic people could shed light on which abilities are preserved and which are not in this disorder. There is evidence that implicit learning abilities are intact among the autistic population. This conclusion is based on their performance on such tasks as artificial grammar learning, serial reaction time, contextual cueing and probabilistic classification learning tasks (Brown, Aczel, Jiménez, Kaufman, Grant 2010). However, cognitive processing in autism has been characterized by a difficulty with the abstraction of information across multiple stimuli or situations (e.g. Minshew, Meyer & Goldstein 2002) and its subsequent generalization to novel stimuli or situations (e.g. Ozonoff & Miller 1995). This makes individuals with autism seemingly unlikely to show semantic implicit learning effects.

It has been assumed that prototype formation, a process of creating a mental summary representation of multiple experienced stimuli belonging to the same category, is also impaired in this group (this ability being particularly pertinent for language acquisition and meaning representation). However, in a recent study, Froehlich et al. (2012) challenge this assumption, arguing that although explicit categorization is impaired, prototype formation is comparable to healthy controls. The tasks they used to demonstrate this difference arguably relied on explicit and implicit processing respectively. After exposure and classification of multiple dot displays, participants were asked to indicate whether they remembered seeing a given display or not (test for prototype formation), and if they responded in the affirmative, the second task was to indicate to which of the four categories the display belonged. It turned out that the participants with autism demonstrated intact prototype formation and did not differ significantly from the controls. One of the measures was false recognition of previously unseen prototypes. Participants with autism falsely recognized previously unseen prototypes to a reliably greater degree than they accurately recognized familiar training and repeated transfer stimuli, suggesting they are capable of generalizing beyond the material they

experience. However, on a more explicit task requiring them to categorize the displays, the autistic group performed significantly less accurately than the control group. Further research on the preservation of implicit learning skills among the autistic population, as well as the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge (and specifically the activation of and access to implicit knowledge), could one day result in remedial strategies for the learning difficulties these individuals experience in typical educational and day-to-day settings.

Finally, implicit memory is known to be relatively more resistant to decay with age and not as affected by impairment as explicit memory. This fact has already been applied in therapy in the following methods:

- „Spaced retrieval" – a technique by Landauer & Bjork (1978) in which the information to be learned is retrieved repeatedly at gradually increasing delays. Camp et al. (2000) suggest that this relatively effortless method, in which retention intervals are increased only when success is achieved at a shorter interval, may rely on automatic, implicit memory.
- „Vanishing cues" – by Glisky et al. (1986), a technique that involves gradually withdrawing or fading cue information until the target is produced in the absence of it (e.g. protect, protec___, pro___, pr___, p___).
- Errorless learning – by Baddeley & Wilson (1994), consisting of eliminating negative evidence, so that the person can accumulate and consolidate only what is correct.

It is not unlikely that the future will also bring further applications of our growing knowledge of implicit learning to therapeutic interventions, particularly those aiming at the preservation of linguistic skills for as long as possible.

Conclusions

The relatively young field of implicit learning research in language has already provided us with fascinating insights into the nature of second language acquisition. It begins to shed light on individual differences in language aptitude, it offers an ideal framework to investigate the role of prior linguistic knowledge on subsequent acquisition, and for illuminating the debate between nativism and emergentism. The most practical applications of the work in the field have been implemented in language therapy, but second language pedagogy is bound to be next. The map to the Holy Grail of language acquisition, namely understanding which aspects of language can be naturally, and effortlessly picked up and which require conscious, explicit learning, is in our hands and it is a question of time before we can tailor language teaching methodologies to specific learner groups given their language background, age and cognitive profile.

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Teoretyczne i pedagogiczne znaczenie badań nad uczeniem mimowolnym

Streszczenie

Uczenie mimowolne języka jest nową dziedziną badawczą aczkolwiek szybko rozwijającą się. Metodologia badań wiąże się z kontrolą poziomu świadomości osoby wykonującej określone zadania celem upewnienia się, że mamy do czynienia z procesem zachodzącym bez zamiaru nauczenia się czegoś oraz bez wiedzy na temat tego, co akurat jest przyswajane. Jest to doświadczalne podejście do zagadnienia akwizycji. Artykuł przedstawia rozwój badań na temat uczenia mimowolnego, rozważając ich teoretyczną jak i pedagogiczną wartość. Zagadnienia teoretyczne poddane dyskusji dotyczą potencjału wpłynięcia na debatę pomiędzy natywizmem i emergentyzmem w przyswajaniu języka, a także nowego podejścia do zgłębiania poznawczych procesów uczenia w sensie ogólnym. Szansa dla nauk pedagogicznych to rozwój metod optymalizujących sukces w przyswajaniu języka obcego, a także głębsze zrozumienie różnic indywidualnych w potencjale do przyswajania wiedzy. Na końcu nakreślone są też sposoby w jakich uczenie mimowolne zostało zaadoptowane w różnych terapiach. Obraz uczenia mimowolnego jaki się wyłania jest obiecujący i wiążący się z istotnymi pedagogicznymi implikacjami.

Słowa kluczowe: uczenie mimowolne, przyswajanie języka, natywizm, emergentyzm, procesy poznawcze

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Zeynep Çamlibel-Acar
Marmara University

Pre-service teachers' perceived readiness and willingness to teach English to young learners

Introduction

Teaching English to young learners

Teaching and learning a foreign language at a young age is becoming more and more common in the world (Copland & Garton 2014; Enever 2011; Haznedar & Uysal 2010; Nikolov & Curtain 2000). As is the case with many countries, students start foreign language education at a young age in Turkey. With a law that was passed in 1997, EFL became obligatory in primary state school grades four and up. The law was renewed in 2005 which lead to the provision of EFL in grades two and up (Kırkgöz 2010). In private schools, children start learning English much earlier, for example during kindergarten.

Based on these changes, students in Turkish state primary schools receive two to four hours of EFL instruction per week, with the extended hours in private schools. A great demand for specialized language teachers trained in teaching children thus is faced, since teaching English to young learners (henceforth TEYL) requires special skill, a combination of multiple competences and a high level of motivation (Cameron 2003; Richards 1998; Rokita-Jaskow 2008; Schulman, Seligman & Amsterdam 1987). To put it more specifically, a young learners' EFL teacher needs to encompass not only the knowledge of the foreign language, but also social, musical and reflective skills, as well as general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of primary education (Cameron 2003). Some of these abilities are a result of general experience, some are inborn, while some are gained as a result of teacher training. A major problem that is faced in this area is the lack of appropriate training and qualified teachers (Copland & Garton 2014; Enever 2014; Haznedar & Uysal 2010; Kırkgöz 2010). Each country and institution is taking precautions in terms of training teachers who will be able to efficiently serve young learners.

Pre-service course provision in Turkey

In order to be accepted into a teacher training program in Turkey, one has to take a centrally administered competitive nation-wide university entrance exam. Based on their scores, students list their preferences and are placed into one of those institutions and departments. In ELT teacher training departments

throughout Turkey, teacher candidates take over 60 courses and receive a great amount of content, pedagogic and linguistic information. Most of these courses are geared towards teaching EFL to adult learners. Shortly after the first implementation of the law, a course specifically for teaching languages to children ('Teaching English to Young Learners') was implemented in English language teacher training programs. In a few universities, the additional 'Teaching English to Young Learners II' is offered as well. Needless to say, two courses are not sufficient to include all the issues one may face while teaching a foreign language at the primary school level.

Beside this limitation, prospective EFL teachers do not always have the opportunity to participate in real young learner classrooms until their final year or graduation, which creates a big gap between theoretical considerations and the realities of the teaching practice.

Upon graduation from the four-year ELT department of a Faculty of Education, teachers can be employed in primary, secondary and high schools. If graduates choose to be employed at private institutions, they may have the chance to select the grades at which they would like to teach. If they prefer to work at public schools, they have a much lower chance of being able to select their grade level. In this case, TEYL might be a greater challenge for an inexperienced teacher candidate who is not willing to work with this age group.

Motivation to teach

There is a need to examine the factors that are influential in teachers' early development (Udegbe 2016). Research on preservice teachers is mainly concerned with their beliefs and self-efficacy levels (Borg 2003; Shinde & Karekatti 2012; Yang 2000), and to some extent with their motivations for teaching (König & Rothland 2012; Watt & Richardson 2007). Limited studies have investigated pre-service language teachers' motivation to teach (Akar 2012; Kyriacou & Kobori 1998; Kyriacou, Hultgren & Stephens 1999), yet none of these studies have investigated language teachers' motivation to teach certain grade levels.

Previous studies on motivation to teach were based on various frameworks, and determined a wide range of motivations. The major types of motivation when analyzing the choice to teach, as described in Kyriacou & Kobori (1998: 346), were:

(i) *Altruistic reasons.* These reasons deal with seeing teaching as socially worthwhile and important job, a desire to help children succeed, and a desire to help society improve,

(ii) *Intrinsic reasons.* These reasons cover aspects of the job activity itself, such as the activity of teaching children, and an interest in using their subject matter knowledge and expertise,

(iii) *Extrinsic reasons.* These reasons cover aspects of the job which are not inherent in the work itself, such as long holidays, level of pay, and status.

The present study

Studies on pre-service teachers are predominantly conducted with student teachers in their final year, reflecting upon the practicum experience. Research that focuses on pre-service teachers in their 3rd year is scarce. So, one aim of this

study is to enrich the knowledge base to better understand prospective teachers by analyzing their motivations for teaching young learners before their practicum year. Studies conducted on this topic in different contexts are necessary since each program has unique characteristics. Therefore, this study aims to reflect a picture from the Turkish context.

Furthermore, not many studies in the literature examine changes in pre-service teachers' ideas and dispositions. As Yüksel (2014: 7) states, „for a more in-depth understanding of PTs' sense of efficacy, studies tracing changes throughout teacher training are also needed." Another aim is to complement the field with qualitative findings. Studies on preservice teachers are mainly conducted through quantitative measures, which seem insufficient in fully discovering and interpreting prospective teachers' motivations. Moreover, qualitative and quantitative studies on teacher motivation yield conflicting results. For instance, qualitative data reveal minimal amount of altruistic reasons as motivations for teaching, whereas they are chosen much more frequently when provided as an option in quantitative studies (e.g. Akar 2012). So, in order to both clarify previous findings and enrich interpretations of teacher motivation, new qualitative studies are needed.

The current study was led by the above-mentioned concerns and guided by the need to explore the extent to which pre-service EFL teachers perceived themselves ready and willing to teach English at the primary school level. In addition, the influence of a semester-long training on their views was investigated. Specifically, the following research questions were asked:

1. to what extent are pre-service teachers willing and ready to teach English to young learners?
2. what are the reasons behind their decisions? and
3. what is the influence of the 'Teaching English to Young Learners I' course on their decisions?

Methods

Context

This study was conducted in the ELT department of a state university in Turkey, where pre-service teachers receive two courses on TEYL during their four-year-long training. The compulsory TEYL I course offered during the fall semester, which included 24 hours of training distributed over a period of 12 weeks, was the focus. The course typically covers major theories (e.g. Piagetian and Vygotskian perspectives) related to children and their classroom implications, young learner characteristics, their attitudes and beliefs as language learners, how to teach a foreign language to young learners, classroom management, material development and evaluation, and classroom language use appropriate for young learners. As part of the requirements of the course, besides exams, students have to analyze primary school English curricula and textbooks, prepare and present instructional materials for child language learners, and do small-scale classroom observations in schools.

Participants

Participants were 110 junior level (3rd year) university students being trained as prospective teachers of EFL, and enrolled in the TEYL I course. Their ages ranged between 20 and 24 years. Of these participants, 77% were female and 23% were male.

Data collection and analysis

A questionnaire with open-ended items was the primary source of data for the study. The questionnaire gathered information on pre-service teachers' willingness to teach English at the primary level upon graduation and their reasons. This information was collected from the participants via the same tool at the beginning of the semester, and then again in the last lesson at the end of the semester. To remain anonymous, participants used the same symbols or pseudonyms for the pre and post data.

In order to analyze the questionnaire data quantitatively, descriptive statistics in the form of frequency counts and percentages were employed. For the qualitative analyses, a data-driven process of pattern coding (Miles & Huberman 1994) was used. The codes emerged from the data, which were then categorized into themes. The themes were finally assigned into three main sources of reason, namely altruistic, self- and other-related. The altruistic category was based on Kyriacou et al.'s (1999) description, whereas the latter two were used in the sense to reflect the locus of reason that the participants stated. So, due to the nature of the data, reasons provided by the participants were either altruistic, based on personal (inner) characteristics, or related to the factors outside the participant (external).

Results and findings

The beginning-of-the-semester results for whether pre-service EFL teachers preferred to teach to young learners or not showed that in general more prospective teachers were willing to teach to young learners (60) than those who were negative about it (41) and a small number of participants were undecided (9) (see Table 1). The participants responded very similarly at the end of the semester, which means that pre-service teachers' willingness to become a young learners' teacher did not change after taking the course for a semester.

Tab. 1. Pre-service EFL teachers' willingness to teach young learners

Choice	Beginning of semester		End of semester	
	N	F	N	f
Yes	60	55 %	56	56 %
No	41	37 %	35	35 %
Undecided	9	8 %	9	9 %
Total	110	100 %	100	100 %

The data that was related to willingness to work with young learners yielded 186 tokens of answers grouped under 12 reasons in the pre-questionnaire and 160 answers grouped under 11 reasons in the post-questionnaire. A list of the themes that emerged from participants' answers is shown in Table 2. In terms of source,

one theme was altruistic, five were self-related, and six were other-related for the beginning, while six were self-related and five were other-related for the end of the semester.

It was seen that most of the participants were willing to teach at the primary school level because they considered it to be fun and enjoyable (47%). In fact, more participants thought so at the end of the semester (61%). Again, a big portion of responses indicated affection towards children (42% pre and 46% post), and many participants stated that their choices were guided by the fact that children were motivated and open to learning (35%–42%).

Tab. 2. Preservice EFL teachers' reasons for wanting to teach young learners

Source	Beginning of semester	n	F
Other	It is enjoyable to teach YLs / They are fun and happy	28	47
Self	I like/love children	25	42
Other	YLs are open to learning mentally and emotionally	25	42
Altruistic	I want to become a role-model for children / First to teach them	25	42
Other	YLs respect/appreciate their teacher / It's a fulfilling level for a teacher	23	38
Other	YLs are eager and motivated to learn	21	35
Self	I have decided based on my teaching experience	9	15
Other	It is easier and more practical to teach YLs compared to older students	8	13
Other	There are a variety of potential activities and materials for YLs	7	12
Self	I feel competent and confident to teach YLs	7	12
Self	I have patience / It is suitable to my personality and goals	4	7
Self	I don't want to teach older students	4	7

Source	End of semester	n	F
Other	It is enjoyable to teach YLs / They are fun and happy	34	61
Self	I like/love/understand children	26	46
Other	YLs are eager and motivated to learn	21	38
Other	YLs are open to learning mentally and emotionally	20	36
Self	I feel competent and confident to teach YLs	18	32
Other	The YLs course and assignments influenced my decision	18	32
Self	I am motivated and plan to be a good teacher	7	13
Self	I have decided based on my teaching experience	5	9
Other	YLs respect and appreciate their teacher	5	9
Self	I don't want to teach older students	3	5
Self	It is suitable to my personality and goals	3	5

In terms of variety, there was a balance between self-related and other-related reasons in pre- and post-questionnaires. However, there was only one altruistic theme mentioned by 25 participants (42%) and existed only in the pre-data (e.g. *„I want to become a role-model for children and teach them well"*). This finding

parallels previous studies, as participants choose altruistic reasons more frequently in quantitative studies and rarely mention them in qualitative studies. As a matter of fact, there were no altruistic reasons in the post-data. At the end of the semester, this reason was replaced by the self-related comment „I am motivated and plan to be a good teacher" chosen by 13% of participants.

Although the numbers and frequencies for willingness remained almost the same at the end of the semester, qualitative analyses revealed some transformations in terms of the content of the participants' reasons. In fact, the nature and quality of their ideas seemed to have improved in more sophisticated ways after taking the course.

Before taking the course, pre-service teachers provided two reasons that related to practicality of teaching to children (13%) and abundance of materials for this age group (12%), which disappeared after taking the course. This change could be related to the composition of the course, which emphasized specific criteria regarding lesson and materials preparation for young learners. In other words, at the beginning of the semester, pre-service teachers might have been more laid-back and haphazard about TEYL, affected by their preset dispositions or stereotypes. They became more enlightened and conscious after taking the course, which stopped them from oversimplifying TEYL.

Similarly, certain prejudices held by prospective teachers diminished after taking the course. As can be seen in Table 2, before taking the TEYL I course 23 participants (38%) opted for young learners because they respected and appreciated their teachers, whereas only five participants (9%) provided this explanation as a reason after taking the course. The-end-of-the-semester data also shows that participants have made additional comments in relation to understanding children and being influenced by the course, reflecting the positive effects of the course.

The last but not least qualitative change was detected in the prospective teachers' self-perceived competence and confidence levels in terms of working with children. At the beginning of the semester, only seven participants (12%) reported having confidence and it was the tenth reason on the list. Yet, after taking the course, this number almost tripled to 18 prospective teachers (32%) and became the fifth reason. This finding implies that, as pre-service teachers learned more about young learners and relevant methodological issues throughout the course, they felt more efficacious and better prepared to teach this age group.

The data presenting reasons for not wanting to work with young learners yielded 109 tokens of comments in the pre-questionnaire and 65 tokens of comments in the post-questionnaire, which were grouped under nine and eight themes respectively. This group of pre-service teachers reported no altruistic reasons at all, and there was an imbalanced distribution, where most of the reasons were self-related (eight at the beginning and six at the end of the semester) and very few were other-related (one at the beginning and two at the end of the semester). This suggests that prospective teachers who are not planning to participate in TEYL do not attribute the reason to any outside forces but themselves. They know themselves and their own characteristics and are able to assess whether they would be

suitable for the job. In Table 3 a list of the themes that emerged from participants' answers is shown.

Tab. 3. Preservice EFL teachers' reasons for not wanting to teach young learners

Source	Beginning of semester	n	F
Self	I don't have patience / Teaching YLs is not suitable to my character	18	44
Self	I prefer to teach older students (to communicate with them) / I want challenge	18	44
Self	I can't control or manage YLs	15	37
Self	I don't like children / I think that they're immature	14	34
Other	Teaching YLs requires lots of responsibility and effort	12	29
Self	I can't simplify/provide basic or concrete information for YLs	12	29
Self	I can't entertain YLs with interesting activities	8	20
Self	Teaching YLs is difficult for me / I don't feel competent teaching YLs	8	20
Self	I don't want to become a teacher	4	10

Source	End of semester	n	F
Self	I prefer to teach older students (to communicate with them) / I want challenge	16	46
Self	I don't have patience	11	31
Other	YLs are noisy and difficult to control (based on my experience)	9	26
Self	I don't like children	7	20
Self	I don't want to become a teacher	7	20
Self	I can't entertain YLs with interesting activities	7	20
Other	Teaching YLs requires lots of responsibility and effort	5	14
Self	I can't simplify or provide the basics	3	9

As Table 3 indicates, the major reasons for unwillingness to teach at the primary school level is that these pre-service teachers preferred to teach English to adults and reported themselves not patient enough to work with children.

Despite parallelisms in numbers of pre-service teachers disinterested in serving young learners across the semesters, positive changes were encountered in the reasons. At the beginning of the semester, five of the nine themes were related to pre-service teachers' perceived weaknesses and low self-confidence, but there were only three such themes at the end of the term. The most striking change on this issue is that before taking the TEYL I course, 20% of participants felt incompetent to teach young learners, while this reason was not even stated after taking the course.

Moreover, the other worries mentioned by prospective teachers as reasons for not wanting to teach at the primary level were less of a concern after taking the course. At the end of the semester, the frequency of „I can't simplify and provide the basics" dramatically decreased by 20% (from 29% to 9%), which means that after taking the TEYL I course, participants felt and considered themselves more capable of providing suitable and appropriate language for young learners. Similarly, not liking children and TEYL requiring a great deal of responsibility and effort were mentioned by nearly half as fewer participants by the end of the semester.

Likewise, the percentages for reasons related to not being patient and not being able to manage young learners also decreased at the end of the semester (by 13% and by 11% respectively). Interestingly, while management was described as an internal reason verbalized as a personal weakness at the beginning of the semester („I can't manage young learners"), it was described as an external reason at the end („Young learners are difficult to control"). All of these changes indicate that as they learned more about this age group, prospective teachers' self-esteems and levels of confidence increased. At the same time, their perceptions and conceptualizations of young learners and teaching them changed into positive.

There were also some participants who were not sure whether they wanted to teach English to young learners or not. These pre-service teachers stated that teaching to young learners had both advantages and disadvantages (six pre and seven post), and felt that they needed more time and information to decide (five pre and six post).

Discussion and conclusions

This study was concerned with prospective EFL teachers' willingness to teach English to children at the primary level, and the potential influence of the TEYL I course, which they had to take as part of their training. Results show that most third-year prospective teachers were willing to teach at the primary level. Their choices were both internally (e.g. liking children) and externally motivated (e.g. children's learning style). On the other hand, those who were not willing to teach to young learners had personal reasons (e.g. lack of patience) indicating some areas which need to be worked on in teacher education programs.

A comparison of the percentages for and against teaching young learners at the beginning and at the end of the semester shows that preferences did not change. That is to say, taking the TEYL I course did not change their level of willingness to become a young learners' teacher. As several previous studies also confirmed, perceptions and beliefs are deeply-rooted and cannot easily or quickly change, because pre-service teachers have pre-set dispositions and ideas, influenced by their former experiences, beliefs, assumptions, prejudices, and myths (Shinde & Karekatti 2012).

However, a qualitative analysis of the reasons that prospective teachers provided indicated that taking the TEYL I course did lead to an improvement. Certain changes were detected in relation to the nature of their opinions, i.e. they seemed to feel or become more competent and confident, better informed and more aware of the complicated issues involved in teaching EFL to children. These changes suggest that pre-service teachers' beliefs, perceptions, and self-efficacies have started to be reshaped after the course. An increased level of confidence could be sensed in their comments at the end of the semester, and by the end of the term, candidates demonstrated a new level of awareness and decisiveness.

This finding is significant both in terms of research and education. It shows that trainee teachers need time and solid experiences to develop in the process of becoming teachers and to eliminate stereotypes. It is also evident that quantitative results always need to be supplemented with in-depth qualitative investigations

to better understand teachers and their advancement. Moreover, this study supports the discovery of more altruistic motivations in quantitative studies and fewer in qualitative studies (Akar 2012).

Teachers in Turkey usually do not have a chance to select the grade level at which they would like to teach. Therefore, teacher candidates need to be prepared for all grade levels. This means that we need more courses specialized in teaching EFL to young learners in ELT teacher training programs. In addition, real-life, vicarious and reflective experiences and assignments need to be integrated into the syllabus of the courses related to TEYL. There is a great need to strengthen the quality of pre-service training regarding TEYL in Turkey as is the case throughout the world (Enever 2014). At the same time, changes in the hiring process are recommended, because teachers' preferences in terms of level and teacher characteristics are highly important for teacher motivation and efficiency. Teachers need to be given opportunities to select and test the age group that they would like to work with.

Junior level ELT students who will soon be teachers form an under-investigated group and there is a lot to be studied with this group of participants. For example, how various experiences (such as observations in real primary school classrooms) or how long-term experiences in schools (such as the Practicum) shape and/or change prospective teachers' perceptions of their own readiness and willingness needs to be investigated in further longitudinal, qualitative, and data-driven studies.

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Gotowość i chęć do nauczania języka angielskiego dzieci wśród studentów – przyszłych nauczycieli

Streszczenie

Głównym celem opisywanego badania było sprawdzenie, w jakim stopniu studenci – przyszli nauczyciele j. angielskiego czują się odpowiednio przygotowani do nauczania języka w szkole podstawowej, a także jakie są przyczyny ich decyzji. Badano także wpływ kursu dydaktyki języków obcych dzieci na zmianę poglądów badanych. W badaniu wzięło udział 110 studentów studiów licencjackich filologii angielskiej na jednym z tureckich uniwersytetów. Dane zostały zebrane za pomocą kwestionariusza pytań otwartych na początku i na końcu semestru kursu dydaktyki, a następnie poddane analizie statystycznej i jakościowej. Analiza wyników pokazała, że większość studentów ma motywację, by pracować z dziećmi. Mimo że ilościowo motywacje te nie zmieniły się pod wpływem kursu dydaktyki języków obcych, analiza jakościowa danych wykazała zmianę w opiniach i świadomości studentów pod wpływem kursu. Artykuł zakończony jest wskazówkami i zaleceniami dla konstruowania programów kształcenia nauczycieli oraz wskazówkami do dalszych badań.

Słowa kluczowe: małe dzieci, szkoła podstawowa, kształcenie nauczycieli

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Anita Buczek-Zawiła
Pedagogical University of Cracow

A holistic multimodal approach to the pronunciation training of young learners of English – an attempt at verification

Introduction: some basic assumptions

The pronunciation of a foreign language can be one of the most challenging aspects of foreign language acquisition for students of all ages. There is also no doubt that elementary students in particular need exercise in speaking and fluency. They frequently have to struggle with the pronunciation of newly encountered lexical items, experience difficulties with stressing or linking words in the longer stretches of speech. As Stephan (2005) rightly notices, teachers tend to underestimate the learners' need to experience what a word or a sentence sounds like when it is practiced in many different modes or voices. Learners even at a very early age are usually very aware that English feels and sounds different when compared with their mother tongue at a very early age. By the age of 8–9 they begin to realize more consciously how differently things sound between languages. Therefore, this is generally a great age to really start working on pronunciation, regardless of the number and difficulty of the challenges that may exist.

Poor pronunciation affects all four skills, as well as fluency and comprehension, and because of this, learning is generally compromised. Speaking is compromised when students begin to avoid words or short phrases they have difficulty pronouncing, to the effect that these can be interpreted as gaps in a learner's knowledge or understanding. Fluency is thus non-existent and may remain unattainable if they continue to have a hard time trying to produce certain sounds. The equation seems to be a simple one: poor pronunciation means poor fluency (Walker 2012). Listening comprehension may be incredibly difficult for students who have trouble with pronunciation, because they may not be able to recognize sounds or words that are produced. Often, when teachers detect issues with listening, the response is to work on more listening activities, which may turn out to be counterproductive. Whenever a lack of comprehension occurs because of pronunciation problems, the focus is needed on this aspect rather than on listening. Poor pronunciation can also adversely affect reading and writing. When writing, students might confuse similarly sounding words and write *where* instead of *were*, or *beard* instead of *bird*, for instance. Reading comprehension can also be affected since saying the words incorrectly can lead to students' confusion with

words and their meanings. Among both scholars and practitioners, there seems to be uniform agreement that through word or sentence pronunciation, intonation, and stress, different elements in an utterance can be emphasized, to the point of considerably modifying the conveyed meaning, revealing the speaker's mood or emotional situation (Stephen 2005). Not only does poor pronunciation create problems in all skill areas, it also limits the transmission and comprehension of moods and emotions.

It is our working hypothesis that a holistic multimodal approach to EFL pronunciation instruction is more effective than simple 'listen-and-repeat' one. Additionally, it is our contention that whenever certain methodological conditions are met, the holistic multimodal approach is better appreciated by both trainers and trainees alike. The investigation of the hypothesis continues below.

Starting early

There has been much debate about the age at which students should start to properly practice pronunciation. Most of the experts dealing with this matter claim that the earlier, the better. Caroline Nixon and Michael Tomlinson (2005) support this presumption in their book *Primary Pronunciation Box*, and add that until the age of twelve children are far less self-conscious than those above thirteen years. Learners are thus much more receptive to learning sounds and pronunciation patterns in their formative years. „It is much easier to teach and correct pronunciation at an early stage in the learner's development than it is to correct time-compounded pronunciation errors at a later one" (Nixon & Tomlinson 2005: 9). The same solution to the problem of 'fossilized accent' is also suggested by Ann Baker. She advocates more time allocated to pronunciation teaching at the beginner level rather than at later ones (Baker 1982). Magdalena Szpotowicz and Małgorzata Szulc-Kurpaska (2009) observe that the youngest learners work predominantly on developing their oral skills, and conclude convincingly that the acquisition of good pronunciation appears to be of paramount importance to them. Young learners have a natural ability to recognize and distinguish sounds, both alone or in combination, as well as natural mimicking skills and abilities. It is no problem for young learners to imitate any model that is used with them.

Needless to say it is not only the individual segments that need proper practice and instruction: „if other aspects of pronunciation are dealt with efficiently, then sounds do not present such a problem" (Hubbard et al. 1983: 56). According to David Cross (1995) students of all ages need to be equipped with instruction in language prosody because that gives them a good basis on which to understand spoken language more easily. He believes that, essentially, most native speaker communities share the features of rhythm, stress and intonation and adopt the same strategies (like changing the pitch of voice) to express surprise, anger, doubts etc. Therefore, from the start, these prosodies ought to be the focus of language use, practice, and correction. Stephan (2005: 21) argues for practising speech in a more 'natural' way, „through multiple doorways, including variety and fun, adding a bit of drama if necessary." She underlines the necessary presence of

affective measures, which will naturally contribute to the effectiveness of practice. Miyamoto (2003: 35) observes that when browsing through EYL (English to Young Learners) teaching manuals, the YLs teacher gets the impression that „having 'fun' is the most important factor in EYL, and that this 'fun' is offered to children through the use of games, stories and rhymes." The rhythmical activities are considered here as particularly beneficial, as they copy the actions taken by carers when dealing with very young children, thus developing their native phonological intuitions. Thus rhythmical activities create an approximation of this experience in the foreign language classroom: here children sing-chant rhymes, move parts of their body (e.g. clasping hands, stamping feet) in time with the stressed syllables of the rhyme/song, in this way practising new sounds and prosodies in a way completely familiar and natural to them.

The fundamental objective in pronunciation instruction according to Hanna Komorowska (2002) must be developing the students' phonemic hearing abilities, believed to be the prerequisite to correct sound discrimination and ultimately production. Imitation serves here as a major instructional mode. It is to be hoped that this imitation is not executed only in an audiolingual fashion as an activity in which the learner is to echo faithfully the material presented by the teacher or the recording (Dakowska 2003). The use of imitation can be justified as a legitimate part of the learning experience as having some relevance or adaptive value for the student. In this sense, it is accompanied by repetition, possibly viewed as a sort of self-imitation which serves the purpose of consolidating the skills and abilities that are being developed or as a rehearsal for a skill-demanding activity (Dakowska 2003). As such both have a role to play in foreign language instruction, and in pronunciation training in particular. Their value may be defended on the grounds that non-reflexive, rote repetition is useless and difficult to turn into a lasting memory trace. Meaningful conscious imitation on the other hand constitutes the essential element of the practice for both accuracy and fluency. And young learners of language do not experience problems with imitating the speech produced by those around them. Empirical research demonstrates that young children are rather early able to reflect on the language they use and acquire. Therefore, what is needed is a smooth but consistent transfer from learning based chiefly (or exclusively) on imitation to one that fosters conscious and purposeful use of new language in a new situational context (Wieszczeczyńska 2010).

It has been postulated (Szpotowicz & Szulc-Kurpaska 2009) that pronunciation training ought to be incidental and indirect, executed chiefly through repeated exposition to the language they are learning. Only if this produces insufficient and unsatisfactory results should more direct measures be implemented for practice on any problem areas. This is where both Robin Walker (2012) and Szpyra-Kozłowska (2015) disagree. Walker advocates constant conscious and relevant work on pronunciation, well integrated into the normal lesson procedure, with proper attention given to immediate correction of the learner and correctness (though not perfection) achieved by the learner. The solutions offered by Szpyra-Kozłowska are summarized in the next section.

A holistic multimodal approach to pronunciation training: principles and rationale

Szpyra-Kozłowska (2015) argues for a holistic multimodal approach to EFL pronunciation instruction and claims that, in order to be effective, teaching pronunciation to foreign learners should be organized in such a way as to cater to different learning styles by combining elements of auditory, articulatory, cognitive and multisensory training. Because of the diversity, it needs to be primarily conscious and tightly controlled. Such training should involve the development of appropriate motor habits that are relevant for sound perception and production, forming the L2's sound system in the learners' minds and making an appeal to multisensory speech processing (Szpyra-Kozłowska 2015). She herself admits that her proposal is not a novelty in itself; the individual elements present in this approach are well-known and have been postulated in various sources dealing with pronunciation teaching. It is the integration of them into a coherent method to be applied in phonodidactics that is new.

While the negative consequences of retaining or having poor pronunciation need to be pointed out, a positive atmosphere and a consistent attitude towards developing good pronunciation needs to be built up. Still, reactive teaching, one that focuses primarily on errors, while obviously necessary, cannot be the only procedure present in the classroom. It can be inferred, then, that error in pronunciation, even if local and task-specific, reflects the non-expert status of the learner and the learner's need for feedback to enhance his/her precision of use (Dakowska 2003). If students are to attach the proper importance to good pronunciation, periodically, perhaps a whole lesson, or at least a substantial part of it, should be devoted entirely to such instruction. Apart from this, it is vital that attention to pronunciation is paid whenever an opportunity arises, also in the form of spotting and commenting on the consequences of certain mispronunciations. The major precondition is that in order for it to be effective pronunciation training must be learner-centred.

The various activities that can and ought to be used in pronunciation training have different and mutually complementary functions. There is a growing conviction among scholars that any meaningful training in pronunciation should be holistic in that it incorporates not only traditional and commonly used 'listen and repeat' activities, which are those that involve imitation and repetition of the input. These are valuable in themselves, but rely heavily on auditory and articulatory skills, whereas it is now considered that we should aim at making use of various channels of perception and information processing. Hearing and imitating faithfully the L2 sounds is no longer thought to be completely sufficient in terms of effectiveness. „Phonetic training should include various kinds of activities that appeal to as many different modalities as possible" (Szpyra-Kozłowska 2015: 145).

One type of activity that comes from earlier training techniques could be drills that have been made perhaps more meaningful than in the days of audiolingualism. They support the development of automaticity in sound production. Without a considerable amount of automaticity fluency is not possible. New motor skills are thus practiced and consolidated. For that, some amount of drilling is a necessity in

pronunciation instruction. The auditory component involves maximizing the phonetic input, among other things, by exposing them to a lot of English. In the context of young learners this can be achieved via recordings, first of individual words or word pairs, then with phrases and short sentences. If we follow the assumption that learners are unable to produce a sound contrast they cannot hear, it becomes clear why auditory training is a must – it fosters first of all sound discrimination. Analytic listening and/or noticing tasks, which focus on the oral form of the spoken message and its phonetic features, are of particular value here. Such training promotes conscious (self)instruction in pronunciation skills. With time, learners' phonetic metacompetence is built and their phonological awareness raised. With young learners not much articulatory or phonological training can actually be done, however, when some points are smuggled in, it is usually done contrastively in relation to learners' L1. However, only if such comparisons are done in a simplified manner, and only when they bring some amount of cognitive consciousness. Discovery techniques can be very useful here.

The most important component of such holistic multimodal approach is multisensory instruction. When the instruction caters to the particular needs of learners and is made via several different channels of perception, it is believed that such an approach facilitates the learners' ability to learn faster and remember more. Incorporating multisensory teaching is believed to result in more effective pronunciation training. The 'listen and repeat' activities may be ineffective as the sole mode of teaching, as they rely on our ears and appeal to one modality only, whereas using a larger variety of instructional procedures that work on different senses, and not only imitation abilities, is likely to produce more tangible and long-lasting effects. After all, in real life speech is performed while seated, standing or moving. Therefore, it seems only logical to try and copy that in the classroom, where students' particular posture, facial expressions or body movements can lower their inhibitions and allow the focus to be on accuracy and fluency in pronunciation practice.

The basis for further investigations into the effectiveness of such a method is a statement by Sankey et al. (2010: 854, cited in Szpyra-Kozłowska 2015: 165) that reads as follows: „Students engaged in learning that incorporates multimodal design, on average, outperform students who learn using traditional approaches with single modes." The remainder of the paper is devoted to reporting on an attempt to experimentally verify the effectiveness of the above postulates. Szpyra-Kozłowska and Stasiak (2015) reported a similar study carried out among intermediate teenage learners of English. Their results were very promising. The group investigated in the present study, however, comprises only beginner or pre-elementary young learners of English. Multisensory instruction is generally a welcome component of language teaching for such a group. In this context, phonetic training is faced with its own problems. The instructional procedures, as well as the outcomes, may turn out to be completely different.[1]

[1] For example from those employed and found in Szpyra-Kozłowska & Stasiak (2015).

The study

What follows is a report on an experiment, carried out with 34 Polish learners of English at the ages between 7 and 9, representing the (pre)elementary level of general proficiency, who, during fourteen classes in the summer of 2014 and 2015, were taught the selected aspects of English pronunciation (the interdental fricatives, the palatoalveolars, inflectional endings, some strong and weak forms) via the adopted holistic multimodal approach. The 'listen-and-repeat' procedure was also used due to its familiarity to students. The experiment was followed by two sets of semi-structured interviews with other co-trainers, as well as with selected participants.

The study aimed at answering the following research questions:

- Which procedure, i.e. either a 'listen-and-repeat' approach, or a holistic multimodal training brings better improvement in learners' pronunciation?
- Do the obtained results depend on the integration of the techniques applied into regular course activities? (trainers' views)
- How do learners evaluate the holistic multimodal training? (learners' views)

As such it represents an amalgam of qualitative and quantitative research, based largely on actual, hand-on experience of both trainees and trainers, as evidenced from the analysis of the instruments used. The specific instruments comprise a quasi experiment and two semi-structured interviews, followed by specific evaluation tasks to estimate the relative success of the instructional measures taken. It does not aim to establish or negate the existence of correlation between specific dependent and independent variables. Rather it constitutes a step in investigating the effectiveness and usefulness of holistic multimodal pronunciation training with various groups of students.

The participants and the procedures

The subjects were participants in a 8-day-long summer schools in English. During the school year they regularly participate in after-school English language classes organized by a private enterprise in a small town north of Częstochowa in the Silesian Province. The overall number of participants was over 50, but the 34 discussed here fit into the required age range. Out of those, 12 participated in both summer schools (2014 in Poronin, 2015 in Sztutowo). 22 students were present only in the 2015 summer camp. Among them, a nearly even distribution in terms of gender could be observed: 18 girls to 16 boys. During the courses, they were divided into three separate groups: the 9-year-olds, who attended both editions of the summer school; the 7-to-8-year olds (two groups) who were present in the 2015 course. Among the participants, one girl aged 5 and a half accompanied her elder sister. She was remarkably silent in either language and, apparently, participated only passively and was largely treated as a group mascot.

The summer school classes were organized in such a way that every group, including the teenagers, who are not the subjects in this study, had 30 minute

instructional sessions related to various degrees of developing their English skills. Every group had one pronunciation-orientated lesson a day.

In 2014, the predominant techniques used with the students were the 'listen-and-repeat' drills, tongue twisters, and mnemonic sentences (Komorowska 2002; Buczek-Zawiła 2012). As early as that, the pronunciation teacher coordinated their efforts with other teachers, who, to the extent that this was possible, paid attention to the selected aspects of pronunciation practiced earlier in the day. For example, when a segmental contrast between the [ɪ] and [iː] was practiced, later in the day during their handicraft practice with an American teacher, they had to use words like *needle* or *pin* that appeared earlier on and had the required sounds. For the *THs*, the music teacher made sure they could sing some counting song properly, with numbers like *three*, *thirteen* and *thirty three* being of primary focus. Therefore, it can reasonably be claimed that at least some elements of the holistic multimodal approach were practised then. Additionally, where possible, students were made aware that mispronouncing certain sounds and words can lead to substantial, even if funny misunderstandings. One way to ensure that was to give a title to each of the practice sessions („Po morzach pływają owce?," „Czy po angielsku syczymy inaczej niż po polsku?," „Inne wymię?").[2]

In 2015 the youngest of the summer school participants were divided into three groups with a view to carry out a small scale quasi-experiment to qualitatively and quantitatively evaluate the effectiveness of a specific instructional approach: 'the veterans' (mostly 9-year-olds) – 12 students for whom it was the second summer school, 'the freshmen 1' and 'the freshmen 2' groups. These were mixed in terms of gender, age (7 and 8) and general willingness to participate, though all students were pre-elementary. 'The freshmen 1' group, counting 12 students, was designated as the control group, while 'the freshmen 2' group with 10 students acted as the experimental group, together with 'the veterans.' The control group received extensive phonetic training in the same aspects as the other groups, yet following mostly the 'listen-and-repeat' instructional procedure with only occasional excursions into other elements and tasks. Both experimental groups were taught the same aspects of pronunciation following the assumptions and procedures of the holistic multimodal teaching. Following the practices of the 2014 summer school, coordination and cooperation with other language teachers ensued to assure the proper amount of attention would be paid to pronunciation issues along with a sufficient amount of correction (if needed).

Four pronunciation aspects were selected for training in sessions with younger participants: on the segmental level the (inter)dentals (*THs* [ð θ]), the palatealveolars [ʒ ʃ ʤ ʧ]; among other aspects: a contracted form *aren't*, with a frequently confused spelling-based pronunciation, was selected for practice, and finally the three variants of the *-es ending* in its plural functions were introduced and

[2] This one is based on the contrast between the words *other* and *udder* – when students mispronounce *other* with a [d] in the middle instead of the interdental fricative they end up pronouncing *udder*. The amusing effect taking place here greatly contributed to learners' awareness of mispronunciation results.

practiced. Of these four aspects, the THs and the palatoalveolars were not completely new for 'the veteran' group students, as these were introduced and practiced, on a rather limited scale in the earlier edition of the summer school. For the two 'freshmen' groups these aspects were utterly novel. All of the participants were ignorant of the other two aspects: *aren't* and the *-es ending* variants.

The selection of techniques implemented in the training sessions comprised first of all the 'listen-and-repeat' tasks, which students enjoyed and did willingly, largely due to the technique familiarity. In the experimental groups these were supplemented by a number of multisensory tasks: classifying into categories, contrasting tasks, recognitions tasks, drilling, movement activities, substituting relevant portions of Polish words or phrases with the English targets (*Sosny rosną nisko a sasanki wysoko*, *Zuzannę zaraziła zebra w zoo*, *Szedł Sasza suchą szosą*, *Rząd każe tego, co straże maże*), cutting, colour coding, drawing and colouring, rhyming and clapping/feet stamping etc.[3] No formal testing was organized to follow the teaching, however, the participants performance in selected evaluative tasks was evaluated by two independent scorers, one the researcher, and the other selected among the remaining teachers. In each case every participant had to produce the target forms (the sounds or the relevant appropriate variant) either in individual words, phrases, or during communicative drills.

The 'veterans' group received a certain degree of training in the pronunciation of the interdentals during the 2014 summer school. The training involved articulation tips, verbalized in a manner accessible for such young students ('*place you index finger on your lips and say „they think" sticking the tongue between the teeth. Now look at your finger. Is it wet? If it is – good. If no – try again, your tongue needs to touch it slightly to make it wet*'), as well as some repetition drilling (numbers, individual words, short sentences). At the end of the course and then again at the beginning of the 2015 sessions, they were asked to read 16 words, including names like Martha or Arthur, containing the interdentals (all the words were familiar to them). Scores obtained in this task were later compared with the scores they received in a similar task after the multisensory training they received during the 2015 school.

Results and analysis

Table 1 below lists the evaluative tasks applied, defines the maximum score to be achieved, the mean score achieved in each group together with the standard deviation.

The results alone paint quite a positive picture in terms of differences in the achievement of the experimental and control groups. Let us break them now into the achievements or progress of individual participants. Figure 1 shows the respective scores as achieved by individuals in the experimental group, while figure 3 does the same for the control group. Figures 2 and 4 show these results in a linear fashion which allows to analyze the achievements individually with the aim of observing possible relationships and correlations.

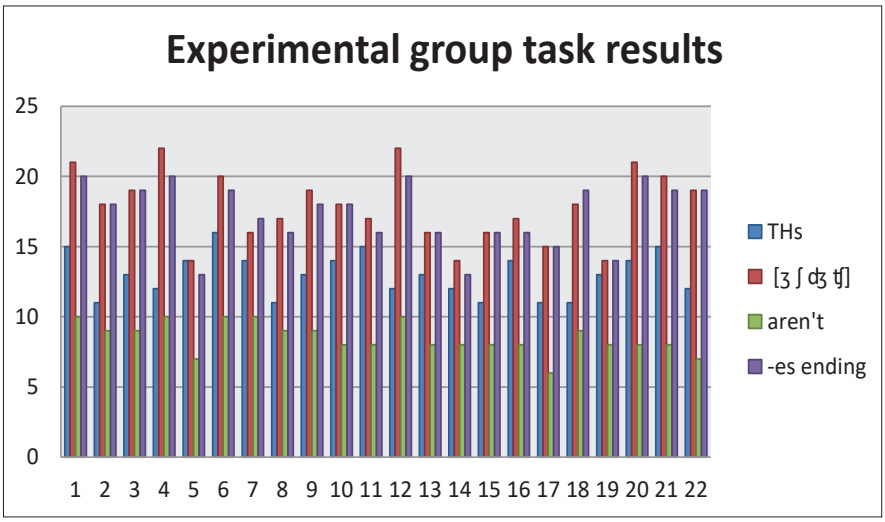
[3] The list of tasks used, with some illustrations, is available in the appendix.

Tab. 1. Evaluation tasks summary

The pronunciation aspect	The task	Maximum score possible	Mean score per group		Standard deviation	
			Control	Experimental	Control	Experimental
THs	Reading words with target sounds	16	**10.25**	**13**	1.48	1.54
[ʒ ʃ ʤ ʧ]	Naming the picture	24	**14.25**	**17.86**	1.91	2.51
Aren't	Communicative drill (answering interlocutors questions)	10	**6.08**	**8.5**	0.90	1.10
-es ending	Naming fruits in the plural, odd- man-out	20	**11.83**	**17.31**	1.89	2.25

Needless to say, in each group there were over- and under-performers. It was also obvious that one aspect could turn out to be more within the achievement abilities of the participants, while another one was more challenging. Even within one and the same pronunciation feature considerable differences were observed. For example, the *aren't* practice and tasks turned out to be relatively easily achievable. It was as if students simply needed to be provided with the 'user manual' for this particular feature. With the *-es ending* variants, naturally, the [s] was no problem at all, since the phonological rule of word-final obstruent devoicing was transferred from Polish.

Fig. 1. Experimental group evaluation tasks results



The challenge was to sensitize the students to the other two variants, both of which ended in a voiced [z]. Here, perhaps due to its distinctiveness from the others, the syllabic variant [ɪz] appeared less of a problem and was acquired easier than the simple [z]. Additionally, as transpires from the linear graphs, certain

participants showed consistent problems with all or most aspects. It can conceivably be due to the relative novelty of the training and the inherent difficulty of the experience. Though reading was reduced to the minimum, the inconsistency of English spelling produced an adverse effect in some individuals, they were constantly going back to a letter-faithful pronunciation. The linear diagrams also demonstrate that the aspect with the least inter-group variation and most consistency was the production of THs.

Fig. 2. Linear analysis of individual results in experimental groups

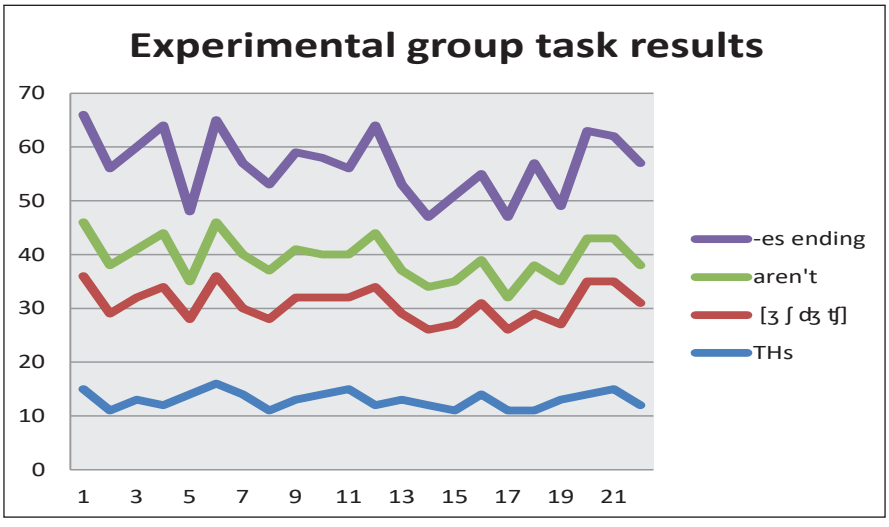


Fig. 3. Control group evaluation tasks results

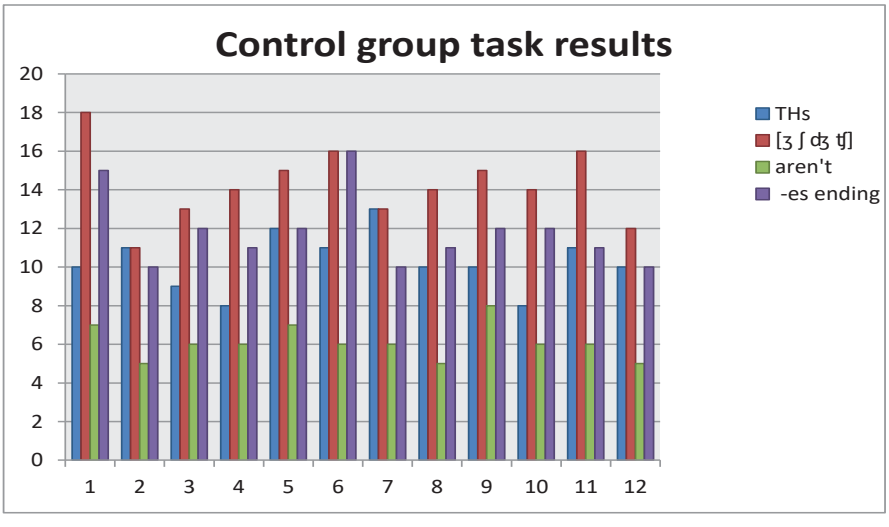
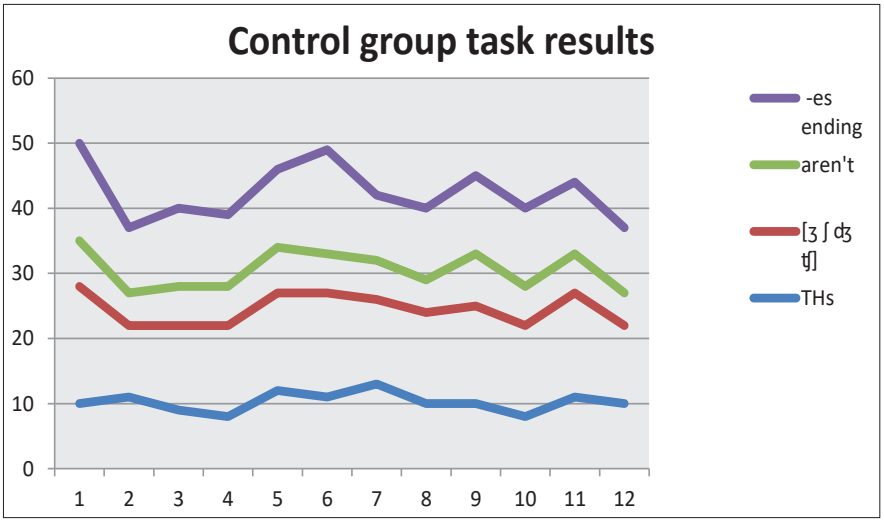


Fig. 4. Linear analysis of individual results in the control group



To evaluate whether the initial assumption about the effectiveness of a holistic multimodal teaching of pronunciation was confirmed in the data obtained, the initial results were verified by means of the student t-test. The idea behind performing a t-test is to try to find the evidence of a significant difference between population means (2-sample t, independent) or between the population mean and a hypothesized value (1-sample t, dependent). The t-value measures the size of the difference relative to the variation in the sample data, represented in the units of standard error. The greater the magnitude of T (it can be either positive or negative), the greater the evidence *against* the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference as to the method of teaching implemented. The closer T is to 0, the more likely there is a significant difference (Runkel 2015).

For the purpose of the present study, primarily the independent t-tests were performed for each of the four pronunciation aspects trained and evaluated. The scores of the experimental and the control groups were compared and the differences calculated using the online tool, available at: http://ncalculators.com/statistics/t-test-calculator.htm. These were followed by calculating the probability value (p-value) (available at: http://www.naukowiec.org/prawdopodobienstwo.html) of obtaining the t-test results in a repeated sample, thus obtaining the evaluation of the statistical significance of the results. T and P values must be considered inextricably linked, being different ways to quantify the „extremeness" of results under the null hypothesis. The larger the absolute value of the t-value, the smaller the p-value, and the greater the evidence against the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in terms of our sample students' achievement. The results are shown in Table 2.

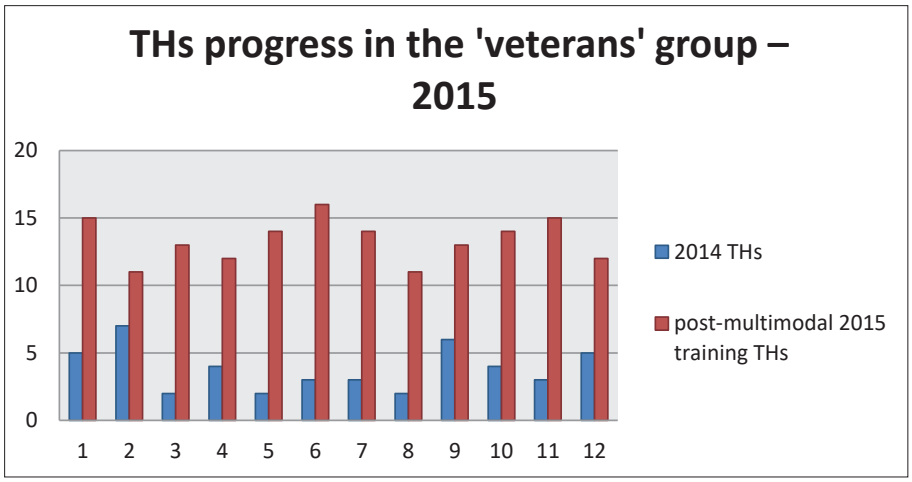
Tab. 2. T-test and p-value validation

The pronunciation aspect	Mean 1 (experimental)	Mean 2 (control)	t-test 1	p-value 1
THs	13	10.25	**5.0897**	p < 0.001
[ʒ ʃ dʒ ʧ]	17.86	14.25	**4.6969**	p < 0.001
Aren't	8.5	6.08	**6.8979**	p < 0.001
-es ending	17.31	11.83	**7.5226**	p < 0.001

The hypothesis we are trying to verify here pertains to the greater effectiveness of holistic multimodal pronunciation training when compared especially to the traditional, drill-like listen-and-repeat protocols. This is demonstrated best via dependent 1 sample analysis applied here.

The data presented in Figure 5 and Table 3 below show the results of mini-evaluation of the *THs* production in the veteran group. This aspect was the only one actually practiced in the two editions of the summer school, thus it lends itself naturally for analysis, together with t-test validation.

Fig. 5. THs in the veteran group



Tab. 3. The veterans scores – 2014 and 2015: the THs

THs	Mean score		SD		t-test	p-value
2014	10.25		1.42		- 24.9658	p > 0.999
2015	3.83	13.33	1.64	1.61	- 14. 2907	p < 0.001

The results confirm the idea that the change in the instructional mode actually resulted in better achievement. This pronunciation feature received sufficient attention in both editions of the summer school pronunciation training sessions, that is why it was selected for comparison in the dependent sample verification. The remaining aspects were started from scratch, so the assumption was that

students did not produce them correctly, or, if they did, that was accidental and therefore of negligible significance.

Nonetheless, it seems that the results are statistically significant, therefore there is enough evidence from the sample data to conclude that the hypothesis about the effectiveness of multimodal teaching of pronunciation holds for the entire population that is represented by the sample.

Students' and trainers' attitudes

To supplement the validity of the results, as well as to obtain further insights into the usefulness of the holistic multimodal pronunciation training, both (selected) students' and co-trainers' opinions were collected. The aim was to investigate the role of integrating the teaching of pronunciation via the techniques applied into regular and/or other course activities and to see how the participants evaluate the holistic multimodal training. These additional protocols were implemented with the purpose of adding the credibility of the results obtained. Both additional inquiries were designed to be fundamentally student-centered.

For this part of the study, a qualitative method design was implemented, and the instruments of semi-structured interviews were applied. This type of data collection was selected at this point, because they could be carried out as discussions, one-on-one between an interviewer and an individual, meant to gather information on a specific topic. All were conducted in person, with the belief that respondents appreciate the opportunity to express their opinions and experiences in person (Harrell & Bradley 2009). The level of structure placed on the interaction was not significantly strict.[4]

First, the co-trainers were approached to discuss their opinions referring to the possibilities of and difficulties connected with integrating pronunciation aspects of instruction into their activities while maintaining the holistic multimodal approach. All four co-trainers voluntarily participated in the semi-structured interview sessions of the data collection process. The data collected in this manner were analyzed according to the data analysis procedures as advocated in Miles & Huberman (1994), following the order of collected data reduction, theme construction, displaying data and theory building or drawing conclusions.

The reduction of the data collected was executed through (1) simplifying the collected data (2) selecting and focusing on the relevant data and (3) eliminating the irrelevant data through changing the written part of the data. The steps allowed the author to arrange the answers thematically as in Table 4 below.

[4] The questions posited to the interviewees, both those among the trainers and learners, are listed in Appendices B and C at the end of the paper.

Tab. 4. Trainers' views on integrating multimodal pronunciation teaching into class activities

The planning	The difficulties	The benefits	The novelty aspect
„requires early information on areas planned to be covered, plus the exact sequence (to the extent it is possible)"	„the easiest was to include movement, clapping, colouring and classifying"	„re-using and recycling material was the obvious benefit"	„It needs time to adjust and depart from the regular TB hints"
„requires careful and relevant task selection and design"	„making sure everybody has a chance to use the target form at least once – very challenging"	„students see these things go together, are not separate but intertwined and influencing their skills in English"	„it made me look at the activities I use in a different way – many of them follow multimodal instructional approach"
„requires good coordination skills among trainers, but it is doable"	„places high demand on the teacher to control and elicit specific language from students"	„students get more focused practice opportunities"	„it really seems holistic and more balanced"
		„they unconsciously realize that everything they do here can be used later"	„makes me a more reflective task-designer"

Simultaneously, similar data-collection sessions were organized among the learners, but only the selected ones were interrogated, both in the middle of the school and after the classes came to an end. These interviews were conducted much less formally, some were recorded and later transcribed. Having followed the same procedures for data reduction as in the case of trainers responses, the following thematic categories were identified (Table 5).

Tab. 5. Learners' evaluation of multimodal pronunciation instruction

Memorable activities	Difficult or uninteresting activities	Impressions	Effects
„pictures are nice, we colour them, cut and stick in groups"	„I don't like repeating after recording, but after the teacher it is ok"	„It was different"; „fun, but different fun"	„some things are now simple, like 'thumb' with a chewing gum or finger on the lips"
„Polish words or sentences with English sounds"	„with pictures we had very many new words, so we had to remember what they mean and how to say them"	„I was very tired after class but I was happy"	„Some sounds are easier now and I know they are different"

„we can move and do things, and raise symbols and hang pictures on the board or put in the basket"	„I didn't like it when I had to speak alone, especially to the microphone, I like practicing together"	„we are busy all the time"; „we do things all the time"	„I like repeating, even many times, especially when we do it once or twice, then we do something else and then we repeat again"
„the power-point game" (multimedia)		„We talk a lot"	„I didn't know *aren't* sounds like *aunt*. Now I know 2 words"
„the dialogues with our teacher or my friends"		„I couldn't believe it was a lesson on how to say words, it didn't look like a typical lesson"	„I have a lot of pictures to take home and use – Miss told us we must use them again"

Discussion

The hypothesis that we are trying to prove or demonstrate here is that holistic multimodal teaching makes sense not only from a certain level of language proficiency and advancement (e.g. the pre-intermediate) and at a certain age (the teenagers) as argued by Szpyra-Kozłowska & Stasiak (2015), but that it can be successfully applied from the very beginning of English language instruction. It also proves more efficient than teaching that incorporates mostly 'listen-and-repeat' activities and mechanical drilling. As demonstrated via the t-test statistical validation, the results are statistically significant; therefore, there is enough evidence from the sample data to conclude that the hypothesis about the effectiveness of multimodal teaching of pronunciation holds for the entire population that is represented by the sample. It is our belief that this finding can be extended beyond the actual sample investigated here. Naturally, as predicted from the developmental stage of the participants, not much cognitive or meta-cognitive training was possible, consequently this element, contrary to what is argued in Szpyra-Kozłowska (2015), was conspicuously absent from the instruction. Instead, some indirect awareness-raising measures were taken, such as trying to find a unifying theme for a given practice session (or part of it) and provide a title for it. This was done because of a firm belief in the role of noticing in language acquisition (Dakowska 2003). Perhaps the greatest achievement in that area came in a response from one of the subjects. The person said that now they realize how much the English sounds can differ from what is familiar to their hitherto linguistic experience and intuition. These are discoveries that can prove crucial in the participants' future foreign language learning path.

Both trainers and participants proved very responsive to new ideas and new instructional modes and techniques. The opinions ventured by the trainers demonstrate their openness to new, potentially improved training possibilities. They proved very reflective and conscious of possible challenges facing them if

they try to implement holistic multimodal teaching and to include and integrate instruction in pronunciation. Nonetheless, they appear to be convinced of its value and are willing to follow this pedagogical, student-centred philosophy, even if it has turned out to be somewhat of a novelty for them. What appears to be particularly promising is the relationship they noticed between careful task selection and design on the one hand, and the need to elicit the target forms from the students. Another trait was their realization that many of the regular class activities or instructional protocols, even those in the form of hints from the teacher's books, actually adhere to the idea of teaching language in a balanced and holistic manner. Their subsequent cooperation contributed significantly to the achievement of their students. It also demonstrated to them that pronunciation work must be incorporated into their lessons and become a regular feature of English language instruction.

The participants reactions were on the whole enthusiastic and surprisingly mature. Arranging and presenting each part of the interviews that represented the themes gave the researcher the chance to see the relevant data and also to use quotations from the participants' input to support arguments. As predicted by many specialists in the field, the young students were able to notice aspects of class work that perhaps escaped the attention of the instructor herself. All of them noticed two things: (1) that they were constantly busy doing something, and (2) that it was a lesson (lessons) different from what they normally experience during English classes. They had clear favourites among the activities used during the instructional sessions, but they were also able to appreciate the role of repetition and recycling for the retention of new material. They also potentially appreciated the fact that they have been equipped with materials (e.g. pictures and diagrams) or practice techniques (finger on the lips, chewing gum, funny sentences) that they can go back to and use later for individual practice or revision. This could possibly be their first step to become more independent, aware and autonomous learners. They obviously learned how to learn.

Conclusions

This study developed an understanding of what can be considered effective pronunciation practice with young learners of English. It is unrealistic to expect that all of a sudden classes of English as a Foreign Language will become organized and orientated towards the idea that pronunciation training should be central. This scenario cannot happen. Teachers have changing and multi-varied opinions, and often they cannot even hold uniform or consistent views as to the standard to be taught to learners or the requirements to be fulfilled.[5] Skills and language subsystems integration appears to be the best option and even the proverbial golden means. However, this cannot happen if any specifically pronunciation-centred training is left out until the equally proverbial „Friday afternoon" class.

[5] Compare the varied opinions reported on in two studies: Buczek-Zawiła (2015/in press) and Strzałka (2015).

The first central prerequisite is that consistent attention needs to be paid to developing and sustaining learners' good pronunciation. Another is to select such techniques from the plethora available so as to be able to combine them into holistic training with multisensory and multimodal activities that cater for the various needs that our learners, even the youngest ones, have. This demands a substantial amount of flexibility from the teachers, as much as a certain amount of creativity. Students, even the youngest ones, cannot feel ridiculed and not respected.

The findings of this study indicate that teaching pronunciation to foreign language learners should be organized in such a way as to cater to different learning styles by combining elements of auditory, articulatory, cognitive and multisensory training. Although the more traditional, drill-based 'listen-and-repeat' type of activity is not without its merits, it cannot on its own fulfill the requirements that must be in place to meet the needs of students' different learning styles. Therefore, the teaching of pronunciation, while being a regular occurrence during English classes, needs to be executed in a manner that guarantees the holistic and multisensory treatment of every individual learner, even the youngest one. Thus, the outcome of this study should optimistically provide a starting point for introducing changes in the regular classroom procedures.

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Podejście multimodalne w treningach doskonalenia wymowy dzieci w języku angielskim – próba weryfikacji

Streszczenie

W swojej książce, Szpyra-Kozłowska (2015) opowiada się za całościowym multimodalnym podejściem do nauczania wymowy języka angielskiego i twierdzi, że aby było skuteczne, uczenie wymowy języka obcego powinno być zorganizowane w taki sposób, aby zaspokoić różne style uczenia się przez łączenie elementów słuchowych, artykulacyjnych, poznawczych oraz szkolenia multisensorycznego. Szpyra-Kozłowska koncentruje się bardziej na starszych i nieco bardziej zaawansowanych uczniach i podaje niewiele dowodów empirycznych, aby pokazać, że jej propozycja jest faktycznie lepsza od tradycyjnej techniki „usłysz i powtórz", powszechnie stosowanej jako głównej metody ćwiczącej wymowę. Niniejsze opracowanie podejmuje próbę weryfikacji istotności i skuteczności tego podejścia w grupie uczniów najmłodszych. Jest to raport z eksperymentu przeprowadzono w grupie 34 polskich uczniów języka angielskiego w wieku od 7 do 9, reprezentujących poziom podstawowy ogólnej znajomości języka. Uczniowie ci podczas czternastu godzin zajęć w lecie 2014 i 2015, nauczani byli wybranych aspektów wymowy angielskiej („THs", spółgłoski trące palatalno-dziąsłowe, końcówki fleksyjne, niektóre formy skrócone przeczeń) w ramach przyjętego holistycznego podejścia multimodalnego. Zachowano również technikę „usłysz i powtórz" z względu na

przyzwyczajenia studentów. Badania miały na celu udzielenie odpowiedzi na następujące pytania badawcze:

- Jaka procedura, tzn. technika „listen-and-repeat" lub holistyczny trening multimodalny przynosi lepszą poprawę wymowy uczniów?
- Czy otrzymane wyniki są uzależnione od integracji technik stosowanych na zajęciach z wymowy w regularne zajęcia na kursie? (opinie współ-uczących)
- W jaki sposób uczniowie oceniają holistyczny multimodalny trening wymowy? (opinie uczniów)

Słowa kluczowe: nauka wymowy, Young Learners, instruktaż multimodalny

Appendix A

The activities used

- Listen and repeat – after the teacher
- Listen and repeat – after the recording
- Minimal pairs – recognizing words
- Minimal pairs – producing words with the target sounds
- Categorizing words according to sounds
- Raising symbols upon hearing the target (recognition)
- Categorizing and movement
- Rhymes and chants
- The multimedia game
- Polish-English sentences
- Cutting, sticking, colouring
- Recording voice onto a mobile
- Colour coding
- Role-playing / dialogues

Appendix B

Semi-structured interview questions: co-trainers

- Is multimodal/multisensory teaching a novelty to you?
- Are the procedures clear? (esp. with regard to pronunciation training)
- What are your reactions to this philosophy of teaching?
- What difficulties can you envisage when it comes to integrating pronunciation work into regular class activities?
- What conditions must be met to make it possible?

Appendix C

Semi-structured interview questions: the students (translated)

- Make a list of 5 most memorable activities (you can choose from the list on a separate sheet)
- Choose 2 activities that you didn't like or that were too difficult

- Did you learn anything new? Can you tell me what is was? What helped you learn or remember this?
- How did you feel after the pronunciation classes?
- Happy?
- Tired?
- Surprised?
- Relaxed?
- Frustrated?
- Confused?

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Agata Cierpisz
Jagiellonian University

Never too young for intercultural competence – evaluating primary-school textbooks from the perspective of intercultural competence development

Introduction

Intercultural competence (IC), understood as an ability to behave and communicate adequately in intercultural situations, based on knowledge, skills, attitudes and cultural awareness (Deardorff 2006: 248), has recently become one of the major second/foreign language didactic goals. As most European countries are facing intercultural challenges due to the increased mobility of people in the world and an unprecedented immigration wave, the second/foreign language classroom needs to be viewed as a place for introducing and developing students' IC, especially in monocultural countries like Poland.

While it is commonly agreed that the focus on IC should be one of the important aims in teaching teenage and adult learners, the situation is not so obvious in the case of younger students: there arises the question of whether or not primary school language teachers should include the components of intercultural competence in their EFL instruction. The strongest arguments for introducing certain elements of intercultural competence at the early stages of primary school are: young learners' flexibility, a sense of ambiguity tolerance and openness to difference and diversity that they exhibit. The genuine and unrestrained curiosity of young learners, which is the core of successful development of intercultural communicative competence (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey 2002: 10), allows them to approach culture without previously stereotypical bias, typical for adults. However, it should also be pointed out that any model of intercultural competence needs to be adapted according to students' current cognitive and social development, and the choice of the topics should be adequately adjusted to their age as well. The point is that an early exposure to intercultural competence plants seeds that will hopefully later develop into full-fledged cultural awareness.

Textbooks play a crucial role in the EFL instruction and often are the only teaching resources used in the classroom. The aim of the textbook analysis presented in this paper is to find out whether the authors of the EFL textbooks for primary-school students, popular among Polish teachers, recognize the importance of intercultural communicative competence and include its elements in the coursebooks' content. Before the method and the results of the analysis

are presented, I would like to elaborate on the role of textbook evaluation in the second/foreign language education in the section that follows, and discuss the previous research on the issue of intercultural competence in the retrospective textbook evaluation.

The role of textbook evaluations and previous research

There are two main functions of textbook evaluations, as identified by Ellis (1997): *predictive*, i.e. an evaluation undertaken to make an informed decision on what textbook to choose, and *retrospective*, i.e. designed to reflect on a textbook that is currently in use. A predictive textbook analysis seems to dominate the research on textbook evaluation and a number of checklists and criteria for a predictive analysis can be found (e.g. Williams 1983; Sheldon 1988; Skierso 1991; McDonough & Shaw 1993; Cunningsworth 1995; AbdelWahab 2013). One of the most popular checklists was proposed by Sheldon (1988), who put forward a list of criteria useful for deciding which textbook meets one's needs and expectations. The list includes such factors as availability, authenticity and flexibility. For more examples of textbook evaluations see AbdelWahab (2013), who examined an impressive number of publications which dealt with the issue of textbook evaluations.

A retrospective evaluation appears to be neglected, even though it is just as useful and necessary. Making the case for retrospective textbook evaluation as an essential element of EFL didactics, Kusiak-Pisowacka (2015) argues for the importance of including the retrospective textbook analysis skills in the pre-service teacher training and tertiary education. The author offers several tasks that could be used to raise student–teachers' textbook awareness. She also hints at the increasing popularity of textbook analysis as a topic of MA theses. Indeed, over the past 10 years (2005–2015), only at one of the Polish top universities, 28 theses had an explicit focus on the textbook evaluation, and as many as 8 of them were completed in 2014 and 2015 (Archiwum Prac Dyplomowych, retrieved on July 2nd, 2016).

As the main emphasis of the present paper is on a retrospective textbook analysis centred on culture in general, and intercultural communicative competence in particular, I would like to discuss two research articles which focus precisely on this aspect of the EFL textbook evaluation. In the centre of my interest is the way they approached the textbook analysis and what research tools were used in the evaluation, so I will focus less on the results and more on the analysis *per se*.

Siddiqie (2011) carried out an analysis of one EFL textbook at the secondary level in the Bangladeshi educational context. The main focus of the evaluation was on the distribution of local and international cultural references in the textbook. The research project aimed at answering three research questions, namely: what is the proportion of local and international references, what kind of cultural issues are promoted in the textbook, and how they can contribute to raising students' cultural awareness. The author presented and described four categories of cultural references, i.e. local, international, mixed and neutral. Siddiqie counted all the cultural references in the textbook (total amount of 119), categorized them and presented the proportions (26% – local, 22% – international, 36% – mixed,

16% – neutral). The researcher also compiled a list of cultural issues promoted in the textbook, e.g. attitudes, knowledge and stereotypes. No checklist was used to obtain the data and the evaluation can be described as impressionistic (Ellis 1997) and subjective (Sheldon 1988).

The other article also investigates the cultural content of EFL textbooks. Rodríguez (2015) evaluated three different textbooks at the undergraduate level in order to identify two distinct types of topics: surface culture and deep culture topics. The author was interested in answering one research question: which surface or deep culture topics can be found in the textbooks under investigation. The two aforementioned opposing categories served as the criteria for evaluation. Surface culture was characterized as being static, congratulatory, neutral and homogeneous, while deep culture was described as transformative, complex, contentious and heterogeneous (Rodríguez 2015: 171). Any cultural topic that appeared in all three textbooks was ascribed to either surface or deep culture category. There were no specifications of what surface/deep culture topics would be like. The results of the analysis revealed that all three textbooks covered almost exclusively surface culture topics, such as historical facts, geographical sites, customs and traditions. There were only two incidents of deep culture. To make up for the evident gap in deep culture topics, the author offered two sets of tasks for discussing two topics, one about the history of Native Indians in the US, and the other about single-parent families, that aimed at fostering students' deeper understanding of the target culture.

There are some similarities between the two research papers under scrutiny. Firstly, both evaluations used no explicit checklists or any other tangible research tools. The authors adopted a more impressionistic and subjective approach to textbook evaluation. References to Byram's model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) were made several times in both articles, yet the analyses conducted were not based on the criteria proposed by Byram (1997). In fact, it seems that there is a need for a more objective and reliable tool for retrospective textbook evaluation with reference to Byram's model of ICC. Moreover, most textbook evaluation projects concentrate on secondary or undergraduate levels, and primary-school EFL textbooks seem not to be catered for.

Method

The rationale behind analysing EFL textbooks in terms of the elements of Byram's model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (1997) is based on two assumptions: (a) that ICC should be recognized as an integral element of an EFL instruction, and (b) that foreign language teachers' cultural knowledge is mostly based on the cultural content covered by the textbooks used (Sercu 2005: 94). These two assumptions lead to the hypothesis that if intercultural competence is one of the EFL goals in primary education, and textbooks are the most common source of intercultural knowledge, then the elements of ICC, as defined by Byram (1997), should be present in the EFL textbooks used in primary schools.

In order to verify this hypothesis, 5 EFL primary-school textbooks were analysed with reference to the criteria for assessing particular elements of Byram's model, i.e. knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, attitudes and critical cultural awareness. The five textbooks chosen for evaluation were officially approved of and recommended by the Ministry of Education in Poland (Ministerstwo Edukacji Narodowej, retrieved on July 1st, 2016). The process of choosing 5 sample EFL textbooks for evaluation was twofold. Firstly, a list of 12 EFL textbooks used with 5th-grade students in primary school was compiled on the basis of 10 interviews with experienced primary-school teachers. Secondly, an internet search was carried out in order to shortlist 5 most popular textbooks among 30 randomly selected primary schools from 7 major cities in Poland. These five EFL textbooks for young learners are: (a) *Sky High*, (b) *Look!*, (c) *Today!*, (d) *Evolution Plus*, and (e) *Steps Forward*.

A detailed evaluation sheet, based on the observable objectives of intercultural competence proposed by Byram (1997), was constructed in order to collect relevant data. Each textbook was evaluated twice: by the researcher, as well as the second evaluator – an experienced EFL teacher.

IC components and the basis for a textbook evaluation sheet

Byram's model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (1997) consists of two major components: communicative competence (cf. Hymes 1972; Canale & Swain 1980; van Ek 1986) and intercultural competence. The latter comprises five interconnected elements: knowledge (*savoirs*), skills of interpreting and relating (*savoir compendre*), skills of discovery and interaction (*savoir apprendre/faire*), attitudes (*savoir être*) and critical cultural awareness (*savoir s'engager*) (Byram 1997). Byram and Masuhara (2013) postulate that all five elements should be included in teachers' syllabi, as well as be part of their teaching objectives. In his book (1997), Byram offers a detailed description of each element of intercultural competence along with the specifications that may be useful in assessing IC (see Table 1). It is important to underscore the fact that the specifications of the five components intermingle, and some of the criteria may refer to more than one *savoir*.

Tab. 1. Major ingredients of IC, their definitions and specifications (adapted from Byram 1997: 91–101)

Savoir	Definition	Specifications
knowledge (*savoirs*)	„knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction"	– historical and geopolitical knowledge – knowledge of products (artefacts) and practices (behaviours) – knowledge of the social processes and interaction patterns
skills of interpreting and relating (*savoir compendre*)	„ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents or events from one's own"	– identifying misunderstandings – interpreting the cultural context – mediating between conflicting interpretations

skills of discovery and interaction (*savoir apprendre/ faire*)	„ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices, and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction"	– eliciting relevant information about others' values and concepts – identifying significant cultural references – mediating between interlocutors
attitudes (*savoir être*)	„curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about ones own"	– sense of equality – interest in discovering other perspectives – questioning the obvious – readiness to cope with diversity
critical cultural awareness (*savoir s'engager*)	„an ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries"	– identifying and interpreting values in documents and events – making evaluative analysis of the documents and events – negotiating a degree of acceptance

As some of the specifications refer to students' internal processes, such as the interest in discovering other perspectives or readiness to cope with diversity, it might be particularly difficult to observe their representations in an EFL textbook. Moreover, the emphasis in skills of discovery and interaction is put on a real-life interaction which happens outside the classroom. Therefore, the list of specifications had to be reorganized and the elements of the particular components which seemed to be too difficult to be covered in a textbook were eliminated.

Textbook evaluation sheet

The main aim of the textbook analysis focused on in the present study was to find the elements of IC which promote and foster cultural awareness. An evaluation sheet, which served as the main research tool, consisted of 10 shortlisted items, presented in Table 2, that referred to the previously listed specifications. Each specification has a corresponding item on the evaluation sheet followed by an example of a possible representation of such item in a textbook.

Tab. 2. List of specifications, corresponding items, and examples of such items in a textbook

No.	***Savoir***	***Item on the textbook evaluation sheet***	***Example***
(a)	Knowledge	Students are exposed to factual knowledge.	Tasks tapping questions about students' knowledge of dates, names, places etc. related to the target context.
(b)	Knowledge	Students learn about the artefacts of one's own, target or other culture.	Learning about foods, buildings, flags etc.
(c)	Knowledge	Students learn about the behaviours of one's own, target or other culture.	Talking about activities, habits or traditions of a given culture.
(d)	knowledge / skills of discovery and interaction	Students learn about different ways of socialization and social processes.	Completing a dialogue with an expression (e.g. apologizing).

(e)	Skills of interpreting and relating / critical cultural awareness	Students compare aspects of their own culture with the target culture or other cultures.	A writing task where students are asked to compare their habits with other cultures.
(f)	attitudes / critical cultural awareness	Students discover other perspectives and values.	A text about a peer from different culture and his/her perspective on a given topic.
(g)	Attitudes	Students identify and react to intercultural differences.	Giving opinion on a cultural difference, e.g. school uniforms in the UK.
(h)	attitudes / critical cultural awareness	Students question their own values.	Reflecting on one's own culture, deciding which values are universal and which are typical for one's culture.
(i)	critical cultural awareness	Students are encouraged to challenge stereotypes.	Speaking about stereotypes concerning one's own culture and discussing the origins of a stereotype.
(j)	critical cultural awareness / skills of interpreting and relating	Students explore and reflect on a chosen aspect of their own culture.	Project work or a written assignment where students can reflect on their own habits, values, opinions.

The proportion of the items referring to different elements of IC was distributed more or less evenly. Thus four items refer to knowledge, three items touch upon skills of interpreting and relating, as well as discovery and interaction, and another three tap attitudes; the remaining four concern the development of critical cultural awareness. Half of the items cover more than one savoir. Extra two items, which are less related to intercultural competence, yet play a significant role in shaping students' cultural sensitivity, were added to the list. One of them has to do with texts that are set in cultural contexts, for example a dialogue set in the London tube, and the other with the visual input of the textbook. Both of the items cannot be ascribed to any particular *savoir*; however, they have an impact on how a textbook is perceived in terms of the cultural background.

As the focus of the evaluation was on EFL textbooks, it was important to make a distinction between three categories of culture: students' own culture (C1), target culture (TC) – in this case the culture of English-speaking countries – and cultures other than C1 and TC (OC). Each item was adequately divided into the aforementioned categories, i.e. C1, TC and OC (see Appendix A). The distinction was made mostly in order to decide whether the textbooks under scrutiny recognized the increasing significance of English as a Lingua Franca in the non-native communication and thus the changing meaning and ambiguity of the concept of the target culture (Jahan & Roger 2006).

The evaluation sheet was aimed at measuring the frequency of appearance of different elements potentially relevant to developing intercultural competence in young learners, as present in the evaluated textbooks. Each item was assessed

on the following scale: 0 – totally absent, 1 – occurring once or twice in the whole textbook, 2 – mentioned several times, 3 – present in every two units, and 4 – in every unit. There was some space left for commentary next to every item where the number of exercises and pages could be noted down. Such detailed commentary allowed the researcher to verify the assessment when confronted with the second evaluation: in the case of a sharp disagreement, it was possible to check what the basis of assigning a given score was. With the help of the experienced practitioner who evaluated each textbook, the reliability and validity of the analysis could be ensured.

Analysis

Each textbook was evaluated by both the researcher and the second evaluator in order to validate the reliability of the analysis and to make it as objective as possible. After the evaluation of each textbook was carried out, the quantitative results were compared and if any disagreement occurred, the textbook was re-evaluated again and the second evaluator was contacted in order to find the cause of the discrepancy and to discuss the specific tasks or instances of intercultural components in the textbook which were interpreted differently. This compromised agreement between the researcher and the second evaluator was needed to ensure reliability of the checklist and to make sure the items from the checklist are not ambiguous and do not mislead the evaluator.

Then, all the points in each item were added up and the mean score for every item from the list was calculated. As the items that scored 1 or 0 points appeared once or not at all in the textbooks, only items with the arithmetic score $\bar{x} \geq 2.1$ were considered relevant. Next, the overall score for all the 12 criteria was calculated for each textbook by summing up the individual scores and the mean was obtained. In comparing and contrasting the textbooks evaluated, three factors were taken into consideration: (a) the arithmetic mean of the points scored in all items, (b) the arithmetic mean of the points in items that scored 1 or more points, and (c) the distribution of points. The first factor indicates in which textbook the largest number of items from the checklist was observed, while the second factor points to the textbook in which the quality, i.e. the scored points, not number, of the items was significant.

Although the main analysis considered scored points on the scale, a qualitative analysis was also carried out. The qualitative analysis focused on two different aspects: (a) the intercultural visual input, and (b) the number of items that referenced other cultures. The analysis was more impressionistic and strived at complementing the results of the quantitative analysis.

Intercultural visual input was measured by the proportion of pages with visual cultural references, e.g. a picture of the Tower of London, or a photo of people with different cultural backgrounds, and those without such input. A textbook with the highest percentage was considered the most diverse in terms of the visual input. As the references to other cultures appeared sporadically in the textbooks, the number of instances where cultures other than target or students' own were referenced was summed up. Examples of well-designed intercultural

tasks will be presented and discussed later in the paper. Each textbook was also evaluated in terms of its major strengths and weaknesses in order to gain some more in-depth insight into intercultural content present in each textbook.

Results and discussion of the analysis of 5 EFL textbooks for young learners

The analysis of the 5 textbooks revealed that 6 out of 10 items from the evaluation sheet scored more than 2.1 points on average (see Table 3). The item that obtained the highest mean score was factual knowledge of the target culture [$\bar{X}$ = 3.6]. Both knowledge of artefacts, as well as skills of reflecting on one's own culture scored the second highest average of points [$\bar{X}$ = 3.2]. Knowledge of socialization and social processes comes next [$\bar{X}$ = 2.8] and the last two items, which are taken into consideration, are knowledge of the behaviours of the representatives of the target culture and comparing one's own culture with the target or other cultures [$\bar{X}$ = 2.4]. The results reveal that knowledge, as a vital ingredient of IC in Byram's (1997) model, is adequately covered by almost all analysed textbooks. It is important to notice that knowledge of the target culture scored significantly higher than knowledge of other cultures. Two aspects of skills of interpreting and relating and critical cultural awareness were also adequately covered in the evaluated textbooks, i.e. comparing students' own culture with target or other cultures and reflecting on a given aspect of students' own culture.

Tab. 3. Six items from the evaluation sheet which appeared in more than one textbook

Item of evaluation	*TypeSky High*		*Look!*	*Today!*	*Evolution Plus*	*Steps Forward*	*Mean*
Students are exposed to factual knowledge	C1	1	1	0	1	0	0.6
	TC	**4**	**4**	**3**	**4**	**3**	**3.6**
	OC	1	1	2	2	1	1.4
Students learn about the artefacts of a given culture	C1	1	0	0	0	0	0.2
	TC	**4**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3.2**
	OC	0	0	1	1	1	0.6
Students learn about the behaviours of a given culture	C1	1	0	0	0	0	0.2
	TC	1	**4**	1	**3**	**3**	**2.4**
	OC	0	0	1	1	0	0.4
Students learn about different ways of socialization and social processes	C1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	TC	**3**	**3**	1	**4**	**3**	**2.8**
	OC	0	0	0	0	0	0
Students compare aspects of their own culture with the TC or OC	C1 → TC/ OC	1	**3**	1	3	4	2.4

Students explore and reflect on a chosen aspect of their own culture	**C1**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**3.2**

C1 – reference to the Polish culture

TC – reference to the target (i.e. English-speaking) culture

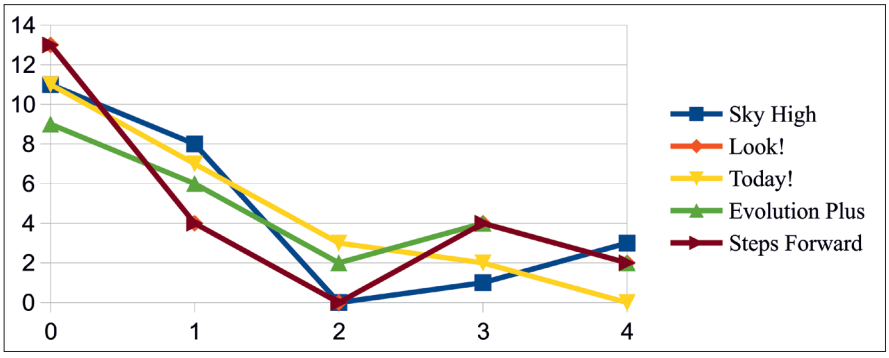
OC – reference to cultures other than C1 or TC

Taking into consideration all items of the checklist, the textbook that scored the highest average of points was *Evolution Plus*, $\bar{X} = 1.3$ (see Table 4). *Evolution Plus* scored the least number of 0 points and its distribution of points (see Figure 1) showed that it had the most number of items that scored 2 or more points (two items with 2 points, four items with 3 points, and two items with 4 points). However, taking into consideration the quality of the items present in the analysed textbooks, if all the items that did not appear in the textbooks, i.e. those which scored 0 points on the scale, were eliminated, the highest arithmetic mean would be obtained by *Look!* and *Steps Forward*. Figure 1 shows that the distribution of points in *Look!* and *Steps Forward* is the same, hence they both scored the same mean of points from items which scored 1 or more points.

Tab. 4. Comparison of the individual results for each textbook

		Sky High	***Look!***	***Today!***	***Evolution Plus***	***Steps Forward***
(a)	Arithmetic mean of the points (all items)	$\bar{X} = 1.0$	$\bar{X} = 1.04$	$\bar{X} = 0.83$	$\mathbf{\bar{X} = 1.3}$	$\bar{X} = 1.04$
(b)	Arithmetic mean of the points (items that scored 1 or more points)	$\bar{X} = 1.92$	$\mathbf{\bar{X} = 2.4}$	$\bar{X} = 1.58$	$\bar{X} = 2.14$	$\mathbf{\bar{X} = 2.4}$

Fig. 1. Distribution of points scored by each textbook



The results of the qualitative analysis (see Table 5) revealed that four out of five analysed textbooks offered a satisfactory intercultural visual input, while only one textbook (7%) did not include many pictures that made references to the artefacts or representatives of target or other cultures. In terms of the items which

made explicit reference to other cultures, *Today!* and *Evolution Plus* made the most references to cultures other than students' own or target culture. However, it needs to be underscored that the incidents of references to the target culture significantly outnumbered those to the other cultures (see Table 3).

Tab. 5. Results of the qualitative analysis

		Sky High	***Look!***	***Today!***	***Evolution Plus***	***Steps Forward***
(a)	Intercultural visual input	26%	25%	41%	7%	27%
(b)	Number of items from the checklist where cultures other than students' own or the target culture were mentioned	*1*	*2*	*6*	***8***	*3*

Examples of well-designed tasks

It seems useful at this point to refer to two tasks, both spotted during the evaluation, that can be brought in as very good examples of well-designed tasks which promote intercultural competence and aim at raising students' own cultural awareness.

The first task (*Evolution Plus*) is a part of a culture lesson entitled „A typical day." Students read five very short and uncomplicated texts about three boys and two girls from five different countries (Kenya, the USA, Australia, Thailand and Brazil). Pictures of the children are attached to each text. Learners read about their everyday habits and favourite pastime activities. Next, they are supposed to compare their own typical day with that of the children they have read about and write a short description of their own habits and hobbies.

This task promotes several important aspects of intercultural competence. Firstly, students are exposed to diversity by pictures of children from diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds; however, they also learn that children across the world do similar things and have similar hobbies. Secondly, the task makes reference to children not only from the English-speaking countries, but from other distant cultures as well. Thirdly, students are explicitly told to reflect on their own habits and to compare them with the children from other cultures, so an element of self-reflection is involved.

The other task that merits recognition is also part of a culture lesson (*Look!*). The lesson is devoted to *Summerhill School*, an alternative schooling system where students decide what classes they want to attend. A short description of the school, as well as some facts about the system are provided. There are two short texts that follow about two students who go to *Summerhill School*: Stefan from Germany and Shizu from Japan. They talk about their schools and present some advantages of attending *Summerhill School*. After answering some comprehension questions, learners are supposed to reflect on whether this type of schooling system is present in the Polish context and to discuss whether the introduction of such a system in Poland would be a good idea. These questions are asked in Polish, and pupils are expected to discuss them in their mother tongue.

What is very noteworthy about the second task is the fact that the authors of this EFL textbook encourage the use of the students' first language to discuss intercultural differences. This appears to be a great advantage and students will definitely benefit more from a 5-minute discussion conducted in their mother tongue than from not discussing cultural issues at all due to obvious linguistic barriers. The question whether it is a good idea to introduce alternative schooling systems in Poland is a very good starting point to reflect on the students' own cultural behaviours and values. This task bears some resemblance to the previous task, as they both include voices of people from the outer circle, i.e. the non-English speaking countries, and both are accompanied by relevant visual input. Both of the tasks incorporate reading as a foundation for the follow-up discussion and encourage students to reflect on their own culturally significant values and beliefs.

Limitations and further research

Although the subjectivity of the process of evaluating a textbook may appear as an obstacle to draw any strong conclusions, the subjectivity of the present textbook evaluation was confronted by engaging two independent evaluators for each textbook.

Another limitation is related to the nature of the issues focused on: intercultural competence is a very difficult aspect of EFL teaching to measure and assess, and some of the elements of the model might not have been thoroughly covered in the evaluation sheet.

Two lines of research could be pursued in the future. Firstly, the results of textbook evaluation directed at the IC component could be confronted with the real-life classroom observation in order to verify how the tasks are approached by the teacher and if their objectives are achieved by the students. The textbook evaluation checklist could be extended by a corresponding classroom observation sheet. Secondly, it would be very interesting to compare and contrast the intercultural content of EFL textbooks with textbooks for other languages, e.g. the DaF (*Deutsch als Fremdsprache*, i.e. German as a foreign language) textbooks to find out whether the intercultural content is approached differently in various foreign languages.

Concluding remarks

The goal of the paper was to present the evaluation checklist designed to analyse the intercultural input in the EFL coursebooks for primary school students and to discuss the results of the retrospective evaluation of 5 textbooks. The double analysis of the second evaluator ensured reliability and offered a priceless insight. Both the format, as well as the layout of the checklist were considered user-friendly by the evaluators. The checklist used in the present paper to evaluate the presence of elements related to developing and promoting intercultural competence appears to fill in the gap in the textbook evaluation research. The evaluation sheet might also be used as a research tool in a more comprehensive research project, e.g. an action research, and could be supplemented with a corresponding classroom observation sheet.

As regards the results of the evaluation, the analysed primary-school EFL textbooks seem to offer satisfactory exposure to cultural knowledge of the target culture. Almost all of the specifications of knowledge are addressed in the textbooks under scrutiny. This may be due to the fact that knowledge seems to be the easiest element of intercultural competence to measure. Students are also given the opportunity to gain insight into and reflect on their own culture in a number of tasks, very often in writing assignments. A few tasks which required students to compare C1 and TC were also included in the textbooks, however, most of them were not explicitly addressed in the instructions. The other elements of Byram's model do not seem to be adequately represented in the textbooks. It is, thus, the EFL teacher's role to take care of the remaining components of intercultural competence by, for example, asking a critical question or making the implicit explicit.

It needs to be emphasized that even the best textbooks will not guarantee a successful implementation of intercultural competence in the EFL instruction. Foreign language teachers have to be aware of the importance of intercultural education and how it should be incorporated into L2/FL teaching and learning. Therefore, language teachers need to be equipped with the techniques and methods for developing intercultural competence and raising students' cultural awareness without which intercultural competence cannot be achieved. This appears particularly important at the level of primary education. Young learners, who are genuinely curious, open to otherness and difference, seem to have still unprejudiced beliefs and are free from stereotypical thinking, can and should be exposed to the objectives of intercultural competence early, so as to become interculturally competent L2/FL users in the future.

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Nigdy nie jest za wcześnie na kompetencję międzykulturową – ewaluacja podręczników pod kątem rozwijania kompetencji międzykulturowej

Streszczenie

Artykuł poświęcony jest retrospekcyjnej ewaluacji pięciu podręczników przeznaczonych do nauki języka angielskiego w klasach IV-VI szkoły podstawowej w Polsce pod kątem rozwijania kompetencji międzykulturowej. Głównym celem było stworzenie narzędzia ewaluacji podręczników z punktu widzenia omawiania treści kulturowych oraz rozwijania kompetencji międzykulturowej. Narzędziem ewaluacji była specjalnie sporządzona lista kryteriów (*checklist*) oparta na modelu kompetencji międzykulturowej, zaproponowanego przez M. Byrama (1997), który składa się z pięciu elementów: (a) wiedzy międzykulturowej,

(b) umiejętności interpretowania i porównywania kultury własnej jak i obcej, (c) umiejętności postrzegania oraz interakcji w sytuacjach międzykulturowych, (d) odpowiedniego stosunku do kultury własnej i obcej, oraz (e) krytycznej świadomości kulturowej. Głównym celem analizy było określenie które z powyżej wymienionych elementów modelu są obecne i jak często występują w danych podręcznikach, a które z nich są pominięte przez autorów podręczników. Wyniki analizy ilościowej i jakościowej są przedstawione i omówione. Artykuł zwieńczony jest krótkim podsumowaniem zawartych treści międzykulturowych w analizowanych podręcznikach.

Słowa kluczowe: ewaluacja podręczników, kompetencja międzykulturowa, lista kryteriów (*checklist*)

Appendix A

TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS EVALUATION SHEET

Title: Level:

Authors: No of pages:

Publisher: Price:

Year: Other:

Item of evaluation	Type	Comments	Rating
Students are exposed to factual knowledge	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students learn about the artefacts of a given culture	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students learn about the behaviours of a given culture	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students learn about different ways of socialization and social processes	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students compare aspect of their own culture with the target or other culture	C1 →TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	C1 →OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4

Students discover other perspectives and values	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students identify and react to intercultural differences	C1 →TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	C1 →OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	TC →OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students question their own values	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students are encouraged to challenge stereotypes	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	TC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
	OC		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students explore and reflect on a chosen aspect of their own culture	C1		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
A text is set in a different country	-		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4
Students are exposed to cultural diversity through visual input	-		0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4

Legend:

C1 – reference to our Polish culture
TC – reference to the target (English-speaking) culture
OC – reference to culture other than C1 or TC

How well is the item represented in the textbook:

0 – not at all
1 – once or twice in the whole book
2 – several times
3 – every two units
4 – in each unit

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Ivana Ćirković-Miladinović
University of Kragujevac

Foreign language learning strategies used by young learners

Introduction

According to McKay (2006: 1) young language learners (YLs) are those who are learning a foreign or second language during the first six or seven years of formal schooling. Young learners are children who are in primary or elementary school, approximately at the age of seven to eleven in Serbian teaching context. In this setting English is seldom heard outside the classroom since the Serbian language is the mother tongue spoken at home and with peers. Scheduled foreign language classes are the most common type of foreign language programme in primary schools in Serbia and these classes, up to two classes per week, are often taught by a foreign language teacher who moves from class to class taking over the class from the classroom teacher for the lesson period of 45 minutes.

Research background

In the foreign language classroom it is mostly the teachers' responsibility to provide learning opportunities and exposure for their students. In addition, teachers also need to help their learners to facilitate their learning process (Gürsoy 2010). Using language learning strategies is one possibility to do this. Moreover, strategy use improves language learning and helps students to regulate their own learning (McMullen 2009). Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to identify which language learning strategies (LLS) young learners use when learning English as L2 at the age of 7 to 11.

It is crucial to understand the differences in strategy use between children and adults (cf. Ćirković-Miladinović 2014a). Unlike adults, children are enthusiastic and talkative, they possess different personalities, interests and cognitive styles. At the same time children lose concentration and motivation easily (Moon 2000), so this motivation should be nurtured during the learning process. Children have limited world knowledge and experience and they are in a state of constant cognitive, social, emotional and physical growth. In addition, young learners possess short attention span, they are easily distracted, and they may give up a task when they encounter a problem. Young learners are still at early stages of their cognitive development and because of that they do not have access to metalanguage as do older learners (Moon 2000). Older learners think about their learning problems and their strengths, they anticipate the kinds of language demands they

may encounter, and activate prior knowledge and skills to apply to new language tasks (Ćirković-Miladinović 2014b: 27). Young learners, on the other hand, gain understanding from direct experience, through objects and visual aids. They are novices as they learn and need help from an adult, usually from a teacher.

For these reasons, it would be useful to find evidence of different foreign language learning strategies used by young learners. This can be done by referring to a limited number of studies available that were carried out in Serbian primary school children from 7 to 11 years old.

Learning strategies' instruction is one means of improving students' acquisition of a foreign language (Vlckova & Peskova 2014). It gives them explicit vocabulary to use in talking about their learning experiences so that they can build a repertoire of strategies. Learners do not just acquire new strategies, they need to be shown how and when to apply them. Their ability to use strategies effectively and to match them appropriately with tasks has a huge influence on learning of both content and language.

For the purpose of this paper the author will focus on Oxford's taxonomy of learning strategies (1990: 17) which classified learning strategies into six groups: *cognitive*, *metacognitive*, *memory*, *compensatory*, *affective* and *social.* According to Oxford (2003: 12–14) *cognitive strategies* enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information, and practising structures and sounds formally. *Metacognitive strategies* help the learner with identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing material, arranging a study space and schedule, monitoring mistakes, evaluating task success and evaluating the success of any type of learning. Various *memory strategies* enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g. acronyms), while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g. rhyming), images (e.g. a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g. the keyword method), body movement (e.g. total physical response), mechanical means (e.g. flashcards), or location (e.g. on a page or blackboard). C*ompensatory strategies* enable learners to guess from context in listening and reading; to use synonyms and „to talk around" the missing word to aid speaking, writing, and speaking, to use gestures or pause words in order to make up for the missing knowledge. A*ffective strategies* enable learners to cope with learning by using such actions as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk. *Social strategies* help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language, by e.g. asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms.

A question arises why teachers should teach the LLSs to young learners and why young learners should use LLSs. Starting school at the age of seven, young learners encounter various challenges and demands. They start learning to read and write in their mother tongue and, at the same time, they start learning English as a foreign

language among other eight school subjects. Between 7 and 11, they start learning to cooperate with peers, to share and take turns with others. Young learners are beginning to develop feelings of independence, but may become anxious when separated from familiar people and places (McKay 2006). In school surrounding, children become more sensitive to criticism and their feelings of success or failure are dependent on how peers and adults respond to them. Especially the reactions of a teacher are very significant at this stage. Therefore, the more that teachers know about their students' style and strategy preferences, the more effectively they can orient their L2 instruction and help their learners to overcome learning problems. This will lead to a more positive and motivating atmosphere in the classroom, will influence the learner's participation in different kinds of tasks and eventually, will lead to his/her more successful learning outcomes. The teacher's role in young learners' classroom is crucial in setting the positive scene for further the foreign language learning. For this reason, the author believes that research in strategy training seems valuable for the improvement of the young learners' English teaching practice in Serbia and it may lead to the enhancement of learning outcomes at all levels.

Methodology

Research participants, instrument and the procedure

A sample of 80 young learners were surveyed by means of the SILL survey (Oxford 1990: 293–296). There were 40 male and 40 female YLs – 20 from each grade (first, second, third and fourth grade of primary local schools in Jagodina, Serbia). The same questionnaire was used for the teachers of English who teach young learners. Learners were interviewed and asked to recognize if they use a certain behaviour or action and how often they use it, while teachers (N=20) were asked to read each statement and then to judge and answer the following questions:

1. How true of their students that statement is
2. What learning strategies (if any) their students use to enhance their L2 learning
3. How often they do it

The research with young learners was conducted in November and December 2015, while teachers completed questionnaires later, in January 2016. Before this research, piloting was conducted with ten young learners and three English teachers in order to see whether the children can understand the statements. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire itself was accounted for in many articles and studies before this one (e.g. Oxford 1990; Griffiths & Parr 2001; Griffiths 2007).

Teachers were asked to explain to their classes the purpose of the survey. The SILL questions were read aloud and explained to YLs because the first graders and the second grades are still learning to read in their mother tongue, so the researcher believed that this could be the best way to enable students to understand questions. Some additional explanations were given to third graders and fourth graders as well, while they were completing the surveys. When the learners had

problems in answering the SILL statements, the teacher approached each student individually, and so the study took a form of an interview.

By contrast, the teachers' questionnaires were fully anonymous and the teachers were asked to complete and return them at their convenience.

Average frequency of use for each strategy was calculated. The results ranged from 6 (the most frequent) to 1 (the least frequent). The 50 items of the ESL/EFL version of the SILL were divided into six groups referring to six different categories of strategies. Below are presented the categories with sample statements.

Memory strategies related to how students memorise language, such as 'I use flashcards to remember new English words,' or 'I review English lessons often.' *Cognitive strategies* related to how students think about their learning, such as 'I read for pleasure in English,' or 'I try to find patterns in English.' *Compensation strategies* enabled students to make up for limited knowledge, such as 'I read English without looking up every new word,' or 'to understand unfamiliar English words I make guesses.' *Metacognitive strategies* related to how students manage their own learning, such as 'I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better,' or 'I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time to study English.' *Social strategies* refer to cooperation with others, such as 'I practice English with other students,' or 'I ask for help from English speakers.' *Affective strategies* related to students' feelings, such as 'I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English,' or 'I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.'

Research questions and hypotheses

The research questions the author wanted to answer were the following:

I. Which groups of LLS are believed to be used most frequently by young learners of L2?
II. Which groups of LLS are believed to be used least frequently by young learners of L2?
III. How do teachers' beliefs concerning the LLS of their young learners correspond with what students report?

The author started this research with the hypothesis that teachers of young learners (in the Serbian teaching context) are not aware of the learning strategies their learners use, and therefore they are not able to organise and modify their teaching methods to their learners' needs. The purpose of this research was to find out which strategies are used by young learners and to suggest possible ways of teaching/learning improvement for those learners who are less successful in language learning.

Research results and discussion

The data obtained from the students' SILL questionnaires (N=80) was analysed. The average reported frequency of language learning strategy use across all students was calculated for each strategy item, as well as a summative score of all strategies used. Then, the strategies were ordered according to the frequency of appearance from the highest to the lowest (Table 1).

Tab. 1. Ranking order of strategies reported by YLs

LLS rank according to categories			N	%
Social strategies	**most frequent**	4.70	41	51.25
Memory strategies		4.59	35	43.75
Compensation strategies		3.93	24	30.00
Cognitive strategies		3.10	22	27.50
Metacognitive strategies		2.70	17	21.25
Affective strategies	**least frequent**	2.40	11	13.75
Overall average		3.57	80	100

Following the explanations of Oxford's SILL (1990: 208) the key to understanding the average results is the following:

HIGH	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0
	Usually used	3.5 to 4.4
MEDIUM	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
LOW	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
	Never or almost never used	1.0 to 1.4

Following these guidelines in analysing the results in Table 1, we may conclude that young learners in the mentioned teaching context, use language learning strategies usually (overall average 3.57), which means that language learning strategy usage is high. Furthermore, the mean results for each part of the SILL questionnaire show which groups of strategies are used most often. These are social strategies with a mean score 4.70 and memory strategies with a mean 4.59, followed by compensation strategies (mean 3.93), then sometimes used cognitive (mean 3.10) and metacognitive strategies (mean 2.70) and finally, strategies that are generally not used, i.e. affective strategies (2.40). To make it more specific, 41 learners (51.25%) reported using strategies that belong to a group of social strategies, 35 learners (43.75%) reported using memory strategies, 24 learners (30%) reported using compensation strategies. The least frequently used strategies as reported by learners, were cognitive – 22 learners (27.5%), metacognitive – 17 learners (21.25%), and affective learning strategies – only 11 learners (13.75%).

The gathered data is not a surprise in young learners, because learners at the age of 7 to 11 usually work individually or in groups. When they complete tasks in groups, they are motivated to cooperate with peers, which revealed in such statements as 'I practice English with other students' (the most frequently reported statement in the SILL questionnaire), or 'If I don't understand the person that speaks I ask him/her to repeat or to slow down' (the second most frequent statement in the SILL questionnaire). The third place in the order of frequency use was occupied by memory strategies, related to how students remember language. The reason for this result might be that in teaching L2 teachers usually use

flashcards in order to enable learners to remember new English words and they review English words often in the same way because classroom repetition is necessary if young learners are to make progress.

As regards compensation strategies, which enable learners to make up for limited L2 knowledge, third graders and fourth graders reported usage of these strategies by mostly choosing such statements as 'I read English without looking up every new word,' or 'To understand unfamiliar English words I make guesses.' The first and second graders did not report these actions as important to them.

Cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies were reported to be used at a medium frequency. These are related to how young learners think about their learning and how they manage their own learning (statements in the SILL such as *'I read for pleasure in English,' 'I try to find patterns in English,' 'I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better,'* or '*I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time to study English*'). This could be explained with the cognitive development of children at the young learners' age. Before they are ten years old or eleven, children do not find it easy to use language to talk about language (Nikolov 2009). The language children need to talk about and understand, talk about grammar and discourse (known as meta-language) does not come until this age and upwards (McKay 2006). Children from 7 to 11 are still gaining understanding from direct experience – through objects and visual aids, and they are not able to think in abstract concepts.

Similarly, children's emotions are still in a developmental phase. Therefore, it is not surprising that the young learners examined reported the least frequent usage of the affective learning strategies (only 13.75% of young learners reported using some actions related to these strategies). This could be clarified by the notion that young learners may appear relatively calm, with short-lived moments of anger, sadness or depression, and they are able to hide feelings of anxiety. Their feelings of success or failure are dependent on how adults and peers respond to them. Having this in mind, it is not surprising that YLs did not express the usage of actions that belong to affective learning strategies very often, or at all. The learners reported in the interview that they did not know that they could talk to their teacher about the problems they have in foreign language learning, and that the negative feelings could be avoided by some techniques of relaxation and self-encouragement (Ćirković-Miladinović & Marković 2013).

For this reason it is very important to realise that young learners' teachers know their learners' needs and abilities and are aware in which areas their learners have difficulties in order to help them to overcome these obstacles. Table 2 presents the results obtained from the SILL survey filled out by YL teachers.

Tab. 2. Ranking order of strategies used by YLs as reported by YL teachers

LLS rank according to categories		Mean	N	%
Metacognitive strategies	**most frequent**	4.41	7	35%
Cognitive strategies		4.09	5	25%
Compensation strategies		3.53	4	20%
Memory strategies		3.11	2	10%
Social strategies		2.62	1	5%
Affective strategies	**least frequent**	2.36	1	5%
Overall average		3.53	20	100%

The data obtained from the teachers' SILL questionnaires (N=20) were also analysed for reliability and mean results were calculated in order to determine the average level of importance attributed by teachers to each strategy item, as well as to strategy group usage overall. The overall mean result of the LLS usage according to teachers was 3.53, which was very similar to the students' mean result, i.e. 3.57. This means that YLs usually use language learning strategies and that their teachers were right when they assumed that the LLS usage by their learners was in that level of frequency. The number of strategies which teachers considered highly important was also counted. As could be deduced from Table 2, 35% of the examined teachers believe that their YLs always or very often use metacognitive strategies. 25% of the teachers reported the usage of actions that fit to cognitive strategies, 20% of the teachers state that their students mostly use actions that belong to compensation strategies, 10% of them indicated that their YLs sometimes use memory strategies followed by social and affective strategies (5% of teachers reported the usage of some of the actions that fit to these two categories). It could be said that English teachers believe that their young learners mostly use metacognitive, cognitive and compensation strategies in the process of learning L2. This means that the examined teachers tend to think that their learners are capable to manage their English language learning, as well as to make up for the missing knowledge by trying to guess the new word from the context, or to use synonyms for the words they are not familiar with. On the other hand, the examined primary school English teachers reported, that their YLs rarely use memory, social and affective strategies (4 out of 20 teachers indicated the usage of these three categories). This indicates that the teachers think that their learners very rarely or almost never use strategies that help them to memorise the target language better, to cooperate with peers or to manage their negative emotions. The teachers explained this by saying that their YLs are mostly dependent on the teacher and his/her help in the classroom. Further, the examined teachers said that their learners got used to the atmosphere that their class teacher is the one that they should turn to for every problem and that these learners very rarely go to the English teacher and ask for help.

From this discussion we may conclude that there is some mismatch between the teachers' and learners' answers. In order to account for the mismatch, the results are then compared with the results from the young learners' data.

Tab. 3. Teachers' vs. young learners' ranks of LLS usage

Teachers' rank of LLS usage		YLs' rank of LLS usage	
Metacognitive strategies	**most frequent**	Social strategies	**most frequent**
Cognitive strategies		Memory strategies	
Compensation strategies		**Compensation strategies**	
Memory strategies		Cognitive strategies	
Social strategies		Metacognitive strategies	
Affective strategies	**least frequent**	**Affective strategies**	**least frequent**

According to this survey, teachers believe that their students use metacognitive and cognitive strategies most frequently, while compensation and memory strategies are ranked in the middle of Table 3 above. Teachers believe that students least frequently use social and affective strategies. However, it is interesting to note, that while YLs report using social strategies very frequently, their teachers believe they are very rarely used (these are ranked only fifth by teachers in terms of what teachers believe their learners do). Metacognitive and cognitive strategies are ranked as most frequently used strategies by teachers, but not by students. Teachers' perception of LLS usage and learners' perception are similar as regards compensation and affective strategies which are ranked in the third and fifth place from top by both teachers and learners. These two categories are the only two points at which teachers and students agree. This means that teachers are aware of the fact that affective strategies are rarely used in their language classroom, while compensation strategies are used only sometimes.

Accordingly, we may say that English teachers are partly aware of their young learners' learning problems in the language classroom. On the other hand, teachers are not aware of the most common language learning strategies by their learners, although they say that they regularly provide their students with the range of learning strategies in order to find those that suit their learners best. For this reason, we may conclude that the research hypothesis is confirmed: English teachers are only partially aware of the language learning strategies used by their young learners.

Perhaps teachers believe that they provide their students with an adequate amount of learning tips, but that could be insufficient having in mind that young learners need help in learning and pedagogical and psychological support during the first four years of schooling. Consequently, the examined teachers expressed their willingness to be part of some of the professional development programmes that could provide them with the quality knowledge in the area of English language teaching methodology. The data presented above implies that increased LLS research in the young learners' teaching context in Serbia is necessary for the improvement of English language teaching practice (Ćirković-Miladinović 2009). Hence, learners who have the support from the teacher and feel confident about their skills and abilities tend to be more motivated than those with lower levels of self-confidence (Butod 2008; Auster & Wylie 2006).

Pedagogical implications and conclusions

The research in language learning strategies used by the young learners showed that the examined English teachers of these learners (in the Serbian teaching context) are sometimes not aware of the learning strategies their YLs use. The goal of this research was to find out what foreign language learning strategies learners aged 7 to 11 use in order to improve both learning and teaching practice of L2. Awareness of LLS usage by both teachers and their learners could help the teachers to adapt their teaching in order to support learners to become independent with the ability to use strategies aptly in a variety of contexts.

To sum up, the major research findings show that language learning strategy usage by YLs is high in frequency (Mean result of LLS is 3.57). Young learners use social strategies and memory strategies most frequently, followed by compensation, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies, while the least frequently used are affective strategies. Teachers believe that their students most frequently use metacognitive and cognitive strategies but that was not the case, as these were placed among the least frequently used strategies. YLs' and teachers' perceptions in terms of strategy usage go along only in terms of compensation and affective strategies, which implies that teachers were not aware of the most often used language learning strategies by their learners before this study.

In conclusion, we may say that research on young learners' individual needs has indicated that teachers do not find it easy to implement individualised approach in teaching. Also, it was generally observed in Serbia, that teachers rarely used individualisation in their teaching. It seems that English teachers' work is mostly oriented at strictly following the curriculum, which is believed to be well organised and structured. It is also believed that the curriculum should not be modified and that there is not much space for the teacher's creativity. As a matter of fact, some teachers seem to be confident that a sufficient number of strategies is embedded into the existing curriculum which can be taught to YLs with only a modest extra effort, and that can lead to the improvement of the overall class performance. Scepticism is also well-placed when it comes to applying the strategy training in primary teaching context, because it is widely believed that the examined learners are still very young and that they are not capable to learn on their own, or to use strategies without the help of their teacher. From the research findings we may conclude that LLS instruction and learning in YLs' classroom would help students to analyse and reflect on their learning and to become more effective learners from the very start of their schooling. Likewise, YLs would be more able to acquire, retain, and apply new information and skills in the process of English language learning and that would, again, lead to higher motivation of YLs to learn English in the later period of their school age.

Looking at the results, we have to take into account the limitations of this study and point out that these present self-report data from only 80 students and 20 teachers. The data were gathered from one town in Serbia and only 20 learners from each grade (the first, second, third and fourth grade of primary school) were included in the research. Nevertheless, they allow us to see what LL

strategies teachers and pupils apply when teaching and learning English as a foreign language in some primary schools in Serbia, and may provide an incentive into further more detailed study into language learning strategies used by young learners of English.

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Strategie wykorzystywane przez małych uczniów języka obcego

Streszczenie

Celem badania było określenie, jakich strategii uczenia się używają mali uczniowie języka obcego (tj. w wieku 7-11 lat), w szczególności w serbskim kontekście edukacyjnym. Drugim celem badania było określenie, czy ich nauczyciele są w ogóle świadomi użycia określonych strategii. Autorka zakłada, że trening strategii w znacznym stopniu ułatwiłby uczniom organizowanie i przechowywanie wiedzy. W badaniu 80-ciu uczniów języka angielskiego wykorzystano Kwestionariusz Strategii Uczenia się Rebeki Oxford (1990). To samo badanie wykorzystano również wśród 20-tu nauczycieli, których poproszono o opinię, w jakim stopniu poszczególne twierdzenia o użyciu strategii były prawdziwe w odniesieniu do ich uczniów. Wyniki badania pokazały, że percepcje uczniów i nauczycieli na temat użycia strategii znacznie sie różnią. Mimo że nauczyciele twierdzili, iż wiedzą jakich strategii używają ich uczniowie, wyniki uzyskane od ich uczniów nie potwierdziły teje opinii. Autorka wnioskuje, że potrzebne są dalsze wnikliwe badania nt. użycia strategii przez dzieci.

Słowa kluczowe: strategie uczenia się, mali uczniowie, nauczyciele małych uczniów

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Dorota Lipińska
University of Silesia

Teaching pronunciation to primary school learners and its influence on L2 speech production

Introduction

Recently we could observe that the number of studies devoted to second language pronunciation has increased to a considerable extent. Nevertheless, there are some areas which have not been properly explored yet (e.g. Schwartz et al. 2014). Another important observation (e.g. Szpyra-Kozłowska 2008) is the fact that the conclusions derived from various studies are rarely applied in practice. It frequently happens in the case of school curricula, in which classical methods of teaching and practising only selected language skills seem to be still dominant.

The status of pronunciation training in Polish schools

Polish scholars started researching the status of pronunciation training in Polish schools almost twenty years ago. Abundant studies revealed that it is very low, and teaching phonetics is almost completely neglected. Not only it is virtually absent during foreign/second language classes, but L2 learners are also highly critical concerning their own pronunciation skills, as well as their teachers' abilities to speak English correctly.

For instance, Szpyra-Kozłowska (2008) says that grammar and vocabulary are treated as the most important aspects of language teaching/learning in Poland, while phonodydactics seems to be still ignored in most schools. Another aspect which is often castigated by the specialists in this field is the very quality of pronunciation teaching, if it happens to be applied in the curriculum after all (e.g. Porzuczek 2002; Szpyra-Kozłowska et al. 2002; Majer 2002; Wysocka 2003). What is more, it is worth noticing that such a situation might be regarded as a consequence of a relatively low priority of pronunciation skills in various language examinations, e.g. Polish Matura (the upper-secondary school leaving exam), American TOEFL and Cambridge ESOL examinations (Waniek-Klimczak & Dłutek 2003; Szpyra-Kozłowska 2003). What is crucial is the fact that in all of the exams mentioned above, general communications skills are regarded as the most significant and desirable (Szpyra-Kozłowska 2008). Nowacka (2003) notices that not only Polish school graduates are in most cases characterised by a low phonetic competence, but they also do not usually perceive correct pronunciation as an important aspect of language competence. Moreover, foreign language teachers

frequently put forward an argument that there is a lack of proper resources which could be easily used in the classroom when one thinks of L2 pronunciation teaching. This, however, does not seem to be true as the number of materials available both online and in various books is growing constantly. Numerous strategies and techniques of effective pronunciation teaching have already received a great attention among Polish researchers (Szpyra-Kozłowska 2008).

However, not only L2 learners seem to be characterised by a low phonetic competence, but it is also true for their teachers who (theoretically) should speak a given foreign language fluently as they serve as models for their students, also in terms of pronunciation (Waniek-Klimczak 2006). Some interesting information one can find in Szpyra-Kozłowska's (2008) study. In her paper, she replicates and also contrasts her two previous pieces of research in which she firstly analysed a level of English classes in numerous Polish high schools, and secondly – assessed the level of the competence of English teachers from the same schools. The results of both studies demonstrate that in all schools where the research took place there was no single class devoted to English pronunciation. What is more, only very few lessons contained single elements of any pronunciation training. Besides, students from those schools highlighted that their teachers did not pay any attention to learners' pronunciation in L2, rarely corrected it, claimed that pronunciation was not an important part of language learning and frequently used a faulty pseudo-phonetic transcription (e.g. the word *a nurse* was transcribed by teachers as */e ners/*). Furthermore, also the teachers' pronunciation was described by their students as „full of errors" (for instance, it included incorrect vowel length, final devoicing of obstruents and similar easily detectable errors). Hence, one can easily draw a conclusion, that low phonetic competence of foreign language teachers, as well as the lack of any classes devoted to second language pronunciation training, do contribute to L2 learners' low phonetic competence in their target language.

Also Lipińska's (2014) study confirms what has been written above. In her study on learners' attitudes towards pronunciation learning and teaching, and their experiences of (potential) pronunciation training, she prepared a questionnaire containing not only closed-ended questions, but also opportunity to write any comments the study participants wanted to add. Four groups of subjects provided the researcher with similar comments as the informants in the aforementioned, previous studies. They mainly concerned the lack of pronunciation classes or modules at school, teachers' difficulties in correct articulation of foreign sounds, the lack of pronunciation correction during conversation classes etc.

The significance of correct pronunciation

For about two decades second language teaching concentrated mainly on successful and effective communication, and „being communicative" in an L2 has become very popular among language learners. Foreign language teachers focused a lot on conversation skills, but also frequently eliminated – to a large extent – formal instruction in other, „traditional" skills. „No grammar, only speaking" courses have been provided by many language schools.

Nevertheless, in order to communicate successfully, a language learner needs to acquire correct pronunciation (Komorowska 2011). If they want to communicate with other language users, first of all, they have to understand other speakers and this is probably one of the most crucial abilities. Moreover, language users need to be understood correctly. It means that their speech must be intelligible enough to convey the intended message (e.g. Littlewood 1994; Tarone 1978; Beebe 1984). One has to highlight that it is vital not only for the communication with native speakers of a given language, but also with other non-native users who do not share the same language background and hence their pronunciation may be affected by numerous interlingual factors in various ways (Littlewood 1994; Setter & Jenkins 2005).

Despite the fact that „being communicative" is still really popular, one can observe that foreign language learners frequently care a lot not only about basic communication, but also about some grammatical (syntactic) norms and errors at all stages of proficiency in their L2. On the other hand, they happen to forget that grammatical norm is not the only type of norm which they need to take into consideration if they would like to approximate (more or less) the native models. Then language learners often ignore pragmatic, morphological, orthographic and phonetic norms (Sobkowiak 2004). Also Eddine (2011) notices that it is a common situation when L2 learners care less for proper pronunciation and tend to be more concentrated on comprehension skills and grammatical rules. It happens especially when they have not been trained to discriminate major phonetic differences since the very early stages of learning their target language.

Critical Period and fossilization

Teaching correct pronunciation in L2 is crucial from the very beginning, especially in the light of the Critical Period Hypothesis (Lennenberg 1967). Lennenberg proposed this theory with regard to first language acquisition. He stated that this period starts at the age of about two and finishes at puberty. After reaching puberty, mastering a first language should be impossible. Lennenberg claimed that language function is gradually lateralized in the left brain hemisphere. He also maintained that this period to a large extent accounts for the existence of a critical, or sensitive, period for the emergence and establishment of a language. Thus the critical period is the one in which the brain of an individual organizes its division of labour (Puppel 1996). Subsequently the Critical Period Hypothesis was extended also to second language acquisition. The central hypothesis stated that if the critical period really exists, learning the second language after puberty should be much more difficult than before it (Puppel 1996). Numerous scholars (e.g. Krashen 1975; Ervin-Tripp 1974; Klein 1986) tried to provide the evidence to that effect in their studies. However, the differences between L2 acquisition before and after the age of puberty were not as dramatic as they had expected. However, in most cases the earlier the learners started learning an L2, the better pronunciation they acquired.

The situation described above may have been due to the phenomenon of fossilisation of interlanguage phonology. Some scholars claim that foreign accent and fossilized pronunciation may even seem inevitable for adolescents and adults learning L2 (e.g. Wysocka 2007). Some scholars like for example Scovel (1969) maintain that no adult will ever be able to achieve native-like pronunciation in their L2. Others, however, are in favour of the opinion that although it may be really difficult, it is possible for adult learners to achieve it, and that some of them actually do achieve such a pronunciation in their target language (Tarone 1978). One of the most important questions in this case is: what actually causes phonological fossilisation? There are several potential explanations. One of them is highly physiological in the approach to the aforementioned phenomenon. It explains that while they get older, human muscles and nerves undergo a process of atrophy which is caused by having practised the same set of pronunciation habits for years. That situation leads to problems in acquiring new pronunciation patterns (Tarone 1978). As Gumbaridze (2012) notices, faulty forms often become so fixed and persistent in learners' minds, that some individuals are unable and unwilling to correct them. Other explanations are of rather psychological nature. Krashen (1977), for example, maintains that fossilisation is tightly connected with the critical period in SLA, which is the one after puberty, when an individual tends to begin to *learn* language consciously rather than *acquire* it as children usually do. Guiora et al. (1972) use the affective argument and focus on the adult learners' lack of empathy with the native speakers and the culture of their target language or even negative attitude to them. Also Neufeld (1978) is in favour of this hypothesis. However, more recent studies show that fossilized pronunciation can be rehabilitated and improved (e.g. Acton 1984; Demirezen 2009) and some researchers (e.g. Porzuczek & Rojczyk 2010) notice that human capability of learning new, foreign sounds is not limited or lost after the age of puberty, and that language learners are able to master L2 pronunciation at an advanced level even as adults.

Hence, most foreign language teachers are aware of the fact that „the earlier, the better" and that it is much easier to teach correct pronunciation from the very beginning than to correct fossilized pronunciation errors at later stages (e.g. Baker 1996; Nixon & Tomlinson 2005). It has also been noticed that while young children are simply able to acquire L2 phonetics by listening to stories, songs, nursery rhymes and by playing games, teens who are above thirteen years of age are much more conscious learners (Nixon & Tomlinson 2005) and may start learning pronunciation just like they study L2 grammar or vocabulary.

Current study

The first aim of this paper is to present the materials and methods which may be successfully used to teach L2 pronunciation to young teenagers (11–13-year-old primary school learners). The materials are diverse and range from exercises and tasks already included in schoolbooks to various online interactive games and activities and even ways to teach IPA to the aforementioned learners. Another aim of the paper is to prove the effectiveness of applying such methods by means of an auditory analysis of teenage subjects' speech production, performed by three native

speakers of English. The analysis was supposed to clarify whether the phonetic training may improve the learners' pronunciation and what aspects of it might thus be polished up.

The subjects consisted of a small group of 12-year-old primary school students (6th-graders). All of them were girls. There were six study participants who had been studying English for 5–6 years prior to the study. They all had attended an English course in a language school since they were 4th-graders. The course was characterized by an original curriculum designed by the author of this paper. The course not only aimed at teaching general English, suitable for young teenagers in terms of grammar and vocabulary, but also prepared the subjects to the school-leaving exam (*Sprawdzian szóstoklasisty*), and – most importantly – included a pronunciation module prepared from scratch by the author.

After two and a half years of exposure to such teaching techniques, the subjects participated in the study. They performed reading and conversation tasks which were recorded. They read short passages of a text from a textbook designed for the sixth class of primary school and had short conversations on everyday topics. The recordings were subsequently assessed (auditory analysis) by three native speakers of English who teach English in Poland. Two of the assessors were from the USA and one came from the UK. The teachers listened to the recorded utterances as many times as they wanted, and evaluated various aspects of the subjects' pronunciation using a 5-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 5 – strongly agree). They were also allowed to provide any comments they wanted.

Materials used in the pronunciation training

The following section presents the materials which were used in the pronunciation module included in the language course which the study participants had attended. The materials ranged from the books aiming at teaching pronunciation and textbooks designed for primary schools, to various online activities and exercises.

Primary Pronunciation Box

This is a photocopiable book by Caroline Nixon and Michael Tomlinson (2005), designed to teach English pronunciation to children and young teenagers. It contains over sixty various activities and exercises such as rhymes, chants, poems, puzzles and games which make learning pronunciation enjoyable. The book is divided into parts, according to learners' age. Each activity contains a clear, step-by-step lesson plan explaining how to set the activity up and carry it out in the classroom. It is especially useful for teachers who are not phoneticians, but want to include phonetic training in their curriculum. The book is accompanied by an audio CD which familiarizes learners with correct pronunciation in their L2 and which facilitates doing the exercises as the teacher does not need to read anything on his own. The worksheets contain pictures, which is especially important for younger learners who find pictures particularly attractive. What is important is the fact that the activities can be slotted into any course as they are not designed for any particular textbook or teaching programme.

Textbooks

Also materials from two textbooks designed for primary school were used to train subjects in correct pronunciation. The first of them was *Steps in English* (Falla et al. 2012), which served also as a leading textbook during the whole course. Each chapter in the whole series includes pronunciation boxes, chants or activities, accompanied by the IPA forms of a trained segment. The activities can be easily extended with the use of additional materials or games based on the topic from the book. All recordings are included in a teacher's audio CD, which is very useful for young learners as it enables them to copy correct pronunciation patterns.

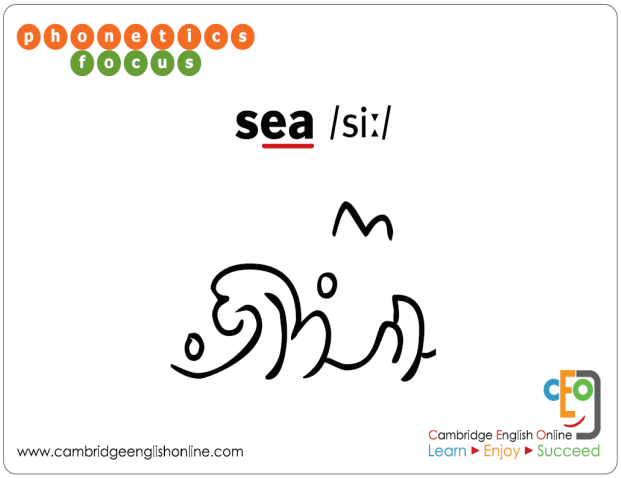
Another textbook which contained valuable pronunciation exercises which were used during the course was *Evolution Plus* (Beare 2014). In this series each chapter includes a phonetic section *Sounds right!* which provides learners with easy listen-and-repeat tasks aiming at training particular segments of English. Again, the correct pattern is recorded on a teacher's audio CD. However, this time no IPA transcription is presented.

Online activities and materials

The last, but probably the most attractive source of teaching/learning materials and interactive activities was the Internet. Two popular websites were included in the teaching programme and were really enjoyed by the subjects. They were explored with the use of the interactive whiteboard. The first of them was Cambridge English Online website and its section *Phonetics Focus* (http://cambridgeenglishonline.com/Phonetics_Focus/). This website is full of not only various and attractive activities which can be done individually or team-vs.-team, but it also contains printable flashcards with IPA symbols accompanied by simple pictures.

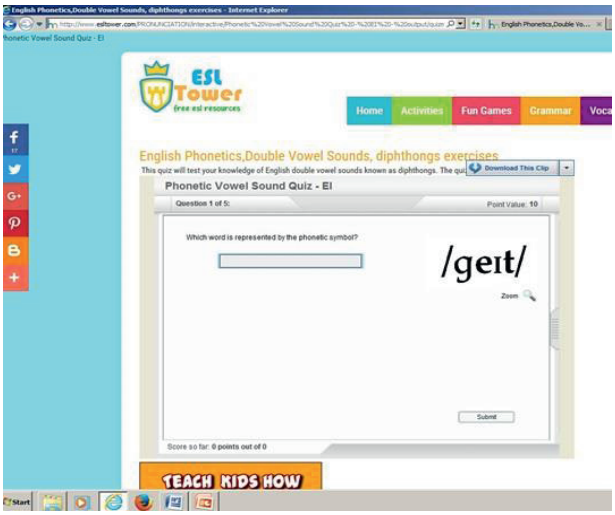
Fig. 1. Sample pronunciation games from http://cambridgeenglishonline.com/Phonetics_Focus/

Fig. 2. Sample printable pronunciation flashcards from http://cambridgeenglishonline.com/Phonetics_Focus/



Another website containing plenty of pronunciation games which was used to train the subjects and which was also enjoyed during the classes was ESL Tower (http://eslgamesworld.com/members/games/pronunciation/index.html). It served mainly for group activities and team-vs.-team games. One of the most appreciated games was *Phonetic Vowel Quiz* where the subjects were presented the IPA version of a word and had to write a spelling form. For each correctly spelled word they scored a point and after a 10-word round the scores were compared and one of the teams won and got a small prize. The attractive form of a game helped the study participants to quickly learn and memorize the IPA symbols and revise vocabulary.

Fig. 3. *Phonetic Vowel Quiz* for a diphthong /e)/ from http://eslgamesworld.com/members/games/pronunciation/index.html

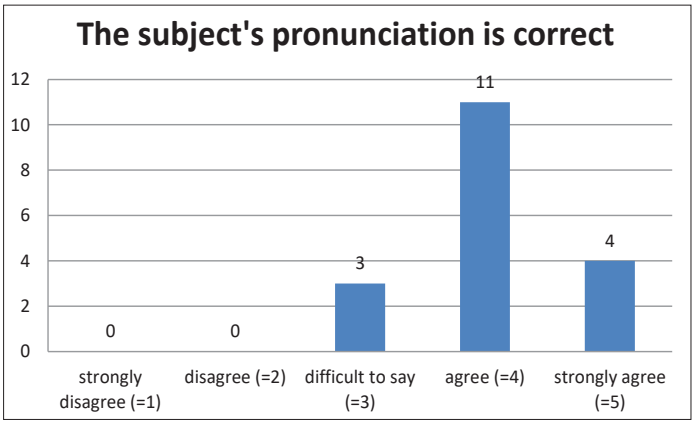


The study results

As has already been mentioned, the subjects having been exposed to such techniques of pronunciation training for two and a half years, participated in a study on speech production. Their recorded utterances were auditorily assessed by three native speakers of English working as English teachers in Poland. The two Americans and one British teach English to teenagers and young adults in one of the language schools in the south of Poland. The teachers evaluated the subjects' pronunciation using a 5-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 5 – strongly agree) and were allowed to provide any comments they wanted.

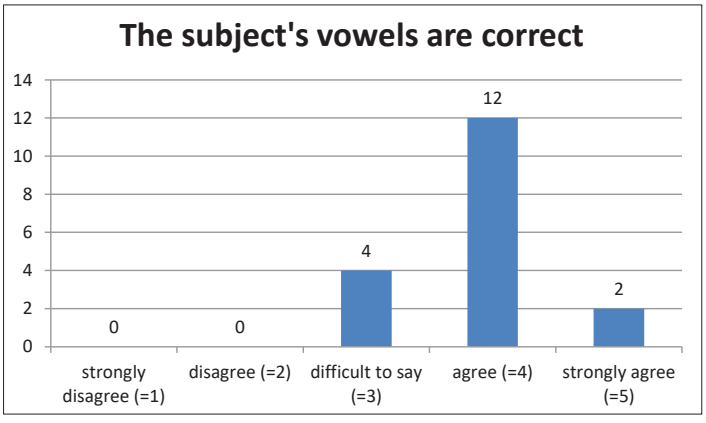
The first statement was *The subject's general pronunciation in English is correct*. The average result for this statement equaled =4. There were six subjects x three assessors which gave eighteen ratings altogether.

Fig. 4. The results of the general auditory analysis of the subjects' speech by three native users of English



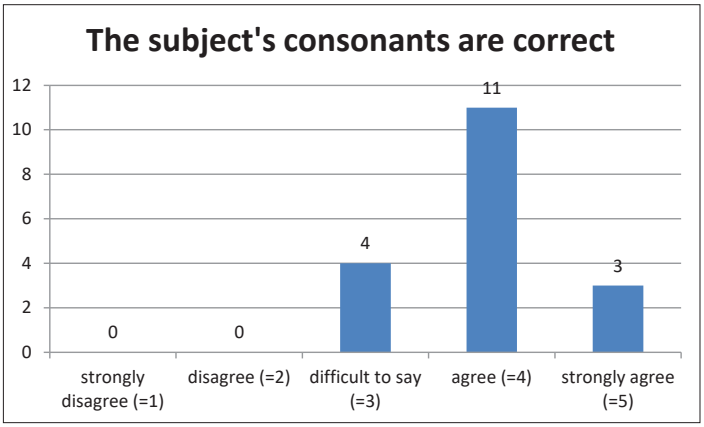
Another statement was *The subject's vowels are correct.* Here the mean rating also equaled =4.

Fig. 5. The results of the auditory analysis of the subjects' vowels by three native users of English



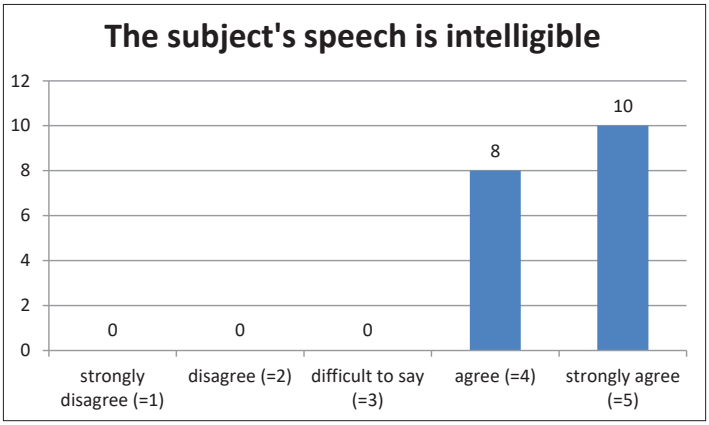
The third aspect which was assessed were English consonants. The statement was *The subject's consonants are correct.* Again, the average result equaled =4.

Fig. 6. The results of the auditory analysis of the subjects' vowels by three native users of English



The final aspect evaluated by the group of native speakers of English was the subjects' general intelligibility of speech. The statement was *The subject's speech is intelligible.* The mean result equaled =4.5.

Fig. 7. The results of the auditory analysis of the intelligibility of the subjects' speech by three native users of English



As one can see in Figures 4–7, both the general and the specific ratings for the whole group of subjects were relatively high. The teachers agreed that, in most cases, the study participants' pronunciation was correct (either *agree* or even *strongly agree* statements were marked). They also claimed that the subjects' speech was intelligible (only *agree* and *strongly agree* statements). The young teenagers were also able to produce English segments (both vowels and consonants) of good quality. One of the subjects (subject number 2) was given three best ratings (from all the three assessors) which may suggest that she succeeded in acquiring desirable pronunciation in English as an L2.

Also the comments written by the native speakers of English were very positive. They were as follows:

- *The girls' pronunciation is much better than pronunciation of an average learner whom I teach here in Poland.*
- *I think they sound more natural than typical kids in Poland.*
- *Maybe they are not perfect but perfectly understandable.*
- *Subject 2 is amazing – her „th-sounds" are perfect.*
- *It's great that they do not copy Polish vowels.*

Conclusions

As one could see, there is a relative abundance of resources that can be used to teach correct pronunciation of English to young teenagers. Those resources and materials include books written especially for this purpose, numerous exercises taken from ordinary textbooks, as well as attractive and diverse Internet resources. Although only some of them were presented in the article, it can give us some outline concerning the endless possibilities of finding and creating various exercises and activities to train L2 learners in correct pronunciation in their L2. It contradicts a surprisingly popular claim shared by many teachers, that the only materials available are designed for adults and that they are far too difficult for young teenagers.

The pilot study suggests that applying pronunciation training elements to a general English course can be very effective from a quite early age. A group of young teenagers, who were formally trained in English pronunciation just like in grammar, vocabulary and other skills, achieved considerably good results in a speech production test and were positively assessed by three native speakers of English who worked as foreign language teachers, and thus were specialists in the topic. The training helped eliminating foreign-accentedness and incorrect production of e.g. />/ and /?/ sounds. It shows that pronunciation training of young learners is not only possible, but also desirable and effective.

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Wpływ nauczania fonetyki na produkcję mowy w języku obcym przez uczniów szkoły podstawowej

Streszczenie

Mimo że badania nad przyswajaniem wymowy w języku drugim (J2) rozwinęły się do znacznego stopnia w ciągu ostatnich dekad (np. Schwartz et al., 2014), wnioski formułowane na ich podstawie rzadko znajdują zastosowanie w praktyce, zwłaszcza w środowisku szkolnym. Liczne badania przeprowadzane od początku dwudziestego pierwszego wieku (np. Majer, 2002; Nowacka, 2008; Sobkowiak, 2002; Szpyra-Kozłowska, et al., 2002; Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2008; Waniek-Klimczak, 2002; Wrembel, 2002; Lipińska, 2014) wyraźnie pokazały, że nauczanie wymowy języka obcego/drugiego jest w zasadzie nieobecne w szkołach (poza przedmiotami akademickimi wykładanymi na uczelniach), a uczniowie są zdecydowanie krytyczni względem wymowy ich nauczycieli tychże języków. Na przekór potwierdzonym badaniami opiniom, że poprawna wymowa jest niezbędna w skutecznej komunikacji w języku obcym (np. Littlewood, 1994; Setter i Jenkins, 2005) oraz faktowi, że element wymowy został zawarty nawet w egzaminie maturalnym (CKE, 2013), cały czas trudno o znalezienie wyczerpujących materiałów teoretycznych i praktycznych w podręcznikach szkolnych, podczas gdy elementom takim jak gramatyka poświęca się dużo uwagi.

Jednocześnie większość nauczycieli przychyla się do opinii, że „im wcześniej, tym lepiej" i że uczenie prawidłowej wymowy w języku obcym od samego początku jest zdecydowanie łatwiejsze od poprawiania zakorzenionych błędów na późniejszych etapach nauki (np. Baker, 1996; Nixon i Tomlinson, 2005). Podczas gdy małe dzieci przyswajają naturalnie wymowę słuchając historyjek, piosenek czy wierszyków czytanych przez rodzimych użytkowników danego języka, nastolatki (również te młodsze) są zdecydowanie bardziej świadomymi uczniami (Nixon i Tomlinson, 2005) i mogą zacząć uczyć się fonetyki, tak, jak uczą się gramatyki czy słownictwa.

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest zaprezentowanie materiałów i technik, które mogą być z sukcesem wykorzystane w nauczaniu wymowy języka obcego w przypadku młodszych nastolatków (11-13 letnich uczniów szkoły podstawowej). Opisane materiały są różnego rodzaju, zaczynając od ćwiczeń zawartych w podręcznikach, poprzez interaktywne gry i zabawy aż do technik nauczania alfabetu fonetycznego. Ich skuteczność została potwierdzona badaniem polegającym na audytoryjnej ocenie produkcji mowy w J2 przez młodsze nastolatki, również opisanym w niniejszym artykule, a w którym oceniającymi byli rodowici użytkownicy języka angielskiego.

Słowa kluczowe: nauczanie wymowy, trening fonetyczny, młodsze nastolatki

Appendix 1

The text (read by the subjects) which was recorded and assessed by three native speakers of English (*Disneyland Dreams* from *Steps in English 2* by Tim Falla et al. 2012).

Disneyland Dreams

MacGregory Ramos in an 11-year-old boy from Venezuela in South America. He had a dream. He wanted to visit Disneyland. So he decided to go to California – by himself! The boy left school and took a bus to the airport in Caracas. He didn't have a ticket or a passport, but he got onto a plane. The officials didn't stop him because they thought he was with adults.

On the plane MacGregory stayed in a toilet. A flight attendant found him and asked him questions. 'I'm with my aunt,' MacGregory said. The flight attendant believed him.

But the plane didn't go to California. It went to Amsterdam, in the Netherlands. So when the plane arrived, MacGregory got on another plane. This plane went to Hungary. This time, the flight attendants didn't believe his story.

When the plane landed in Budapest, officials took MacGregory to a hotel. He told them his address in Venezuela and they phoned his parents. The Hungarian officials were amazed when MacGregory told them about his journey. They were kind to him, and gave him sweets and souvenirs. The next day, he went home to Venezuela on another plane. An official went with him… just to be sure!

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Renata Botwina, Olga Jakubiak
University of Warsaw

Techniques and principles of teaching English to young learners

If a child is to keep alive his inborn sense of wonder,
he needs the companionship of at least one adult
who can share it,
rediscovering with him the joy,
excitement and mystery of the world we live in.

R. Carson, *The Sense of Wonder*, 1965

Education is a natural process carried out by the child
and is not acquired by listening to words
but by experiences in the environment.

M. Montessori, *The Secret of Childhood*, 1982

Introduction

Experienced teachers know that, although greatly rewarding, teaching small children can be a painstaking task. Teachers working with children know that little learners are energetic, curious and always on the move. Their short attention span makes it difficult for them to concentrate on a task for a longer period of time. Moreover, ESL teachers working in preschools and early primary schools often face technical problems, such as large groups, inadequate conditions and a lack of equipment. Indeed, a great number of children in class does not make it easy for the teacher to create ideal conditions for learning bearing in mind the fact that foreign language classes are usually overcrowded. Naturally, this could lead to discipline problems and an overwhelming feeling of frustration in both teachers and children.

The usual complications of teaching a large class are compounded by the fact that pre-schoolers cannot read or write, least of all in English. As a result, ESL classes are primarily based on Total Physical Response, games and songs accompanied by a lively atmosphere created by play. When playing, children often get overenthusiastic, the noise level rises, smaller children get pushed, objects get thrown and chaos is created making an ESL teacher want to run away and never come back. Another frequent obstacle that ESL teachers face is limited space in the classroom. It goes without saying that it is very difficult to ensure individual

attention for every student in class when teaching a group of up to thirty children. In addition, much too often, many teachers encounter the problem of limited materials – it is not always possible to prepare copies, flashcards, or stickers for every student. These are just a few problems ESL teachers face in Polish preschools and primary schools.

The above-mentioned obstacles illustrate that teaching English to small children is a very demanding task, yet many teachers can do it successfully. They prove that children's energy and enthusiasm can be put to good use in the foreign language classroom. After all, all children want from classes is to have fun. On the other hand, there are some learning goals to be met. From the ESL teacher's perspective, young learners start their (hopefully) lifelong adventure with English and they need to both establish a solid basis and create a strong motivation in them.

To sum up, ESL teachers working with small children have to know that small children's cognitive development has a long way to go before it is fully developed, and there are some obvious limitations that need to be taken into consideration when working with them. Yet, a good ESL teacher can adopt a set of techniques and principles in his work with children. This will result in creating a friendly learning environment in the foreign language classroom where learning goals are met successfully and children are happy to combine learning and having fun. To do that, it is necessary to understand the young learner's cognitive abilities and limitations.

The small learner – profile

Preschool age literally refers to the period „prior to elementary school" and, in accordance with the current education reforms in Poland, it describes a child up to the age of 6 or 7. However, each child is unique and children develop at their own pace. Therefore, *preschool age* is not just a chronological term because it speaks of the critical changes that occur in the structure of the child's mentality and developmental achievements. According to Vygotsky (1998: 198), this period is extremely important, because it is then that children transform their perception, attention, thinking and memory, as well as develop most of their linguistic skills. Thus, *preschool age* represents the initial moment for all dynamic changes that occur during this period. It determines the forms and the path along which the child will acquire new personality characteristics, drawing them from the social reality and the basic source of development.

The psychological development of children is closely linked to their emotional and physical development. According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development, preschool and early primary school children remain at the preoperational cognitive stage of development which ranges from about 2 to 7 (Piaget 1952). The child at this stage is pre (before) operations, which means that he cannot use logic or transform, combine or separate ideas. The child's development consists of building experiences about the world through adaptation and working towards the concrete stage when logical thought is used. As a result, the preoperational stage child presents an egocentric intuitive intelligence, which makes it hard for him to see the viewpoint of others. On the other hand, this stage of cognitive development allows for

symbolic thinking so that children can mentally represent the world around them through words, images and symbols (Boyd & Bee 2014: 180–185). Symbolic thinking constitutes a basis for information classification, being essential to the learning process. Emotions affect such important areas as motivation to learn, tolerance of ideas, flexibility in thinking, or perseverance. Children's emotional reactions to certain events determine their desire to repeat or avoid the experience. According to Johnson and Williams (2008), 3–7-year-olds have a very complex emotional life:

- They show self-conscious emotions and develop self-esteem.
- They can regulate their emotions to some degree.
- They express their emotions in language.
- They have an ability to conform in social (preschool) context.

On the other hand, children in the preschool age often experience mood swings so that a feeling of happiness is frequently replaced by crying. The stimulus coming from the outside world produces a new agitation in the brain cortex, which triggers an immediate action in a child resulting in young children's high mobility and curiosity. It is also during that stage that there is a rapid increase in the subcortical activity of the brain that influences the emotion-guided behaviour. That is why children at this stage experience excitement easily. Due to the sensual, emotional and intellectual excitability, each stimulus can become a source of distraction for the child. Children's behaviour can become erratic, they can get bored and tired easily. As children develop, they can regulate their emotions more effectively.

One of the most important factors, leading children to explore the environment and to learn, is curiosity. It can be stimulated by people, events, and objects. Baxter and Switzky (2009) highlight that curiosity is the impetus for children's intellectual development and arises from the violation of their expectations of things, objects and events. It is regarded that very young learners can make use of their vivid imagination. Small children attribute life and thinking to inanimate objects – for them clouds cry, toys speak and walk etc. Children at this stage are also capable of classifying things and objects (all the animals, all the toys etc.), although abstract thinking is something they cannot perform; only concrete objects and situations are understood. The preoperational stage involves a rapid development of memory skills. Differences between past and future are understood although children do not grasp the concept of time expressed in terms of days, weeks, months and years (Piaget 1952).

Last but not least, during preschool years, children acquire most cultural tools, indispensable for a successful immersion in society. They learn to co-exist, cooperate and communicate with other people. This results in undoubtedly the biggest development for children at the preoperational stage of cognitive development – language, accompanied by a great deal of sensorimotor activity (Pamuła 2006: 31). Children talk to communicate with others and they learn how to integrate their thoughts and language. First, younger pre-schoolers use words to describe physical objects. Slightly older children are able to retrieve the past images through the more elaborate apparatus of speech and their refined usage of language. There is an apparent correlation between their memory and communication skills – pre-schoolers start transcending the limits of speech linked just to the perceived

characteristics of objects and include their past experience to talk about the function of various objects or their relation to other phenomena. As research shows (Koszulin et al. 2003), language acquisition is enhanced by the social situation in kindergartens. Moreover, children's sense of imagination is a considerable feature which is helpful while acquiring language. This might, however, bring problems distinguishing between the real and the fictional world (Scott & Ytreberg 1990: 5). As Halliwell (1993: 7) points out, teachers should bear in mind the fact that for children reality also includes imagination. They usually believe that a state of affairs that is portrayed in a cartoon is a reflection of the real world. Thus, they do not often see any dissimilarity between a witch and a postman. For many of them, both of them perform some kind of craft.

To sum up, it can be concluded that teaching young children is a highly demanding task bearing in mind the complex developmental processes they undergo. It comes as an obvious fact that children diverge greatly from adults. The awareness of all the characteristics described above is crucial in order to teach young learners effectively. Teachers should remember that children's curiosity may and should be transformed into a cognitive activity. It leads not only to physical exploration (manipulations of objects), but also to a verbal and intellectual investigation (asking question as a way to explore the world). Children's L1 vocabulary extends every day due to communication with peers, new experiences and learning environment. This boosted language development in children can be a great start for ESL teachers when dealt with wisely.

Teaching English to preschool children

As it was already mentioned, teaching children can be immensely rewarding once favourable conditions are created in the classroom and children are allowed to learn through play. But teaching children is not only about fun and games all the time. Teachers have teaching goals to meet and parents' judging eyes are set on them waiting for immediate learning outcomes in the form of fluent speech in English produced by their kids when, for example, travelling abroad. This might be stressful and difficult to manage. Therefore, foreign language teachers who wish to teach children must be aware of the challenges and difficulties they may encounter and prepare accordingly in advance. The first question to ask oneself when considering a career of the teacher of English working with small children is: *Am I the right person to do it?*

It goes without saying that adequate teaching qualifications are the basic requirement. Harmer (1983: 6) claims that an ESL teacher should be a model of the foreign language, speaking „good English" and providing his students with „good pronunciation." This is especially relevant when teaching children who easily pick up all the phonetic nuances and peculiarities. What is more, a good teacher working with small children is a patient teacher: the younger the child, the more patience you must show.

Moreover, teachers should treat small learners individually, bearing in mind the fact that some children are brave and eager to participate in the lesson, whereas some can be shy and aloof. Approaching each child individually, establishing

the right pace of the lesson and succeeding in engaging all the group may present a challenge even for the most skilled teachers. Additionally, the teacher should be prepared to be treated as a „walking" dictionary (Harmer 2010: 23). Children keep asking questions about words and their precise meanings. They do not want to annoy the teacher, but to express their hunger for knowledge. Young learners ask questions instantly and expect immediate answers, but teachers sometimes cannot provide children with answers. People are not computers and it is proper to make our students aware of the fact that there is a great deal of words in English and it is impossible to know every word and its possible collocations. However, a child should not be ignored. Teachers should respond somehow. If they avoid the answer, the child will possibly never ask for anything again.

Another important point to consider is that children are bound to make mistakes when learning English. Their L1 mastery still develops, especially grammar and pronunciation, so ESL teachers should be patient when dealing with children's mistakes. As long as teachers want to create and maintain a positive atmosphere in the classroom, they ought to remember that mistakes are natural and unavoidable. It is extremely discouraging when a teacher is angry at a student just because he or she has made a mistake. According to Moon (2000: 4), children use language creatively. In other words, they try to work out the rules of a language on their own. While doing that, they may and probably will make some blunders. Teachers must be aware of that fact and be patient, supportive and understanding. Of course, this is not an easy task since teaching children demands a great deal of creativity and energy and a teacher can be exhausted after every class having participated in play and games which, much too often, are vigorous and noisy.

Teaching English using active methods

Active learning (or active methods) is a perfect tool to be used when working with children. The term refers to many different teaching techniques. All of them emphasize the active role of students as the opposite of passive learning, when students simply listen to the teacher. It employs the variety of learning strategies that actively engage students and give them control over the learning process. In this manner, the method questions more traditional, teacher-centered and didactic approaches to teaching (Bonwell & Eidon 1991). Active learning usually calls for activities such as project work, play, games, group work, problem-solving tasks. Consequently, the active learning approach also promotes the development of many other important skills – collaborating with others, organizing one's work, taking responsibility for one's own actions, establishing leadership. It is critically important in preschools because collaborative group work is thought to enhance students' social skills, as well as their academic knowledge (Harrar 2001). Preschool pupils have much to gain, both intellectually and socially, from this type of collaborative, active experience. Many prominent scholars, including Piaget and Vygotsky, highlighted the role of social interaction in children's learning process at preschool age. During teamwork „children explain and justify positions, question beliefs, seek new information, or adopt alternative frameworks

and conceptualizations" (Fuchs et al. 2002: 570). Interestingly, active learning has proved to benefit students of all ages, and – when compared to passive learning – is extremely effective when it comes to learning a second language.

In accordance with the main assumptions of active learning remains Total Physical Response (TPR). Created by James Asher in the 1960s, it is based on the coordination of language and physical movement. Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, originated a stress-free approach to second language acquisition. It was the outcome of over 30 years of research in the laboratory and in the classroom – and resulted in TPR being used all around the world to teach all kinds of languages. Asher's method emerged from psychology and post-modern theories, and is less based on the theories about language.

The method connects actions to language learning. Theoretically, it reproduces the acquisition pattern of a native language by focusing on pre-oral stage of language fluency. Asher stressed the necessity of centering the teaching practice on listening/comprehension skills for they are thought to be the only „natural" way of learning where understanding precedes speaking, speaking precedes reading, which, in turn, precedes the act of writing. Asher (1969: 4) argued that:

> This approach has some similarity to how children seem to learn their first language. For example, young children in America acquire a high level of listening fluency for English before they make English utterances. This listening fluency can be demonstrated by observing the complexity of commands which the young child can obey before he learns to speak, and even as speaking develops, listening comprehension is always further advanced.

In TPR, instructors give commands to students in the target language and students respond with whole-body actions. The method is an example of the comprehension approach to language teaching where listening and responding with actions serve two purposes: firstly, it provides a means to quickly recognize the meaning in the language being learned; secondly, this is a way of passive learning the structure of the language itself. In TPR, grammar is not taught explicitly, but can be learned from the language input (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 110). Asher's idea is that the learner's memory can be enhanced by motor activity with the result that language is more easily memorized. Students are encouraged to derive the meaning from situations and actual objects. More importantly they are asked to respond to the teacher's commands through physical actions. Initially, each action is demonstrated by the teacher whose task is to keep the contextual relationship of the phrase linked with the movements. This part is followed by giving commands but without any demonstration, which is an indication of students' comprehension. The basic commands given by the teacher are: „Stand up," „Sit down," „Open the door" etc. Once understood, these commands are paired with more complex imperative sentences such as: „The book is on the table. Put the book on the chair" or „Where is the book? On the table? Give me the book, please" or „Go to the table, grab the book and then turn around."

Asher tested his method under a variety of conditions with children and adults. He claimed that the pilot studies suggested the „dramatic facilitation in learning listening skills for a second language [...] related to acting out during

retention tests" (Asher 1966). It has been suggested that TPR, when used in a preschool classroom, has intense motivational power and sustains pupils' interest and effort (Asher 1966; Celestino 1993) because it creates the friendly kind of learning environment that helps students learn in a way that is deeply rooted in reality. It also permits the students to actively participate in the class. Therefore, TPR should be frequently used when working with children since the method fully satisfies children's natural desire to move, mimic and react.

Moreover, an ESL teacher working with young learners should use the theory of Multiple Intelligences (MIT) which was introduced by Howard Gardner in 1983. Ever since its introduction, MIT remains „an increasingly popular approach to characterizing the ways in which learners are unique and to developing instruction to respond to this uniqueness" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 123). Gardner's theory becomes irreplaceable when working with small children who need to develop different learning strategies. Gardner (1993: 8) claims that every individual possesses a different combination of intelligences. Appealing to the intelligences that are better developed in the individual allows for better internalization of the material. Gardner highlights that there are eight types of multiple intelligences: Visual-Spatial, Logical-Mathematical, Bodily-Kinesthetic, Musical-Rhythmic, Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Naturalist and Spiritual. ESL teachers can benefit from MIT in various ways. Thus, for Musical-Rhythmic intelligence learners, an ESL element should be taught with a song, like „Head and Shoulders." For Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence learners body parts could be taught with a game of „Simon says." For Visual-Spatial intelligence learners maps, charts and all types of visual aids can be used (Botwina 2010: 13–18). In this way, as Gardner (1993: 8) argues, „[eight] kinds of intelligence would allow [eight] ways to teach, rather than one. And powerful constraints that exist in the mind can be mobilized to introduce a particular concept (or whole system of thinking) in a way that children are most likely to learn it and least likely to distort it. Paradoxically, constraints can be suggestive and ultimately freeing."

To sum up, providing a solid ground for active learning in the foreign language classroom seems to be indispensable when working with small learners who, above all, need action provided by sensorimotor activities in the friendly environment established by a patient teacher ready to assist the child in his learning process.

Creating friendly environment in the ESL classroom

While working with small learners, an ESL teacher should bear in mind that it is important to maintain a positive atmosphere during lessons. As Curtain and Dahlberg (2008: 5) note, „children acquire language best in a low-anxiety environment." According to Moon (2000: 3), teachers need to create a warm and friendly atmosphere in a classroom in order to encourage young learners to work with them. Philips (1994: 141) echoes this idea stating that teachers should be friendly and caring and the atmosphere should be warm and relaxed. Furthermore, young students need to feel safe around a person whose task is to bequeath knowledge and spend a substantial amount of time in one room with them. Young learners

have to put their trust in the teacher. Otherwise, they might feel insecure, discouraged and even endangered. Consequently, a child may lose his motivation and willingness to participate in English lessons or to learn in general. As Scott and Ytreberg (1990: 9) point out, a teacher needs to be fair and treat every pupil equally. Children have, indeed, a very sharp sense of fairness and they will detect even the slightest attempt to favour somebody. Teachers sometimes do that unconsciously. For example, they ask for volunteers and pick three girls consecutively or choose students from only one row of desks. Pupils will surely draw attention to it and, accordingly, they may feel inferior and bitterly disappointed. Teachers should definitely avoid similar situations not to discourage students. „Children are very sensitive to how they are treated by the teacher and return the feelings and the treatment they are given" (Szpotowicz & Szulc-Kurpaska 2012: 75).

Accordingly, Komorowska (2005: 37) notes that it is important to praise students even for the smallest achievements. With this in mind, it comes as no surprise that teachers should often appreciate pupils' work and avoid destructive criticism. In addition, educationalists should find and make use of any skills their students possess. Harmer (2010: 26) points out that good rapport, i.e. the relationship between a teacher and his or her students, significantly influences pupils' motivation. Furthermore, teachers may improve this relation by, for example, learning students' names by heart. Accordingly, young learners will not feel anonymous, on the contrary, they will feel important. What is more, teachers ought to listen to their students and be interested in what they say. Children often talk about their siblings, parents, pets and basically about everything which is important for them. They want, in this way, to create a connection with a teacher.

It is believed that teachers should establish routines in the classroom. According to Scott and Ytreberg (1990: 11), it is relevant to create habits during English lessons. For example, teachers ought to accustom students that, for example, on Mondays they watch a movie, but on Fridays they read and then act out a story. Routines build up a positive atmosphere, familiarity and make the students feel secure in the classroom. It may take a while to introduce and accustom students to routines and habits, but pupils, as well as teachers, will benefit from it in the long run (Phillips 1994: 141).

It is a good idea to create a place where children can explore the world of English, the so-called „English corner." As Harmer (2010: 38) points out, the classroom should be equipped with English materials and it ought to be a place where English can be heard and used as much as possible. Therefore, an English corner may serve as an ideal solution. This corner should consist of at least books, posters and works of your students. If at all possible, a language corner may contain shelves, a notice board and comfortable seats (Scott & Ytreberg 1990: 12). An English corner is a great area for fast finishers or children who want to develop skills in their spare time (Phillips 1994: 143). It is common knowledge that in formal schooling English teachers often share classrooms with other teachers, but the need for a special place where students could find material in a second language is quite important for their linguistic development. Apart from making a special place in the class that serves as a small language area, teachers ought to remember to keep

the class a lively place with wall displays and students' works (Moon 2000: 3). It is also important to change the setting once in a while and keep it updated. Both children and their parents will notice changes and appreciate your involvement.

English teachers often ask questions whether to use their mother tongue in the classroom or not. It is a difficult question and it is relatively difficult to give an adequate answer. According to Phillips (1994: 11), it is crucial to use as much English during classes as possible, but sometimes it is easier to explain an intricate grammar structure in the mother tongue of students. In this way, teachers save time and make difficult chunks of language easier to assimilate. On the other hand, teachers should certainly use English as much as they can. As Harmer (2010: 38) points out, language classrooms should have language in it. In other words, English teachers ought to use English as often as possible and they should restrict themselves from using children's mother tongue to a minimum. It is also advisable to use prompts like mime or puppets, especially while teaching young learners. Students probably do not have an opportunity to hear English on a daily basis, so it is a good idea to provide them with linguistic input during lessons (Scott & Ytreberg 1990: 18). In early school education in Poland, an English teacher comes to conduct English classes twice a week. Children quickly accustom to it and they associate these days of the week with „something different." A different person, different books and possibly different seating arrangements. However, it is often not a different language.

Szpotowicz (2011: 125) suggests that it is a good idea to acquaint children with the fact that during English classes a teacher uses only English. It stands to reason that students will not speak a foreign language if teachers do not do the same. A good language teacher should not restrict oneself to using English only at the beginning and at the end of the lesson. Using English just for giving commands also appears as insufficient. In so far as possible, teachers should use these forty-five minutes to expose students to language input. Furthermore, this input should be comprehensible for pupils. Comprehensible input contains language that is slightly above students' level but still within students' reach. A teacher ought to use words and phrases that are demanding in a context to avoid misunderstanding and to introduce new structures properly. A teacher can provide context by means of visual aids and topics that our students are familiar with (Krashen 1985: 80). Language teachers should provide their pupils with various types of input (Linse 2005: 13). Using English during classes just to conduct the lesson in a foreign language is simply pointless. Teachers must remember that they are there for students, not the other way round.

Thus, teachers should use language which is within students' reach. Scott and Ytreberg (1990: 18) claim that language used in a classroom has to be simple, natural and at the students' level. Teachers ought to use language that is adjusted to learners. Thus, when teaching young students, the way of conveying messages should be child-directed. This type of language is often called „motherese" or „caretaker speech." It is characterised mainly by simplicity, slow rate of speech, lots of repetition, using less complex sentences and visual aids (Curtain & Dahlberg 2008: 3). According to Halliwell (1993: 15), it is manageable to conduct nearly a whole

lesson in the target language by means of a relatively small amount of phrases and grammatical structures. With this in mind, teachers should avoid using children's mother tongue while teaching a second language, but they might use it if a class situation requires it.

Moreover, an ESL teacher working with children should be flexible. It is often hard to predict whether preschool or early primary school children are going to have a good/bad day so an ESL teacher should be prepared to face any circumstances. Therefore, thorough preparation becomes a must: a good ESL teacher working with young learners should never make the mistake of showing up for the class with no lesson plan thinking that he will figure out what to do as the lesson goes along. A detailed lesson plan is essential to conducting an effective lesson. Moreover, it should always include some extra activities in case time is left and an additional activity should be implemented.

Last but not least, ESL teachers working should be prepared to deal with their young learners' parents. It is no wonder that parents want to be informed about their child's progress and (hopefully) help him learn at home. Therefore, an ESL teacher should inform parents about the teaching goals to be accomplished throughout the semester, the syllabus used for the teaching progress, as well as children's progress (if they have achieved learning goals). It is also recommended to encourage parents' active participation in their children's English learning; they should be encouraged to ask their kids what they have learned, share songs etc.

To conclude, working with children is not an easy task. An ESL teacher should be supported by the appropriate mixture of techniques and principles selected in accordance with children's cognitive abilities and needs. Since children in the preschool age cannot read and write, most of the English language will have to be imparted through sensorimotor activities, games, stories, videos etc. Children also have a very short attention span, which means that the teacher will have to switch activities every five minutes providing a lot of repetition techniques. The ESL teacher working with small learners should do his best to provide children with a friendly learning environment which will motivate them to learn effectively.

Didactic materials

As mentioned in the previous sections, children have a limited attention span, which results in the fact that they cannot concentrate on one activity for too long. Therefore, teachers should always be equipped with a certain number of didactic materials, suitable for the age and interests of their students. Proper didactic materials help to develop imagination, create situations similar to the real ones and increase motivation.

Usually, the most basic material for all students is a coursebook. This is probably the oldest material used in teaching any language. In the past there were no proper coursebooks for children. Nowadays, with the development of language teaching and constantly lowering the age of foreign language learners, there has appeared a considerable number of coursebooks adapted to small, or even very

small children. They are mainly based on colourful pictures accompanied by CDs, as well as cassettes for older versions or links to the Internet resources for the newest and most modern ones. The listening comprehension materials include mainly songs for young learners or simple stories. Even the youngest children can get „familiarised" with a foreign language in this way, learn a proper foreign accent and start repeating simple songs and stories understanding their meaning from the context or pictures in the coursebook.

Another advantage of a coursebook is the fact that they give an outline of a teaching programme and constitute some basis of subjects for further development and enrichment. This quality is especially important for less experienced teachers who have not yet worked with young learners. It traces guidelines for their work.

Coursebooks, however, are not enough in teaching young and very young learners. Lively students who are eager and always ready to play need more interactive stimuli to stay interested and involved in a lesson for a longer period of time. Therefore, they need additional materials. According to Komorowska (2005: 55), additional materials play usually a dual role: on the one hand, they motivate students and, on the other hand, they compensate for the lack in the coursebook. It means that they add some extra value to the lessons of a foreign language, making them more varied and less monotonous. They also complete the coursebook.

For young children, additional materials have a different character than for older students. Such materials can be divided into a few groups. First of all, children like imitating real-life activities so they like playing with real-life objects. In some cases, these can be real objects, such as fruit, vegetables, clothes or toys, or artificial ones, made of plastic, paper, fabric and cardboard, imitating e.g. miniature animals, food or doll clothes. This kind of didactic materials is precious for children as they are tangible, making children play and learn at the same time. They can do meaningful tasks using their imagination and perform them in a foreign language in order to communicate or at least to understand the instructions.

Flashcards are another example of a popular didactic aid. Flashcards are a very useful tool in teaching as they can depict almost anything and there are hundreds of ways teachers can use them. They can be used to introduce new topics by showing and naming objects or actions drawn on the flashcards. What is more, they can serve as a great tool for revision of certain vocabulary items. Teachers can use them also as a means of TPR games, when children are asked to jump or run to a particular picture, tap one with a fly swat or „take a picture" of it with a paper camera. Smaller versions of flashcards come in handy in games such as „memory," „snap" or „I spy" or pantomime, when one child shows the content of the flashcard with their body and the other students must guess what it is.

Objects that we can use for sports constitute the third group. In this group we can find beanbags, hula-hoops, balls, circles etc. Children associate them with playing and movement so they are fond of them. There is a multitude of ways a teacher can use them in a classroom. Students can count items, say their colour, jump into a hula-hoop of a particular colour, throw the beanbags onto particular flashcards with specific pictures etc. A teacher may throw a ball to children with

a task to perform if they catch it (e.g. translate a word, name 3 object of a particular category or say if they like/do not like a thing that the teacher names).

A fourth didactic tool worth mentioning here are puppets. These can be professional puppets bought in shops or made especially to accompany a course book, but they can also be simple ones, made of paper or socks by students themselves. Young and very young children like taking different roles and pretend to be someone else, so puppets enable them to do this. „Most young children have lively imagination. When they play with other children, they pretend to be super-heroes, adults or imaginary creatures. When they play alone, they create imaginary friends and families, situations and worlds. Children's imagination can be used to help them to learn English" (Cameron & McKay 2010: 88). Puppets or even finger-puppets help to rehearse dialogues from course books or CDs, use structures learnt by heart or work out personal simple dialogues during pair-work. These dialogues may be then presented in front of the class.

To sum up, didactic materials constitute the core of every lesson with young students. Children feel important being able to pretend to be super-heroes, adults or simply someone else than they are in reality. They love playing with objects belonging to adults, too. Physical exercises with sports materials also play an important role in content and language integrated learning. Looking at the problem from the tutor's perspective, didactic materials are also of high importance. Skilfully selected and used, they add extra value to every lesson, making it more motivating. If children find materials attractive and engaging, it means that they were well selected and there is a high probability that students will impatiently await new lessons. They are necessary for every teacher who works with young and very young students.

Conclusions

Nowadays bilingualism is rather a norm than the exception and English has become a global language of communication all over the world. Therefore, it is not a coincidence that English is more frequently taught already at nursery schools. Teaching young learners is a challenging task. Children differ greatly from adults and many aspects must be taken into consideration if teachers want to train them accurately. Bearing in mind the limitations children have due to their stage of cognitive development, foreign language teachers should place the primary focus of their lessons on communication with frequent changes of activities. Young pupils have a very short attention and concentration span. Due to this fact, the activities which are offered to them should be interesting and rather short. In order to keep them motivated and interested in the activity, teachers must introduce a lot of different tasks with the use of various teaching aids. Total Physical Response seems to be the right method to be used with children since it satisfies their need to move. Furthermore, children learn mainly through fun. Thus, the exercises which are offered to them have to include even the slightest element of fun. Moreover, it is common knowledge that children, like all human beings, learn through five physical senses. Thus, the activities which are tendered to them ought

to be diversified and appeal to various senses. Putting Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences in the classroom practice offers a perfect solution.

Additionally, it could be stated that there are some principles and rules that teachers should bear in mind while dealing with young learners. Aspects such as maintaining positive atmosphere during the lesson or treating all pupils equally should be certainly regarded as significant. Furthermore, teachers ought to use English as much as possible so as to provide students with sufficient second language input. This input needs to be comprehensible and possibly put in context. It is also a good idea to create a place where children can have contact with English even if the language teacher is not present. Teaching young learners can be a real pleasure once the teacher creates lesson plans that suit children's maturity level and focus on what will help them excel in English. Apart from proper preparations, ESL teachers should make sure that teaching English is not a chore for them, but rather a positive learning experience, one that they will remember for years to come. Equipped with the right principles and techniques which will be applied in the ESL classroom, teachers can be sure that the moments shared with young learners will far outweigh any difficulties or disadvantages commonly associated with teaching children. After all, as Glenn Doman states in his letter to parents, „Every child has, at birth, a greater potential than Leonardo Da Vinci ever used" (http://gentlerevolution.com/mm5/merchant.mvs?Screen=LETTER). An ESL teacher can be the one to make that potential bloom.

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Techniki i zasady nauczania języka angielskiego u dzieci

Streszczenie

Nauczanie języka angielskiego małych dzieci cieszy się nieustannie rosnącą popularnością i coraz częściej przyciąga uwagę naukowców. Nie jest to zaskoczeniem, gdyż wiek rozpoczęcia nauki języka obcego znacznie obniżył się, a zajęcia z języka angielskiego w większości krajów europejskich stały się rutyną już na etapie przedszkolnym. Niniejszy artykuł poświęcony jest zagadnieniu doboru najbardziej efektywnych sposobów pracy z małymi dziećmi.

Zgodnie z teorią rozwoju intelektualnego Jeana Piageta, dzieci w wieku przedszkolnym są w stadium przedoperacyjnym, co wiąże się z ograniczeniami w ich zdolnościach do uczenia się. Nauczyciele pracujący z dziećmi w tym wieku powinni pamiętać, że charakteryzują się one intuicyjną i egocentryczną inteligencją oraz brakiem umiejętności logicznego myślenia. Oznacza to, że nie potrafią zrozumieć pojęć abstrakcyjnych, a w swoich reakcjach opierają się jedynie na konkretnych przedmiotach i namacalnych sytuacjach. Mając to na uwadze, nauczyciele języków obcych pracujący w przedszkolach powinni koncentrować się przede wszystkim na komunikacji. Najbardziej odpowiednią wydaje się więc metoda Total Physical Response, która wykorzystuje naturalne zachowania dzieci i ich ruchliwość. Warto też wziąć pod uwagę gardnerowską teorię inteligencji wielorakich, co pozwoli na indywidualne podejście do ucznia i jego potrzeb. Połączenie odpowiednich technik nauczania z przyjazną atmosferą, dużą dozą zabawy i radości zapewnioną przed uważnie dobrane materiały dydaktyczne niewątpliwie zagwarantuje sukces w nauczaniu. W niniejszym artykule autorki udowadniają, że nauczanie małych dzieci może być ogromną przyjemnością, pod warunkiem, że lekcje dopasuje się do poziomu rozwoju emocjonalnego i intelektualnego młodych uczniów oraz do ich indywidualnych predyspozycji.

Słowa kluczowe: nauczanie języka obcego, aktywne nauczanie, materiały dydaktyczne, sukces, przedszkolaki

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Christoph Haase
Purkyně University

Analogical mapping of domains in cause-effect representations: a comparison of different science text types

Introduction

This contribution concerns distributional features of typical linguistic devices in academic writing and their appearance in different text-types and scientific disciplines. It thus draws on theories influenced by the genre-approach in the wake of Swales (1990) and from corpus-linguistic studies connected with lexical bundles in different registers of text as pioneered by Biber and others (cf. Biber 1988). For this, a stratified corpus of science texts has been compiled, which enables the qualitative and quantitative investigation of these lexical bundles. But also in the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), it might be elucidating to start with difficult science texts that demonstrate to novice writers the complications to display real research as texts (cf. Canagarajah 2002 or Hyland 2006). A look across text types, as for example compiled in the SPACE corpus for Specialized and Popular Academic English, can be more comprehensible when popular science texts are concerned. The comparison shows that the same academic issues can be described at different levels of comprehensibility so that novice writers can understand which strategies are systematically taken by authors of popular-science texts in order to break down the original content. This can be demonstrated in two samples from the corpus:

Text 1:

0060PN Little is known regarding the long-term effects of caloric restriction (CR) on the risk for atherosclerosis. We evaluated the effect of CR on risk factors for atherosclerosis in individuals who are restricting food intake to slow aging. We studied 18 individuals who had been on CR for an average of 6 years and 18 age-matched healthy individuals on typical American diets. We measured serum lipids and lipoproteins, fasting plasma glucose and insulin, blood pressure (BP), high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (CRP), platelet-derived growth factor AB (PDGF-AB), body composition, and carotid artery intima–media thickness (IMT). The CR group were leaner than the comparison group (body mass index, 19.6 1.9 vs. 25.9 3.2 kgm2; percent body fat, 8.7 7% vs. 24 8%). Serum total cholesterol (Tchol), low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, ratio of Tchol to high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), triglycerides, fasting glucose, fasting insulin, CRP, PDFG-AB, and systolic and diastolic BP were all markedly lower, whereas HDL-C was higher, in the CR than in the American diet group.

Text 2:

0060NS Eating less can dramatically reduce the risk of heart disease. „Caloric restriction" in humans could also help prevent other diseases such as diabetes, stroke, and even cancer. Until now, the benefits of caloric restriction (CR) have been observed only in animals, albeit among a wide variety ranging from worms to mice. The effects include increased lifespan and significantly reduced risk of cancer, coronary heart disease, diabetes, stroke and autoimmune diseases. The only results for humans have been gleaned incidentally from other experiments.

Both texts (from the SPACE corpus on which this study is based) concern the same research, but obviously they are different text types with text-type-specific linguistic features that make the first text difficult to understand, except for experts, while the second can be understood by an interested layperson. To understand the mechanisms better, what creates the linguistic difference may facilitate the production of academic texts for novice writers. In the second step we will therefore look at selected details of academic writing.

Academic writing between causation and analogy-making

The cause-effect relationship and linguistic causation

Two integral elements of academic writing and also of research are causation and analogy. The core of scientific inquiry is the uncovering of natural laws which in effect are unambiguous cause-effect relationships. To falsify the results of this inquiry, research investigates whether these relationships also hold repeatedly and repeatably under controlled experimental conditions. A cause-effect relationship can be assumed to exist when a phenomenon exists and happens that would not have happened without the first one present. In the philosophy of science, causation is the "Cement of the Universe" (Mackie 1980). Causation creates coherence in our reality and determines the flow of time by establishing temporal order (Flaherty 2011), i.e. effects always follow their causes, never the other way around. The grammaticalization of causation and cause-effect relationships is obviously important in English, as we find a wide range of linguistic features: from morphological and syntactic to lexical means. Derivation creates causative verbs from adjectives, transitive verbs can become resultative by extending their frame of complementation. Therefore, in science writing, a cause-effect relationship to be described needs to be adapted to the morpho-syntactic requirements of the language used of the text type of academic writing chosen – be it specialized science publishing or popular science.

An unambiguous method for establishing a cause-effect relationship is the transitive verb to cause. The X CAUSE Y construction appears for example in the following samples from the SPACE corpus:

0079PN the common ancestral intron 2 alleles in the a9, b3, b5, and c1 lineages have ages around 1.5–3 myr (Fig. 2). Taken together, the selective sweep **causing** the MHC repertoire reduction in chimpanzees must have occurred before the (sub)speciation of chimpanzees.

> 0038AX Although the interaction of a fully ionized and a weakly ionized gas is very complex, an important characteristic can be identified – the generation of magnetic fields **caused** by relative plasma-neutral gas shear flows. It has been shown (Huba & Fedder 1993) that this process operates in the Venus' ionosphere and is responsible for the non-dipole magnetic field measured there.

This method to link X and Y provides a causer (X) and a caused (Y), Y is the result, the effect, the outcome. The dominant use of passive in academic writing places the effects syntactically in front of the causes, creating emphasis on the caused phenomenon itself.

Linguistic analogy-making

Abstract phenomena and those removed from perceptual experience are represented by analogs in natural language, most frequently by conceptual metaphor. In academic writing, analogy-making facilitates the processing of highly abstract occurrences of micro- and macroscopic reality for analogical reasoning. This type of reasoning makes research not only comprehensible, it also enables further inferencing, for example all mathematical terms are based on analogs. Analogy can be defined as structural similarity (similarly to metaphor), but here, not two isolated items are compared, but two domains. The phenomena or occurrences in one domain stand in a particular relationship to each other. It is this relationship that is transferred to a second domain in which an assumed analogical relationship exists as well. This is a difference to conceptual metaphor in the Lakoffian sense in which the relationship-mapping occurs from one domain to the other. Itkonen claims that „Analogy is generally defined as 'structural similarity' in which one aspect of one phenomenon is similar to a second aspect in a second phenomenon" (Itkonen 2005: 1). If a so-called primary relationship holds in one domain, a secondary relationship in another domain can be described.

In popular science writing, analogical mapping is a common practice as it systematically establishes a structural connection between two domains on a basis of one or more relationships. On this, the conventional structure-mapping hypothesis (Gentner 1983, 2002) is based. Here, a mapping occurs for an analogous relationship if it can be observed in the other domain too. We can find this in the following examples from the popular-science component of the SPACE corpus:

> 0016AX Something in the Universe is **speeding up** its expansion and **pushing the galaxies apart**. But it wasn't always that way, according to a group of British physicists. They're suggesting that **the accelerator** may only **have been pressed** relatively recently, when the Universe was a few billion years old. If they're right, there's no reason why this mysterious repulsive force, dubbed „**dark** energy," couldn't change again or even **switch off** completely – meaning all bets about the future of the Universe are off.

Here, an abstract phenomenon, the acceleration of the universe's expansion, is likened to an event that is triggered by a *switch* (like a light switch), implying, that the switch can be on and *off*. Further, the expansion is related to a notion of mechanical *pushing*. A common analogue is the use of *dark* for impenetrable or unknown (as in *dark energy*, *dark matter*). The use of these analogues refers to

cognitive standard situations (use of switches, pushing, being in the dark) that are not abstract at all, but they refer to observed processes that are neither mechanical, nor in any Newtonian way observable. In space there are no switches but the source domains exist for a speaker, together with their internally consistent relationships (a switch can be on and off), therefore the abstract analogue (in space) has (perhaps) the same options. In this way, analogy-making is a canonical way of scientific inquiry, as the following examples show:

Tab. 1. Famous analogues in science (see Harrison & Treagust 2006: 15)

Maxwell used water pressure in tubes to mathematically describe Faraday[s electric lines of force
Robert Boyle imagined elastic gas particles as moving coiled springs
Huygens used water waves to theorize that light was wavelike
Konrad Lorenz used analogy to explain streamlined motion both in birds and fish
Kekulé derived his idea for a benzene ring from an image of a snake biting its tail

In Table 1 we find groundbreaking analogues which not only enabled via inference more insight into the phenomenon (an electromagnetic wave has more than a superficial resemblance to a visible mechanical wave), but they also influenced teaching and the popularization of science. We can thus say that scientific discovery and analogical thinking are intertwined (cf. Haase 2016). A number of analogues can be illustrated with samples from the SPACE corpus:

> 0022AX There is increasing observational evidence for the existence of **strange** stars: ultra-compact objects whose interior consists entirely of deconfined **quark** matter. If confirmed, their existence places constraints on the rate of formation of microscopic **black holes** in models which invoke a TeV-scale Planck mass. In such models, **black** holes can form with ~ TeV masses through nuclear interactions of particles with PeV and greater energies. Once formed, these **black hole** states are unstable to Hawking radiation, and rapidly **decay**. However, if such a **black hole** forms in the interior of a **strange** star, the density is high enough that the decay may be counterbalanced by accretion, and the **black hole** can **grow**, leading to subsequent catastrophic collapse of the star. A guaranteed **source** of ultra-high energy particles is provided by the cosmogenic Greisen neutrinos, as well as by ultra-high energy cosmic rays, and the implied **lifetimes** for **strange stars** are extremely short, contrary to observations. The observed lifetimes of strange star candidates thus effectively exclude Planck mass scales of less than ~ 2 TeV with comparable **black hole** masses, for up to 2 extra dimensions. **Seeding** of **strange star** collapse in scenarios with a larger number of extra-dimensions or with higher mass.

The leading analogue is that of the black hole, which can grow, alternating with strange star, which can be seeded. This is not even a popular text, but it comes from the academic physics component of the corpus.

Gentner's structure mapping approach (2010) connects source domains and target domains not directly, but by way of relationships that persist between elements on either side. On the source side, the relationships are accessible to perception, often to visual perception (i.e. a black hole). An analogue relationship on the target side is helpful for theory-making in science. This is the first levels of analogical mapping for Gentner, the computational level. Analogy emerges via sensory perception. It only has to be consistent.

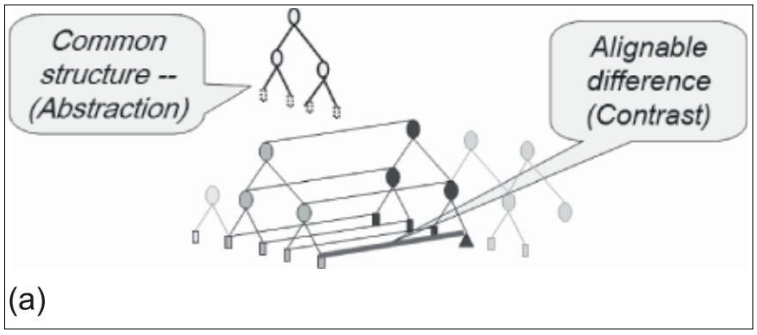

Fig. 1. The Computational Level (from Gentner & Christie 2010: 265

The second level involves phenomena where an isolated mapping is insufficient, thus alignable differences occur:„People prefer to map connected systems of relations governed by higher-order relations with inferential import, rather than isolated predicates" (1989: 201). The computational level is therefore a heuristic, fast procedure that can be subject to errors and false mappings, especially in texts where absolute scientific accuracy is secondary. This can be shown in an example of popular science writing from the SPACE corpus:

> 0055NS Most of the time, though, **chromosomes exist as long thin strands of more loosely wound DNA**. Until recently, their arrangement in the cell nucleus was seen as the random result of **their jumbling around together like lengths of string in a bag**. But recent work staining individual chromosomes with fluorescent tags has suggested they take up a highly complex but ordered architecture.

„Chromosomes are compared to *long*, *thin strands* of DNA which jumble around etc., which makes for a very systematic analogue, not a one-off mental image. Still, these analogues do not hold on closer inspection and are often superseded by better, more powerful analogues" (Haase 2016: 112).

Gentner captures the higher level as the so-called functional level in which the analogues even enable valid inferencing as the relationship holds beyond the mere visual or superficial:

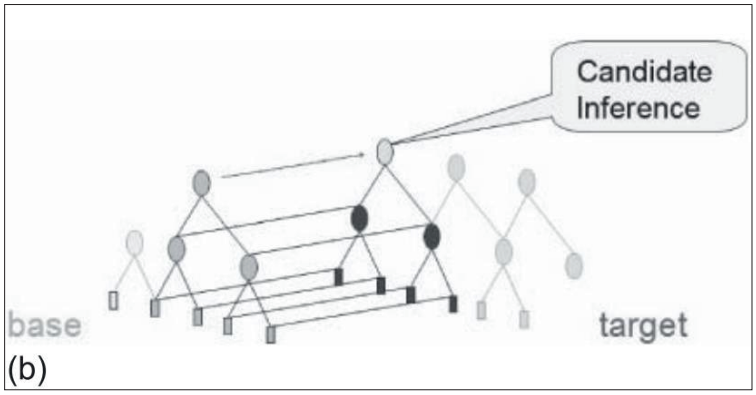

Fig. 2. The Functional Level (from Gentner & Christie 2010: 265)

Here, we find a high-resolution structural match in comparison with the computational level but the expertise of the author (and the audience) decide whether the analogies used are insightful as the academic content is not packaged up in the analogues themselves, it needs to be provided from the knowledge of the practitioners.

Data discussion

The corpus

The SPACE corpus was compiled for the interdomain comparison of at least two disciplines from the natural sciences and for the intergenre comparison of academic science English and popular-science English. A mid-size corpus (roughly 1.5 mio words) also has a component of one social science, psychology, and one applied science, medicine. The stratification of the corpus was achieved by sampling research articles (RA in the EAP literature) from preprint servers which are designed for fast-track publishing. For physics, this is *arXiv.org* (corpus code AX), for the biosciences the source are the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* (corpus code PN), which collects results of publicly funded research in the US. The psychology and medicine components were sampled from the Public Library of Medicine. All RAs are counterpositioned with versions and descriptions of the same research as composed by science journalists who popularize the original research by simplification and content reduction under copious use of analogues. The single source for the popular-science component of the corpus is the UK-based *New Scientist* (corpus code NS). The following table illustrates the parallelity even in titling (Table 2):

Tab. 2. Sample titles from the SPACE corpus (specialized and popular-science)

Code	Subcorpus	Title	Words
0008AX	ARXIV	*On the possibility of an astronomical detection of chromaticity effects in microlensing by wormhole-like objects*	4,272
0008NS	New Scientist	*Spot the stargate*	466
0009AX	ARXIV	*Cold Dark Matter from Dark Energy*	3,209
0009NS	New Scientist	*Darker and darker*	388
0010AX	ARXIV	*Dimming Supernovae without Cosmic Acceleration*	4,951
0010NS	New Scientist	*Go-faster universe may just be a trick*	315
0011AX	ARXIV	*Deuterium burning in Jupiter interior*	1,671
0011NS	New Scientist	*Twinkling planet*	129
0012AX	ARXIV	*Computing a Glimpse of Randomness*	6,164
0012NS	New Scientist	*Smash and grab*	1,740
0013AX	ARXIV	*Implications of Gauge Unification for Time Variation of the Fine Structure Constant*	5,277
0013NS	New Scientist	*Blinding flash*	2,026

On the quantitative side, the popular-science texts are much shorter which is to be expected as they operate with considerable content reduction, but they are also more diverse (with a factor of almost 16! between 0011NS and 0013NS for example) in length as they range from short info notes to full-length cover features. On the linguistic side, the authors of popular science use compression and simplification, but especially in the titles the use of analogues and metaphor is abundant: in the visual (*stargate*, *darker*, *twinkling*, *blinding flash*) and the functional (*spot*, *go-faster*, *smash and grab*)

For this study, a subset of 625,288 was considered for the distribution of to cause. This was a necessity to eliminate the subcorpora with the components of psychology and medicine as we wanted to establish cause-effect relationships in the natural-science sense.

Expected outcomes

As previously mentioned, the distributional features of causative verbs can be interesting for the representation of research results in academic writing as they are an unambiguous way to link causes to effects, which is the essence of scientific theory formation. The most unambiguous form is the verb *to cause* itself, although here, as is the case with all other causatives, mitigation can (and does) occur via hedge markers. We were interested, to what way the linked causes and effects also stand in an analogical relations to each other as this can illuminate the scientific thinking behind the wording and possible ways of optimization. In this respect, genre types are helpful as they operate with expectations on the shared knowledge between authors and audience. Thus, to establish acceptable and comprehensible analogical mappings can be interesting to establish conventions of academic genres in the sense of Swales (Swales 2011).

Expectations are as follows (see Haase 2016: 114):

– *cause* is dominant in the physical sciences compared with the biological sciences (discipline dominance)
– *cause* is dominant in academic science writing compared with popular science writing (genre/register dominance)

Causation is the standard assumption for uncovering a natural law, to be described mathematically, also for phenomena beyond observation (for example at the cosmological or the quantum level). For the biosciences, causation is more empirical as the processes in principle could be observed. Expected is therefore a dominance of *to cause* in the physical sciences. Further, from anecdotal evidence, popular-science writing often replaces causation with temporal correlation or temporal sequence (see Haase 2010a), thus an overall dominance of *to cause* in the specialized academic genres is expected.

Distributional features of *TO CAUSE*

To obtain a background of baseline data against which the distribution of *to cause* can be discussed, a number of external corpora have been queried. In EAP studies, specialized as well as standard corpora are used. Important academic corpora are for example the Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP)

and the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE). Standard corpora are the British National Corpus (BNC) for British English and the Contemporary Corpus of American English (COCA) for American English. In the standard corpora we can find subsets that have compiled academic English, albeit constrained in scope and actuality. In the specialized corpora, the physical science and biosciences subsets could be queried to obtain data comparable to those obtained from the SPACE corpus.

The complete paradigm of *TO CAUSE* in all queried corpora is shown below. All corpora are part-of-speech tagged so that false hits like nominal uses of *cause* could be eliminated as well as informal *'cause* from the spoken component. Both standard corpora were queried online. For the BNC the web interface BNC web was used, for MICUSP it was http://micase.elicorpora.info/. Given are figures for absolute frequency f_v and normalized frequency per million words.

Tab. 3. Distribution of *TO CAUSE* in standard and specialized corpora

Corpus	f_V	f_V per 10^6	Ac f_V	Ac f_V per 10^6
BNC	5,667	58.87	1,260	82.18
COCA	24,282	52.29	5,574	61.21
MICUSP (phys & bio)	1,061	204.04		
SPACE	215	343.84		

In all corpora, the total frequencies and the relative frequencies (per 1 mio words) for the entire paradigm of *TO CAUSE* are displayed. This is also shown for the components of the standard corpora BNC and COCA in their academic subcorpora (in the last two columns). MICUSP and SPACE are corpora of academic texts thus the results there compare to the last two columns. At a glance, the figures are considerably diverse with the BNC at the minimum end overall and also British academic English seems to be at least the second lowest. Surprisingly, COCA shows an even lower academic frequency of 61.21. There is a large difference between the BNC and SPACE: 60 mio overall and only 82 per mio for the academic subcorpora in comparison to 344 per mio words. A possible reason for this is the disciplinary nature of the so-called academic texts compiled in the BNC. They do not include natural sciences but texts from political science and law texts. The total frequency in the BNC is relatively low frequency with 5,667 occurrences absolute. SPACE and MICUSP share approximately the same range of frequency. Still, SPACE leads the cohort by a factor of 1.5. A possible reason for this may be that in MICUSP, intermediate and upper intermediate student papers are compiled (see Römer & Swales 2010) and it was hypothesized elsewhere that popular science writing has much in common with novice academic writing, especially in terms of hedging. Apparently, unambiguous and unmitigated causation without the safety net of hedge expressions is used rarely by novice student writers (see Haase 2014).

Looking at the detailed distribution we can attest a diverse spread of the use of *TO CAUSE* where science disciplines are concerned. In the physics subcorpus in MICUSP we find roughly 200 occurrences per mio words but the bioscience subcorpus shows approximately 260 occurrences.

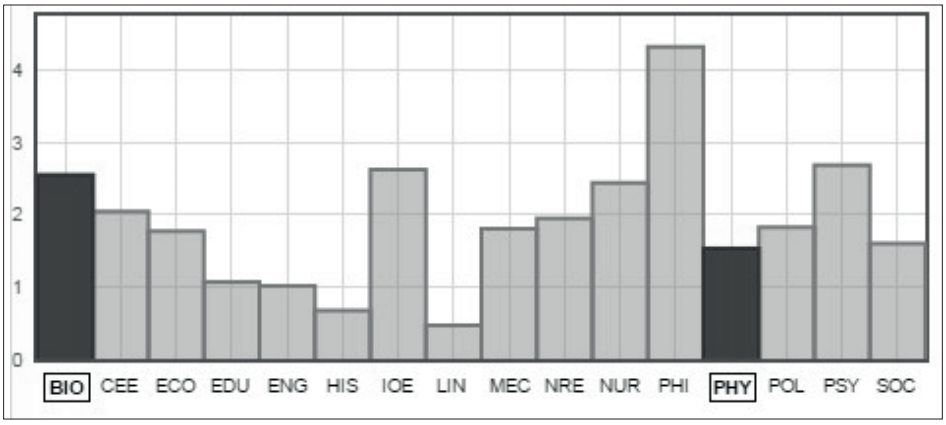

Fig. 3. MICUSP proportional distribution of CAUSE in biology and physics (generated with http://micase.elicorpora.info/) (adapted from Haase 2015)

Highlighted shown are the bioscience (BIO) and the physics (PHY) subcorpora in MICUSP. It is interesting to see for linguists that linguistics (LIN) has the overall lowest indication of direct causation (40 per mio) and philosophy (PHI) the highest with more than 10 times the amount of linguistics.

In the SPACE corpus, two disciplinary subcorpora diversify these results even more. A part of the answer is that the popular-science texts which exist for both disciplines, are to be recognized as well. As mentioned above, novice writing and popular-science writing share some linguistic traits. The extremely low results for direct causation in the popular subcorpora can be consulted in Figure 4:

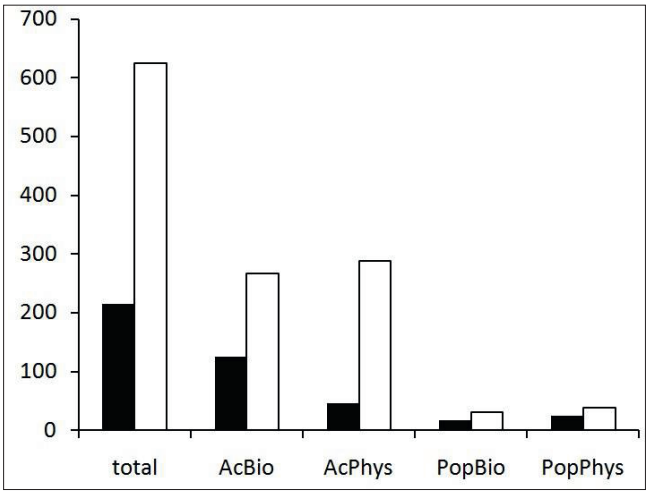

Fig. 4. *TO CAUSE* in all subcorpora of the SPACE corpus

The graph compares the total corpus size (unfilled bars) with the total numbers queried. The total number was subdivided by 1,000 for comparative reasons. It enables us to assess the proportion of direct causation in the subcorpora

AcBio for specialized bioscience RAs, AcPhys for specialized physics RAs, PopBio for popular-science articles in bioscience and PopPhys for popular physics. This shows the larger size of the specialized subcorpora comprised of published RAs. All popular-science variants are much smaller in size. Obvious are the low counts for both popular-science subcorpora, however, these are absolute numbers, to be considered in relation. This offers surprising results later. In numbers we can see this better in Table 4:

Tab. 4. Diversified verbal use of direct causation in all SPACE subcorpora

Tag	AcBio	AcPhys	PopBio	PopPhys	total
f_V per 10^6	471.94	159.25	578.31	652.42	343.84

In Table 4, all results have been normalized to per 1 mio words. Unexpectedly, the probably most exact science, physics, has not the highest indication of direct causation. With 159 per 1 mio words it has actually the lowest. This comes as a surprise as the counterpart to the academic subcorpus, popular-science physics (PopPhys), has the highest of all subcorpora (652 per 1 mio words). Also, popular bioscience is a close second with 578 per 1 mio words, and at least in the same range follows academic bioscience with 472. As can be seen, the popular subcorpora both have a higher use of direct causation than the specialized 'real science' subcorpora. This is matched by an identical ranking of the disciplines in the MICUSP results. A number of reasons can be assumed to be responsible. First, based on impressionistic data, popular-science writing is hedged and vague. After all, the science journalists have not carried out the research themselves, thus they tendentially would be cautious to use absolute statements (such as direct causation, which is a strong statement). However, in Haase (2010b) we could show that the expected use of hedge expressions and perceived vagueness as to how strongly the authors commit themselves to research results was weaker with all researchers and academic authors of RAs. On the other hand, popular-science authors have considerable distance to the actual research, a distance which leads to a propensity to simplify and assume truth where half-truth would be appropriate. A researcher is more aware of parameters influencing the results and would shy away from easy simplification and result emphasis. For example in titling, we see a difference between the RA 'Increased competition may promote species coexistence' (corpus code 0068PN) from specialized bioscience and its popular-science counterpart 'Pushy beasts get more neighbours' (corpus code 0068NS). The original statement is hedged ('may') and theoretical ('increased competition' between 'species' who are in 'coexistence'). The popular-science article provides an unmitigated link between the 'pushy beasts' and their getting of 'more neighbours.' In fact, the popular-science title replicates the original title beat for beat, albeit minus the hedging and by using analogues. A closer disciplinary look reveals the differences in use. First, we compare specialized bioscience and specialized physics. The quantitative difference is large: 471.94 per 1 mio compared with 159.25.

subcorpus AcBio

0065PN Increasing plant diversity beginning in the Silurian (425 million years ago) led to increasing weathering of rocks that had two effects: atmospheric CO2 levels decreased, **causing** a decrease in carbon isotope fractionation in marine deposits;

subcorpus AcPhys

0004AX the number of systems that change from sA = +1 to sA = -1 is unequal to the number that change from sA = -1 to sA = +1, **causing** an imbalance that changes the outcome ratios at A. In other words, in general the statistical distribution of outcomes at A is altered by the distant shift.

Both uses use direct causation for quantities and could be interchangeable, especially the physics sample is free of any domain attribution (physical, biological, or otherwise). Both are unhedged but also both are 'mathematical' so hedging would be actually incorrect. Conversely, if we consider only the popular-science subcorpora, which are more similar in quantities (popular bioscience 578.31 per mio words compared with 652.42 for popular physics) we find typical features of articles written for popular science journals.

Popular biosciences

0071NS The actively dividing cells that patch up the damage extract important spatial information from the electric field. It **causes** them to divide along the plane perpendicular to the field, pushing new cells into the wound.

Popular physics

0028NS Ripples in the fabric of space-time **caused** by cataclysmic events deep within our Galaxy may have been picked up on Earth. If the results are confirmed, it will give astronomers an entirely new way to look at the Universe.

In both samples, the direct causation refers to real, nonabstract occurrences, as in the specified samples, both are unhedged. In combination of both popular-science subcorpora, the single most revealing data point of this study is that poplar-science uses more direct causation than researchers use in their RAs, in fact almost twice as much: 615.35 per mio words compared with only 315.59 for specialized academic writing:

Tab. 5. Direct causation in all subcorpora of the SPACE corpus

Genre/Discipline	Biosciences	Physics	Total
Popular	578.31	652.42	615.35
Academic	471.94	159.25	315.59
f_v per 10^6	525.12	392.33	343.84

This is contrary to the expectation that direct causation would dominate specialized academic publishing and popular-science would take less direct options like temporal sequence to show relationships. In both subcorpora, the specialized academic RAs are outnumbered by popular science texts. A possible reason is also that academic science has high lexical diversification when it comes to describing processes – lexical material not at the disposal of popular-science authors who need to keep in accordance with genre requirements that do not allow too-specific terminology for a general-interest, layperson readership.

Direct causation and analogical mapping

The direct causation, as expressed in the X CAUSE Y relationship, links causes X and effects Y. These elements can be attributed to different semantic domains so that the proposed inter-domain mapping can be investigated. As the samples above have shown, the domains can be abstract or concrete, with the canonical mapping occurring from concrete to abstract, which facilitates cognitive processing and enables further insight. For this end, an ontology of mapping types has been created (see also Haase 2010b, 2017fc.), as follows:

Tab. 6. Analogical mapping domain ontology (developed from Haase 2010b)

Domain cause	Domain effect	Type
concrete-specific	concrete-specific	A
concrete-specific	concrete-general	B
concrete-general	concrete-general	C
concrete-general	concrete-specific	D
abstract-specific	abstract-specific	E
abstract-specific	abstract-general	F
abstract-general	abstract-general	G
abstract-general	abstract-specific	H

The table shows cause and effect domains and their direction. For example the use of cause in NS0028 is to be assigned type A as both cause and effect are concrete physical events. It is expected to be a feature of popular-science writing to operate with less abstract directions of mappings, unlike the specialized sciences. But as table 7 for popular bioscience shows, the assignment can be more diversified:

Tab. 7. PopBio domains in *CAUSED* collocations (active and passive) and mapping types

Domain cause	Domain effect	Type
blow	*injury*	B
pollution	*dead zone*	B
high blood pressure	*disease*	F
shrinkage	*fall in cell number*	D
greenhouse effect	*mass extinction*	E
pathogen	*endemic*	C
diarrhoea	*dehydration*	C
heatwave	*deaths*	A

As expected, the mapping types concern mainly concrete causes and effects, often both are specific, which means restricted to the discussed relationship (like *heatwave* and *deaths*, which refers to a concrete event) but also more generic sources like *greenhouse effect* may precipitate a concrete effect (*mass extinction*) or exactly the other way around, a concrete cause (*blow*) is followed by *injury*, a more generic effect.

In specialized bioscience, both directions exist as well (from concrete *fragment release* to generic *treatment effects*. The most generic effect here are *findings*.

Tab. 8. AcBio domains in *CAUSED* collocations (active and passive) and mapping types

Domain cause	Domain effect	Type
fragment release	*treatment effects*	C
oxygen release	*mitochondrial decay*	B
blade	*amber split*	A
pain	*activity decline*	H
ROS formation	*finding*	F
ALCARLA addition	*oxidant decline*	B
replenishment	*potential reversal*	C
oxidative stress	*ALCARLA levels*	D

In a direct comparison, both profiles show a number of marked differences, but it seems clear that a formalized classification and attribution is problematic. Causes may look generic, but can be in reference to previous research, or be made specific in other parts of the same text. Especially popular-science writing blurs the differences, often because the authors see only a small part of the 'big picture.' For a comprehensive view on these issues, a larger quantitative assessment is needed (and partly attempted in Haase 2017fc.). So far, the observations, although anecdotal, show the relevance of analogue mapping and its prevalence in direct causation. It would be helpful to include strategies of systematic mapping in academic writing curricula design. Further, the genre requirements may have to be amended by including a catalogue of possible mappings under the suggestion to exclude 'impossible' ones.

Conclusions

In this study, two relevant and attestably present strategies of academic writing were investigated. These are ways of grammaticalizing cause-effect relationships on the example of direct causation in the use of the causative verb *TO CAUSE*. The other is the ability to create and understand analogies, a genre requirement in academic texts that relates knowledge of authors and their readership in appropriate ways. Derived from this, a genre- and readership-specific use of these two strategies was hypothesized. In all corpora investigated, a diversity of use of threes strategies could be found. This seems to be the case not only for different science disciplines (in our case the physical sciences and biosciences), but also on different levels of academic proficiency, specialized writing in research articles and popular-science writing. The single most important result that could be obtained was a marked genre difference. For standard corpora, low results probably as a consequence of unstratified sampling could be attested, especially striking for the British National Corpus, which apparently has no proper science subcorpus. More interesting results could be obtained from the SPACE corpus which specializes in academic texts. Here, science disciplines, as well as levels of academic proficiency, show a diverse and interesting, subcorpus-specific use of these strategies. In conclusion, causality and analogical mapping were found in all genres of academic writing albeit in different quantities. This leads the way to a more

comprehensive quantitative assessment of these strategies in future studies, partly attempted in Haase (2016), which is based on the same data, and considerably extended in Haase (2017fc.). Finally, a systematic application of these strategies may be a helpful inclusion in EAP instruction courses.

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Analogiczne odwzorowania domen w reprezentacjach PRZYCZYNA-SKUTEK. Porównanie tekstów naukowych różnych typów

Streszczenie

Artykuł analizuje użycie dwóch częstych środków wyrazu, tj. analogii i przyczynowości, w oparciu o konstrukcje typu PRZYCZYNA-SKUTEK. Relacja między tym, co powoduje, a tym, co jest powodowane, jest definiowana jako relacja analogiczna, co wyjaśnia podstawowe zasady tworzenia analogii w tekście naukowym, szczególnie w wypadku nauk przyrodniczych. Powstaje pytanie, jak analogowe przedstawienie wyników badań wpłynie na adekwatność badań. Baza danych to średniej wielkości korpus obejmujący teksty należące do dziedziny nauk przyrodniczych. Artykuły naukowe dotyczące nauk ścisłych zostały zestawione z tekstami popularnonaukowymi. Takie porównanie pokazuje ilościowe i jakościowe różnice dotyczące dystrybucji i gatunku tekstu.

Słowa kluczowe: analogia, przyczynowość, kauzatywność, językoznawstwo korpusowe, tekst naukowy, English for Academic Purposes

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Rafał Krzysztof Matusiak
Independent Scholar

(Un)readability of legal English on the basis of the UK Public General Acts enacted in 2013

Introduction

UK Public General Acts are universally binding, however, they are not universally understood. Legalese is a language in which solely people who received legal training are fluent. Billings Learned Hand, a United States judge, maintained that „the language of law must not be foreign to the ears of those who are to obey it" (Crystal & Crystal 2000: 266), otherwise a paradox arises: on the one hand, law is binding *erga omes*, and its ignorance is no defense, on the other hand, law is still secret knowledge accessible only to the initiated lawyers, and legal acts seem for the majority of society to be written in cipher.

This *status quo* is in contradiction with one of the fundamental principles of communication theory, which says that effective communication requires a message to be formulated in a code that can be easily decoded by the addressee. What is more, the unreadability of legal language might seem to be unethical; it might be well to consider whether a blind man who did not read a warning board should be penalized for trespassing to land or a deaf man may be punished for not executing an oral order. Despite having all five senses working well, many people feel to be deaf or blind when they appear before Themis or when they have a legal document before their eyes.

An attempt to change this *status paradoxus* was made by the advocates of the Plain English Campaign, who defined plain English principles, which, when followed, allow to eradicate completely or restrict the use of those features of legal discourse that hinder readers from comprehending the text. One of those principles is to avoid sentences that are too lengthy.[1]

The research objective of this paper is to scrutinize the problem of the comprehensibility of legal English, which is inextricably linked with the sentence (Gotti 2008). The readability index will be calculated to show how many years of *formal education* the reader should complete to thoroughly comprehend the text. The Gunning fog index has been chosen as it seems to be the most widespread.

[1] Other principles of plain English drafting apply to favouring informal language, avoiding redundancy, reducing the use of passive voice, limiting nominalization, replacing the modal verb *shall* with *must*, constraining the use of archaisms and Latin expressions, employing verbs in the indicative mood if possible etc. (*cf.* Tozzi 2000: 214–220; Tessuto 2008: 2).

The corpus examined in the present paper has been formed of the texts of all UK Public General Acts enacted in 2013. Thus, two criteria in selecting the corpus have been applied. The first one is the type of legislation (UK Public General Acts) and the second one refers to the time of adoption (2013).[2] All acts have been downloaded from an official Internet source of UK legislation, available under the following Internet address: www.legislation.gov.uk. This website is administered by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, a part of the National Archives, which is an executive agency of the Ministry of Justice.

In conclusion, the corpus included herein is written, specialized, full-text, synchronic, monolingual, and created by native speakers. The corpus is monolingual as it embraces texts only in English. It consists of the written full-text UK Public General Acts produced undoubtedly by native-speakers of English. Because of the fact that the corpus includes legal acts, it belongs to the specialized corpora. It is synchronic, since it includes acts enacted solely in 2013.

The present corpus is a computerized collection of UK Public General Acts. The digitized acts have been downloaded in a PDF format, however, they have been converted into a DOC format in order to make use of TextSTAT, which is a text analysis tool created by the Dutch Linguists working at the Free University of Berlin.

The corpus of the UK Public General Acts contains statutes of various length. The briefest statute (*European Union (Approvals) Act 2013*) comprises 388 running words, and the most extensive act (*the Finance Act 2013*) includes 255 551 running words. The whole corpus contains 891 652 running words.

Taking into account the number of about 900 000 running words, the corpus is not very large. Nevertheless, the corpus is complete and has a closed character as it contains all UK Public General Acts passed in 2013. In spite of the fact that the corpus is medium-sized, it is still impracticable to analyze each and every long sentence that appears in the whole corpus of thirty one acts. As a result, a qualitative

[2] Public General Acts occupy a high position in the hierarchy of legal acts since they 'have general applicability and make no reference to a particular locality or to named persons or specified land' (Denyer-Green 2013: 16). The UK Public General Acts from 2013 refer to miscellaneous legal branches and regulate many aspects of British people's lives, as well as the UK authorities' actions. In 2013, the fifty-fifth Parliament of the United Kingdom passed some acts which seem to be revolutionary from the social point of view, e.g. *the Marriage (Same Sex Couples) Act 2013*, which makes England and Wales the tenth country in Europe to legally recognize same-sex marriages, or *the Succession to the Crown Act 2013*, whereby the succession to the Crown will not be dependent on gender any more, as well as an heir will no longer be disqualified from succeeding to the Throne if he/she marries a Roman Catholic. *The Succession to the Crown Act 2013* repealed *the Royal Marriages Act 1772* and the sovereign's consent to marry will be required solely with reference to the first six successors in line to the Throne. In turn, *Statute Law (Repeals) Act 2013* is the most extensive *Statute Law (Repeals) Act* which has ever been enacted; it abolishes 817 Acts of Parliament as a whole and 50 others in part (the Law Commission, 2012). The earliest repeal is from around 1322 (*Statutes of the Exchequer*) and the latest is part of *the Taxation (International and Other Provisions) Act 2010*' (*ibid.*). There are some acts which regulate British international relations as well, e.g. *European Union (Croatian Accession and Irish Protocol) Act 2013*, *European Union (Approvals) Act 2013*, and *Antarctic Act 2013.*

criterion will be adopted rather than a quantitative one and solely the most salient examples will be presented.

Corpus analysis

Sanburg (in Makodia 2007: 3) provides an illustrative example of the abstruseness of legal language. He *translated* the first line *Jack and Jill went up the hill* from a popular hunting nursery rhyme into the legalese:

> The party of the first part hereinafter known as Jack
> And the party of the second part hereinafter known as Jill
> Ascended or caused to be ascended
> An elevation undermined height and degree of slope
> Hereinafter referred to as hill.

The sentence length is probably the first thing that captures the reader's attention in the excerpt quoted above. The first verse of *Jack and Jill* has only 7 words, while Sanburg's legal adaptation amounts to as many as 40 lexical items. Moreover, long sentences are typical of written specialized discourse, and legal language is one of its varieties.

According to Barber (1985), the average sentence length in specialized texts fluctuates around 27.6 words. This factor soars when it refers to legal discourse. It is doubled (around 55 words) in Gustafsson's (1975) analysis of the British Courts Acts of 1971. Hiltunen (2001) estimates the mean sentence length in his legal corpus at 45 words. Thus, the average sentence length decreased by 10 words within a quarter of a century. This conclusion was proved by Kurzon (1997), who conducted a meticulous research on the sentence length in British legislation enacted in the years 1970-1990. The research revealed that the mean sentence length continuously decreased, and it amounted to about 93 words per sentence in 1970, 45 in 1980, and 37 in 1990. Nevertheless, sentences that consist of 37 words are still considered to be too lengthy since the Plain English guidelines suggest not writing more than 25 words per sentence (cf. Greene 2013, Kara 2012).

The reason for avoiding long sentences is the fact that they more often than not include complex syntax, which makes them difficult to parse. Rylance (2012: 15) provides the following example:

> An order for an interim payment may be made, provided the District Judge is satisfied that the defendant has admitted liability, or that the claimant has already obtained judgment with damages to be assessed, or that if the action went to trial, the claimant would be awarded, after deduction of any contribution likely for contributory negligence, 'substantial' damages, and in the present case £50, 000 is likely to be regarded as 'substantial', under CPR r. 25.7.

Rylance compares the sentence quoted above to a Russian doll, because one sentence actually contains a few shorter sentences (subordinate clauses) separated with commas. These 'sentences within a sentence' hinder the reader from following the text easily as the reader has to bear in mind the information from each separate clause in order to establish the meaning of the whole sentence (Rylance 2012: 15). Nevertheless, it is not advisable to go from one extreme to the other and

replace all compound sentences with simple ones, as „such writing would appear childish and pedestrian" (Rylance 2012: 16). Rylance gives the following remedy:

> A District Judge may make an order for an interim payment under CPR r. 25.7. He may do so provided the claimant satisfies him that the defendant has admitted liability, or that the claimant has already obtained judgment with damages to be assessed, or that if the action went to trial, the claimant would be awarded (after deduction of any contribution likely for contributory negligence) 'substantial' damages. In the present case he is likely to regard £50, 000 as 'substantial' (p.16).

He divides the original sentence into three, of which the first and the second are very short so as to mitigate the effect of a long sentence between them.

Thus, the direct link between sentence length and unreadability can be revealed. On the one hand, „the more words a sentence has, the harder it is to read and understand" (de Vries 1994: 100). On the other hand, „the more words a sentence has, the more formal it sounds" (Higbie & Thinsan 2003: 14). Similarly to Lady Justice balancing man's guilt on the scales, the lawmaker must weigh not only the meaning of words used in legislative acts, but also their quantity per sentence. Therefore, legislator's onus is to attain the balance between formality and readability.

Lengthy sentences constitute a rule rather than an exception, which is illustrated by Table 1.

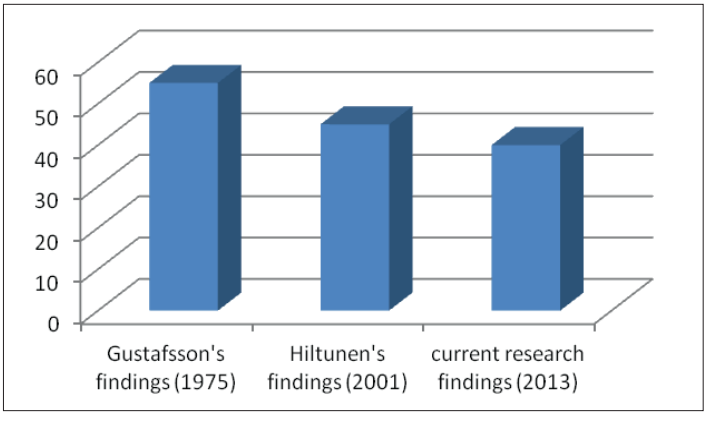
Tab. 1. The average sentence length in the UK Public General Acts enacted in 2013

Name Of Uk General Public Act	Average Sentence Length In Words
Trusts (Capital and Income) Act 2013	45.65
Statute Law (Repeals) Act 2013	47.75
Prevention of Social Housing Fraud Act 2013	39.90
Disabled Persons' Parking Badges Act 2013	37.22
European Union (Croatian Accession and Irish Protocol) Act 2013	62.70
Electoral Registration and Administration Act 2013	45.99
HGV Road User Levy Act 2013	38.41
Mental Health (Discrimination) Act 2013	26.76
European Union (Approvals) Act 2013	38.81
Scrap Metal Dealers Act 2013	33.14
Prisons (Property) Act 2013	38.70
Supply and Appropriation (Anticipation and Adjustments) Act 2013	38.76
Presumption of Death Act 2013	31.12
Mobile Homes Act 2013	40.50
Antarctic Act 2013	37.9
Welfare Benefits Up-rating Act 2013	57.28
Jobseekers (Back to Work Schemes) Act 2013	46.12
Justice and Security Act 2013	45.74
Groceries Code Adjudicator Act 2013	28.37
Succession to the Crown Act 2013	35.24
Partnerships (Prosecution) (Scotland) Act 2013	30.16
Crime and Courts Act 2013	43.74
Marine Navigation Act 2013	37.85
Enterprise and Regulatory Reform Act 2013	35.23

Public Service Pensions Act 2013	36.46
Defamation Act 2013	33.19
Growth and Infrastructure Act 2013	43.88
Supply and Appropriation (Main Estimates) Act 2013	28.07
Finance Act 2013	35.84
Marriage (Same Sex Couples) Act 2013	44.68
High Speed Rail (Preparation) Act 2013	36.15
Energy Act 2013	52.40
Financial Services (Banking Reform) Act 2013	46.97
THE WHOLE CORPUS	40.02

The UK Public Acts passed in 2013 reveal vast differences in the average sentence length. The longest sentences, with an average of 62.70 words per sentence, are found in *European Union (Croatian Accession and Irish Protocol) Act 2013*, whereas the lowest average sentence length is calculated in *Mental Health (Discrimination) Act 2013*, where on average sentences contain fewer than 27 words each. The average sentence length of the whole corpus amounts to 40.02 words per sentence. Thus, the average sentence length in UK Public Acts enacted in 2013 is 12.42 words higher than the average estimated for specialized texts by Barber (1985). However, this result proves a well-known fact that legal discourse is marked by the lengthiest sentences of all specialized discourses. When taking into account the findings by Gustafsson (1975) and Hiltunen (2001), the results herein obtained are also in accordance with a general tendency of legal English to decrease the number of words per sentence.

Fig. 1. The comparison of the findings on sentence length achieved by Gustafsson (1975), Hiltunen (2001), and the present study (2013)



The more words a sentence includes, the more arduous it is to read. In lengthy sentences, the subject is often a multi-word constituent and the predicate might be separated from the subject by additional clauses, e.g.

> Any reasonable costs incurred by the individual in obtaining the advice (whether or not the individual becomes an employee shareholder) which would, but for this subsection, have to be met by the individual, are instead to be met by the company (*Growth and Infrastructure Act 2013*, *c. 27*).

The above-quoted sentence contains 41 words, that is to say, it might serve as a typical sentence of the analyzed corpus as it is close to an average sentence length of 40.02 words per sentence. The subject of the sentence is an eleven-word-long noun phrase (*Any reasonable costs incurred by the individual in obtaining the advice*), followed by a parenthetic clause (*whether or not the individual becomes an employee shareholder*). The relative clause that comes after (*which would have to be met by the individual*) is a restrictive clause since no comma is used before the pronoun *which*, thereby the meaning of the preceding noun *advice* is limited. The relative clause is 'bisected' by a *but-for* clause (*but for this subsection*). The *but-for* clause is indeed a conditional clause which introduces the *sine qua non* formula used to investigate causation in the law (Schulz 2006: 332). As a result, the appearance of the predicate (*are instead to be met by the company*) is 'impeded' by 33 words in the given sentence.

It is possible to make the sentence cited above more reader-friendly by applying some plain English rules:

> The company must cover the reasonable costs that the individual, apart from this subsection, paid to get the advice. He must not become an employee shareholder.

The passage translated into plain English contains about 37 per cent of words fewer than the original in legalese (26 : 41 words) and it includes two shorter sentences rather than one long. The passive voice has been avoided. As Plain English dictionaries suggest, the *but-for* clause has been replaced by the expression *apart from this subsection*, thereby refraining from introducing a conditional clause. The repeated noun *the individual* has been substituted by the personal pronoun *he* in order to avoid repetition and make the text less impersonal. It has used the finite verb *pay* in place of the participle *incurred*. Finally, the verb *obtain* has been replaced by more informal-sounding *get*.

Long sentences have a great impact on the readability of a text. The average sentence length appears one of the quantities in most algorithms for calculating the readability index.[3] It is also used in the Gunning fog index, which informs *how many years of formal education* the reader would need to fully understand the text. The Gunning fog index was invented by a mathematician Robert Gunning in 1952 and it is calculated *according* to the following equation (cf. Byrne 2006; Mall 2009):

the Gunning fog index = 0.4 x [(words/sentences) + 100 (three or more syllable words/words)]

Let us compute the Gunning fog index of the two subsections (7C and 7D) excerpted from *Crime and Courts Act 2013:*

> (7C) Where a child has been remanded to youth detention accommodation, the court — (a) which remanded the child, or (b) to which the child was remanded, may designate a local authority („B") as the designated authority for the child in substitution for the authority previously designated (whether that previous designation was made when the child was remanded or under this subsection).

[3] The Gunning fog index, the Dale-Chall readability formula, the Flesch reading ease formula, the Flesch-Kincaid grade level formula, McLaughlin's SMOG formula, the Fry readability graph, to name just a few.

(7D) Where a child has at any one time been subject to two or more remands to youth detention accommodation, a court which has jurisdiction to make a replacement designation under subsection (7C) in connection with one or some of the remands also has jurisdiction to make such a replacement designation in connection with each of the other remands (*Crime and Courts Act 2013, c. 22*).

The passage above contains as many as 124 words, but it is actually composed of as few as two sentences. Therefore, its Gunning fog index is extremely high and reaches 17.68, which means that solely native speakers with a master's degree would be able to understand the text entirely. The two extracts (7C and 7D) will be rewritten by applying six shorter sentences instead of two longer ones:[4]

(7C) Where a child has been remanded to youth detention accommodation, the court may designate a local authority. This refers to the court (a) which remanded the child, or (b) to which the child was remanded. („B") A local authority functions as the designated authority for the child in substitution for the authority previously designated. Even if that previous designation was made when the child was remanded or under this subsection.

(7D) Where a child has at any one time been subject to two or more remands to youth detention accommodation, a court also has jurisdiction to make such a replacement designation in connection with each of the other remands. This refers to the court which has jurisdiction to make a replacement designation under subsection (7C) in connection with one or some of the remands.

The readability index decreases by around 20% and equals 14.15, that is to say, the rewritten text would be readable for any secondary school graduate. However, the sentence length is not the only factor that influences the readability of a text. The second quantity in the Gunning fog algorithm is the proportion of three or more syllable words to all the words. Let us replace some multisyllabic terms with mono- and disyllabic words.

(7C) Where a child has been **sent** to youth detention **center**, the court may **appoint** a local **unit**. This refers to the court (a) which **sent** the child, or (b) to which the child was **sent**. („B") A local **unit** functions as the **appointed unit** for the child **instead** of the **unit appointed before**. Even if that **earlier** appointment was made when the child was **sent** or under this subsection.

(7D) Where a child has at any one time been subject to two or more remands to youth detention **center**, a court also has **the right and power** to make such a replacement appointment **about** each of the other remands. This refers to the court which has **the right and power** to make a replacement appointment under subsection (7C) **about** one or some of the remands.

When using mono- and disyllabic words (bolded above) in substitution for multisyllabic terms, the readability index lowers by another 31% and it amounts to 9.74. Thus, the revised passage would be easy to read for any child who has had almost ten years of schooling.

[4] All extracts rewritten in plain English are self-adapted.

Concluding remarks

The language of the UK Public General Acts enacted in 2013 is not as unreadable as it may seem. The advocates of plain English campaign suggest limiting the use of the passive voice, nominalizations, repetitions, binomials and conditional clauses, yet these do not always directly increase the unreadability of the legalese. The application of those linguistic devices can exert a positive impact on the legal text. Both the passive voice and nominalization de-emphasize the agent and emphasize the action, which may make the sentence all-applicable. Besides, by using nominalized verbs, a mine of information can be compressed into a single sentence. Meanwhile, the use of repetitions and binomials reduces ambiguity, which should be avoided in legal acts. When it comes to the high incidence of conditional clauses in legal texts, conditional sentences express factual and hypothetical legal events and their consequences, which is characteristic of legal texts of any kind.

Here the question arises why the Gunning fog index of the UK Public General Acts passed in 2013 is so high (17.68) if the application of the features mentioned above can be entirely justified by the specificity and requirements of the law, while the use of others, such as archaisms and Latin expressions, has been limited.[5] The answer is that neither of those legal features influences the readability of a text directly. The only two factors that are taken into account when computing the readability index are the average sentence length and the percentage of tri- and multisyllabic words in the sample of one hundred words as a minimum.

The longer the sentence is, the less readable it becomes. The present material with the average of 40.02 words per sentence is an arduous reading. Even if we assume that a one-hundred-word excerpt would contain as little as one three or more syllable word, its Gunning fog index would still amount to over 16, that is to say, the reader should have at least sixteen years' schooling in order to understand the text entirely. Nevertheless, the average sentence length in the corpus of the UK Public General Acts passed in 2013 is lower in comparison with the results achieved by Gustafsson (1975) and Hiltunen (2001). Thus, it may be concluded that the present-day acts are more readable than those enacted only a few decades ago.

There is no direct correlation between the number of syllables in a word and its readability. The fact that a word contains more than two syllables is not tantamount to its unreadability, quite the opposite, a short word may turn out to be less lucid than a long one, e.g. one-syllable *lien* vs. three-syllable *difficult.* Thus, it is not the word length but the specialized meaning that makes it burdensome to

[5] The issue of the use of archaisms and Latin expressions goes beyond the scope of the present paper, however, it was discussed in the present author's unpublished MA dissertation. The corpus of the UK Public General Acts from 2013 does not include a single instance of a Latin phrase or maxims, which has a positive impact on the readability of the text. With respect to the archaic features, the use of the subjunctive mood and some deictic compound adverbs has been detected. Archaic adverbs occur only 17 times in the whole corpus. Similarly, the forms of the subjunctive mood are not numerous either and they can be found mainly in the antiquated preamble to the acts enacted by the sovereign of the United Kingdom.

the reader. Similarly to all specialized jargons, the legal vocabulary, no matter how many syllables it contains, is always a tough nut to crack if one is not a lawyer.

Since the above paragraph ends with a food metaphor, that thread will be continued. Legal drafting could be compared to cooking an exquisite dish. Legal draftsmen, like chefs, should take great precautions when adding elements/ingredients into a sentence/pot. Both must add them in the right order and proportion, otherwise an elaborate dish might become a huge bland mushy pulp in which none of the ingredients can be perceived, either with eyes or taste buds. Similarly, a sentence may turn into a gibberish-like sequence of words which hardly anyone would intellectually digest. Dakowska (2008: 127) states that discourse cannot be 'indigestible' or else communication does not occur. Is there any recipe to make legal drafting more digestible? The gourmets of the plain English campaign propose to serve the *legalese à la plain*, that is to say, with a slight portion of the passive voice and nominalizations. This dish is archaism-free and there is no Latin sprinkle on the top. Instead of spaghetti-length sentences, *legalese à la plain* includes only small chunks of text which are more easily chewable and digestible for stomachs of every man on the Clapham omnibus, not only for lawyers' gastrointestinal tracts.

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(Nie)czytelność angielskiego języka prawnego na podstawie ustaw ogólnych Zjednoczonego Królestwa Wielkiej Brytanii i Irlandii Północnej wydanych w 2013 roku

Streszczenie

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest omówienie czytelności angielskiego języka prawnego (*legal English*) na materiale ustaw ogólnych Zjednoczonego Królestwa Wielkiej Brytanii i Irlandii Północnej (*UK Public General Acts*) uchwalonych przez brytyjski parlament w 2013 r. Korpus zawiera pełne teksty wszystkich trzydziestu trzech *UK Public General Acts* wydanych w 2013 r., które liczą łącznie około 900 000 słów. Analiza korpusu wykazała, że pomimo upływu blisko czterech dekad od zainaugurowania ruchu *Plain English Campain*, ustawy ogólne Zjednoczonego Królestwa Wielkiej Brytanii i Irlandii Północnej wydane w 2013 r. charakteryzują się w dalszym ciągu dość wysokim indeksem czytelności, niemniej jednak można dostrzec pewne uproszczenia w warstwie językowej w analizowanym materiale.

Słowa kluczowe: angielski język prawny, plain English, czytelność, długość zdań

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Anna Ścibior-Gajewska, Joanna Podhorodecka
Pedagogical University of Cracow

Tracking our students: ability grouping in the Practical Grammar class

Introduction

In their first year at the university, students of English attend a course in Practical Grammar. Unlike other courses, this one to a large extent relies on the knowledge students bring with them to the university. Obviously, their level of grammatical competence varies, which often makes running the advanced grammar course difficult. Nevertheless, all students must be able to start the course (at the level of FCE at least); they must be able to understand the teacher and the coursebook, and to talk about grammar in class; but most importantly, they must complete the course with an exam. However, as any other tertiary education institution, we face a situation when our first year students come from different schools and different regions, have passed their school-leaving exam in English at different levels and with different results, have or have not received an adequate amount of grammatical instruction at school, and may or may not be familiar with the basic grammatical terminology. These factors produce a group which is far from homogeneous, therefore it may seem reasonable to introduce ability grouping of students for this course. After an initial placement test, students could be assigned to groups according to their results, and the course would be conducted at two levels of advancement, perhaps even following different coursebooks. However, this solution raises a number of objections. First of all, at the end of the first year all students must take the same exam. Secondly, over decades ability grouping and tracking have been criticised as unjust and biased, and – most of all – blamed for causing stereotypical labelling, which endangers students' educational career development. Still, we would like to consider whether in this particular situation the benefits could possibly outweigh the risks.

The problems we have observed over the years of teaching[1] the first year courses are as follows:

- not all students can follow the course of instruction provided,
- the teachers cannot run the classes at a uniform level,

[1] The authors have a 16-year experience in teaching practical and descriptive grammar of English at university level.

- the teachers have to decide whether to devote class-time to clarifying basic issues, or to move on with the more advanced material at the cost of the less advanced students,
- uniform tests cannot be administered.

There are several possible solutions to these problems. One of them is to identify the students' level of grammatical competence, and assign them to different ability groups for this particular subject. Additionally, more contact hours should be provided to the lower-level group, so that one exam can be administered at the end of the year to all groups. Unfortunately, this solution is not predicted by the university's educational system. Unless authorized by the university and included in the curriculum, no additional hours will be available for the lower track. Moreover, the number of ECTS credits is fixed,[2] and must be equal for all students attending one specialization in one semester, therefore the remedial class would have to be uncredited, and that raises the risk that it would be difficult to obtain financing for it. An alternative is assigning additional, remedial exercises to the lower track students. This, however, entails additional burden, more stress, and the risk of demotivating the students. Of course, additional contact hours for the lower track students might be organized during the teachers' office hours. Yet many teachers run more than one course in one semester, and eventually that time would shrink to (optimistically) 30–45 minutes a week. Moreover, practical experience implies that optional classes tend to be skipped by the students, and the effectiveness of such a course would be limited.

All those solutions were discussed by the authors and subsequently included in the survey conducted among the students, which is presented in the further sections of this paper.

Ability grouping: is it worth it?

One more factor must be brought up in the debate on introducing additional remedial classes for less advanced students, and it is a psychologically significant factor. The modification of grammar teaching that is proposed and discussed in this paper follows the pattern of the educational strategies of *ability grouping* and *tracking*, both widely used in the 20th century, e.g. in the US or in the UK (known as *streaming* and *setting*) (Gamoran 2009: 3). Tracking is a strategy of assigning students to different classes according to their level of learning ability or according to their career path. Ability grouping, on the other hand, is a within-class policy, where students of different advancement level are assigned to different groups in their own class, within one school subject (Jussim & Harber 2005: 143). Ability grouping and tracking were both criticized in the past decades, for representing „institutional justification for believing that some students are more able than others," and thus triggering the mechanism of creating „rigid teacher expectations most likely to create self-fulfilling prophecies" (Jussim & Harber 2005: 143). The

[2] Regulamin Studiów w Uniwersytecie Pedagogicznym im. KEN w Krakowie [University Studies Regulations of the Pedagogical University of Cracow].

term „self-fulfilling prophecy" was introduced by R.K. Merton in 1957 „to refer to instances in which simply believing something to be true could lead people to behave in ways that cause the belief to come true, even if it was false in the beginning" (Swann & Ely 1984: 1287). In other words, it was suggested that assigning a student to a lower level group would trigger forming expectations by the teacher that the student is less able, and that in turn would induce certain behaviours on the part of the teacher that would aim at confirming such expectations, and thus reinforce that negative image of the student – both in the teacher's mind and in the student's. Needless to say, if that was the case, the lower-level students' self-esteem and performance achievement would suffer significantly. „High-expectation students will be led to achieve at or near their potential, but low-expectation students will not gain as much as they could have gained if taught differently" (Good 1987: 33). This expectancy effect, known in sociology and psychology as a powerful mechanism (e.g. the placebo effect), was popularized in educational research by Jacobson and Rosenthal in 1968.

The actual existence of the expectancy effect in tracked classes is still a subject of debate. Kulik (1992: 7) concludes that meta-analyses of many studies on ability grouping efficiency show that effects of grouping on pupils differ according to the kind of grouping strategy introduced. More precisely, grouping accompanied by significant differences in the curriculum has greater effect on the pupils than grouping with only slight adjustment of the curriculum. Moreover, Kulik states that, paradoxically, the self-esteem of lower-level students slightly improves and that of higher-level students slightly decreases after a period of tracked tuition (1992: 12).

A different approach, which promotes *detracking*, presented e.g. in a more recent study by Gamoran (2009), emphasizes a different aspect, i.e. the inequality of tracking and ability grouping. Gamoran discusses alternative solutions to the lack of homogeneity in the classroom, namely „differentiated instruction within the mixed-ability setting," and encourages teachers to introduce „supplemental instruction [...] available for students who struggled with class materials" (2009: 14).

In view of the above reservations, we should perhaps consider alternative methods of providing remedial instruction to our students. Certainly, additional remedial home tasks for the low-achievers could be assigned. If motivated appropriately, the students will increase efforts to catch up with the high-achievers, to qualify for the same exam. What we risk is demotivating the lows, who might start seeing themselves along the lines: „we are the worse ones, we don't know anything, we are hopeless," and thus trigger the expectancy effect in themselves (if not in the teacher). In such a case the cost is the emotional burden on the students, and the teacher's time spent consulting and checking additional tasks.

The latter could be eliminated by assigning additional remedial ONLINE exercises, to be done at home. Here the risk is exerting no control over the students' remedial performance, and that might lead to their making no effort, and eventually no achievement. What could be gained is the students' effort and subsequent higher achievement triggered by the teacher's trust and encouragement, which again uses the mechanism of the expectancy effect. The only cost of this solution would

be teacher's motivating effort, which may require some interpersonal skills, and of course the time spent preparing or finding the online materials.

Another approach could involve adapting the course and the exam level to the level of the lower track students, while giving additional tasks to the higher achievers. In the best course of events, the outcome would be the high-achievers scoring high in the tests and at the exam, the low-achievers at least passing the tests and the exam, and perhaps the low-achievers gradually catching up with the highs. What is risked is utter confusion in the class, with different students doing different exercises at the same time. Additionally, the low-achievers may feel anxious and pressed for time, seeing the progress the high-achievers make.

Finally, the cost would be great on the part of the teacher: additional work in the class, more control and discipline, multitasking, maximal focus and concentration would be required, as well as more preparation and organizational effort.

At this point it is perhaps best to stop speculating and to look into the actual situation. Would the students be interested in introducing changes in their grammar tuition? Would they prefer online assignments or in-class additional tasks? Would tracking be really detrimental to "low" students' morale? These questions lie at the basis of the research described in the second part of this paper.

What do students think? The survey

Aims and methods

The main question to be asked in this research is how many students will be satisfied if ability grouping is introduced. Secondly, we need to know what kind of students expect to benefit from the change. Thirdly, we are interested in the emotional impact that assignment to a lower group may have on a student.

The survey was conducted in January 2015 among the first year students of English Philology at the Pedagogical University of Cracow. This is the exact set of students that would undergo ability grouping if such a proposal was accepted. It must be noted that at the time of the survey, the students had already completed a course of Practical Grammar, including several tests, therefore they were able to form an opinion on the teaching and on their response to it. The students were asked to answer a set of explicit questions. For each question, answers were provided. In the last question, the respondents were asked to mark as many answers as they thought appropriate. The questionnaire opened with two background questions. The remaining questions concerned a hypothetical situation. The questionnaire is presented below in Figure 1.

Fig. 1. The questionnaire administered to the respondents

Krakow, 19th Jan 2015

Dear Student!

This survey is designed to examine and perhaps modify the teaching of practical grammar in our College. The results will be calculated and published as a scientific paper.

Please circle the answers or tick them √.

The survey is anonymous and will not be shared with your Teachers, so please answer honestly.

Thank you!!!
Dr Anna Ścibior-Gajewska

1) How good are you at Practical English Grammar?

not too good ok rather good very confident

2) Are you satisfied with the amount of instruction and exercise you get in Practical Grammar?

Yes No

3) Would you like the groups in Practical Grammar to be organized **according to the LEVEL of advancement (grammatical ability) of the students**, instead of alphabetically (as they are now)?

Yes No

4) If there were **higher** and **lower** (remedial) level Practical Grammar groups, in which would you like to be placed?

lower level higher level

5) If you were in the lower level group, would you like to have:

additional classes additional homework

6) If you were to have more homework, would you rather:

Do assigned exercises and bring them to the classroom to be checked by the teacher

Do assigned exercises online, without the teacher's control

7) If you were assigned to the lower level group, how would you feel (circle as many as you wish):

satisfied	embarrassed	supported
punished	taken good care of	offended
discouraged	worse than others	indifferent to the fact
motivated	better than others	

The total number of respondents was 98. It took up to 5 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The students were assured that the survey is anonymous and that its results will not be revealed to their teachers.

The results were first analysed manually; then the data were submitted to multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) in R statistical programming environment, supplemented with the FactoMineR package (Husson et al. 2007). The programme returns a graphic representation of the strength of association between particular

factors, clustering the strongly correlating ones. However, MCA is only an exploratory technique, meaning that other tests need to be used to determine the exact statistical significance of the features analysed (Glynn 2014: 133–134). This study relies on logistic regression to confirm the significance of individual factors, but for most correlations (with some exceptions discussed in more detail below) only very low statistical significance has been obtained, which most probably resulted from a relatively small size of the sample. Thus, the MCA graphs used in this study are intended mainly for illustrational purposes, to supplement the discussion of the survey, and are not meant to convey findings of a definitive nature.

The survey results – analysis

The results calculated manually are presented below, followed by the MCA graphs representing the correlations. The total number of analysed questionnaires is 98. Since the number is very close to 100, percentage for particular numbers concerning the whole sample will not be given, as it is assumed to be almost equal to the number itself (the difference is less than 1). Percentage will be given for values concerning subgroups of respondents.

The most clearly noticeable tendencies in the students' responses were the following: 79 out of 98 respondents expressed satisfaction with the amount of currently received grammar practice; 57 respondents rejected the idea of introducing ability grouping in the Practical Grammar course; 66 respondents would prefer to be placed in the higher level group, if grouping was forced upon them. At the first glimpse, these results suggest that most of our students do not see the necessity to remedy their grammatical education or to modify the grammar teaching system.

It is to be expected that the **level of satisfaction** with the status quo in grammar instruction will be crucial in the respondents' decisions about introducing ability grouping. The majority of respondents (79) express their satisfaction with the amount of grammar schooling they receive, and 48 of them, which is 61%, are against ability grouping. This number is not as high as might have been expected. Apparently, being satisfied with the existing situation does not exclude being curious about potential changes. In the group of 31 who voted for ability grouping, 21 would like to be placed in the higher level group, which suggests that their motivation for changes is ambition. Optimistically, of the 10 who see themselves in the lower level group, none expresses clearly negative feelings in connection with such a situation.

In the dissatisfied group, the preference for grouping or no grouping is more or less symmetrical (10 and 9, respectively). Again, it seems that this is not related to the level of satisfaction with grammar teaching. Perhaps it is connected with the students' self-esteem in terms of grammatical competence, as 13 out of those 19 dissatisfied students would place themselves in the lower level group, and only 3 of them actually consider themselves „rather good" at grammar, with the remaining 16 labelling themselves as merely „ok" or plainly „not too good."

As far as the **self-assessed level of grammatical competence** is concerned, 7 respondents regard themselves as „very confident," 44 consider themselves „rather good" at grammar, 38 say they are „ok," and 9 evaluate their grammatical

knowledge as „not too good." Among the 7 „very confident" students, 5 are against ability grouping, which comes as no surprise, especially since all of them are satisfied with the amount of grammatical instruction they receive, and all would like to be placed in the higher level group if grouping was imposed.

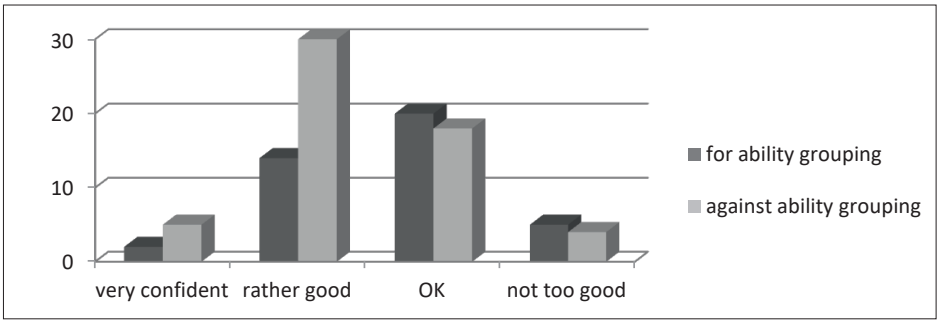
Of those 44 who consider themselves „rather good," 30 are against ability grouping, which is 68%. In this group, almost all respondents (41, which is 93%) claim that they are satisfied with the existing system. This means that there is a small group (13 students) who would like to experiment with the new system even though they feel they receive a sufficient amount of instruction at the moment. Needless to say, almost all of them (12) would like to be placed in the higher level group if grouping was introduced.

In the group of 38 who think they are merely „ok" at grammar, 18 are against ability grouping, which is less than a half (47%). In this group, two thirds (25) are satisfied with the amount of received instruction, and one third (13) are not; yet, against the expectations, satisfaction does not seem to be related to their votes for or against ability grouping.

Finally, among the 9 „not too good" students, 4 are against and 5 are for ability grouping, with satisfaction, again, not being a factor in the decision.

The relation between the self-assessed level of grammatical competence and the preference for ability grouping is presented in Figure 2.

Fig. 2. Grammatical competence self-assessment vs. grouping preference



The self-assessed level of grammatical competence should be, reasonably, related to the **self-assignment to an ability level**. It is the case in the „rather good" and „very confident" groups of students. In the „not too good" group, surprisingly more than half (5 out of 9) believe they should be placed in the higher level group. Also in the „ok" group, low and high level assignments seem to be determined by factors other than self-assessment. Perhaps the respondents want to avoid being stigmatized as „lows" or they believe that the higher level of the group would prove to be a motivating factor. The numbers for this division and subdivisions are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 4 shows the results of multiple correspondence analysis for the factors discussed above.

Fig. 3. Is self-assessment reflected in the ability level self-assignment?

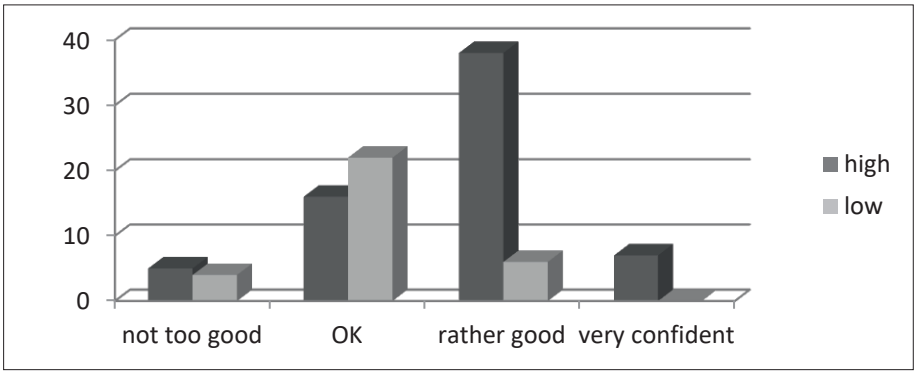
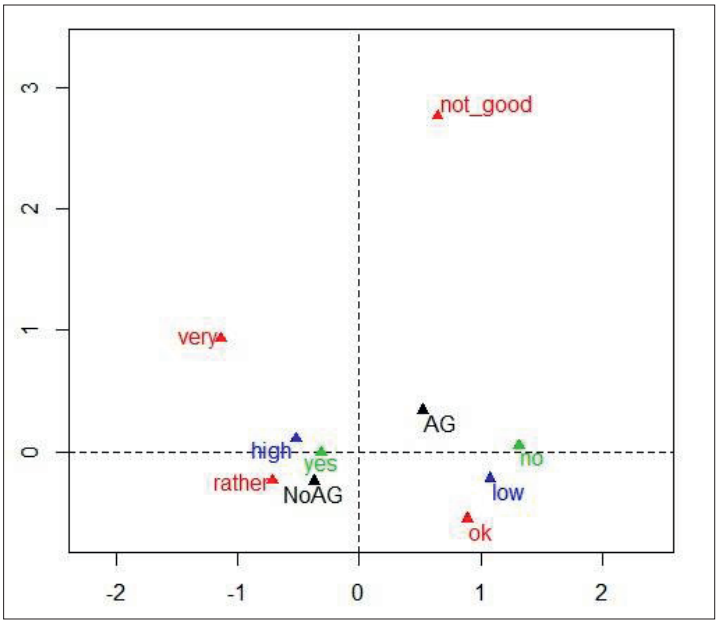


Fig. 4. MCA graph. Factors: grouping preference, self-assignment, self-assessed competence level and class satisfaction



The left side of the plot is occupied by the cluster of features comprising the preference for no ability grouping („NoAG"), satisfaction with the amount of instruction („yes"), self-assignment to the higher ability group („high") and self-assessment as rather good („rather"). The preference for ability grouping („AG") is correlated with a group of factors situated on the right side of the graph: dissatisfaction with the current amount of contact hours („no"), self-assignment to the lower group („low") and self-assessment as merely „ok" at grammar. The markers for the highest and lowest levels of grammatical competence („very" for 'very confident' and „not good" for 'not too good') appear in the upper quadrants of the

plot, due to the fact that these answers were chosen by the less numerous groups of students, but still they conform to the general tendency: the preference for no ability grouping correlates with a higher level of perceived competence, both in terms of self-assessment and self-assignment to a particular ability group. In other words, students who consider themselves reasonably good at grammar generally see no need for ability grouping, whereas those who feel less confident may be more open to curriculum changes, looking for ways to improve their grammatical competence.

Interesting results are observed in the answers concerning the **preferred type of additional tuition**, where the choice was offered between contact hours and home assignments. This is exactly where an important question may be answered: are there any students who think themselves poor at grammar and would like to receive additional tuition? In the whole sample of 98 students, 64 would prefer to be given additional classes. In turn, if additional homework was to be assigned anyway, 58 students chose teacher-controlled, in-class checked home assignments, with 39 choosing uncontrolled online exercises. This may suggest that students do not feel secure enough in grammar self-study. When we consider the students' self-assignment into high- and low-level groups, the results are as follows (Table 1):

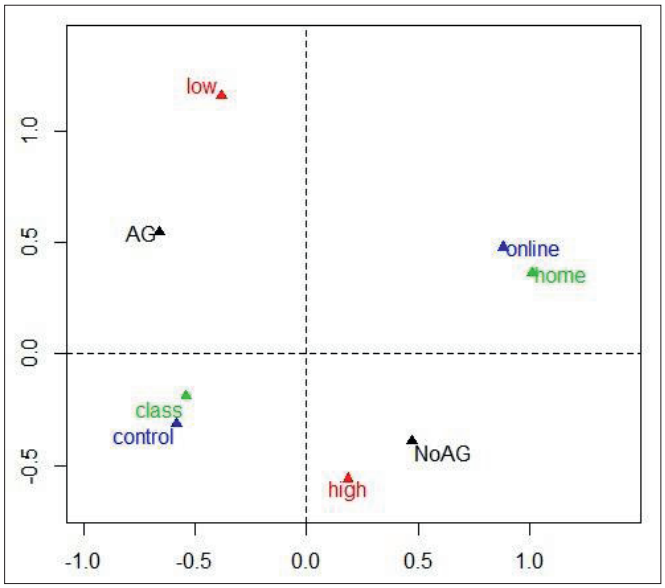
Tab. 1. The form of additional tuition as chosen by respondents assigning themselves to the higher or lower level

HIGHER LEVEL = 66				**LOWER LEVEL = 32**			
Additional classes		Additional homework		Additional classes		Additional homework	
41 (62%)		24 (36%)[3]		21 (66%)		9 (28%)[4]	
Homework control				Homework control			
Controlled	Not controlled	Controlled	Not controlled	Controlled	Not controlled	Controlled	Not controlled
30	11	9	15	15	6	3	5[5]

Both in the higher- and lower-level groups, it is noticeable that the majority of students would rather have additional classes with the teacher than additional homework, and they would rather have the teacher check their homework in the class. As for answering the question posed above – there is a group of 21 students (which is more than one fifth of the whole sample) who believe they would benefit from additional classes. This is a relatively large number, taking into account the size of groups (15–20 students) at the English Department. This number becomes important in the considerations of administrative and organizational restrictions on the idea of ability grouping, which will be discussed further below.

The results of MCA analysis related to the preferred type of additional tuition and assignments are given in Figure 5.

Fig. 5. MCA graph. Factors: grouping preference, self-assignment, preferred type of additional tuition, homework control



The results of MCA analysis indicate that the students who chose additional classes as the preferred form of tuition („class") are also more likely to opt for teacher-controlled home assignments („control"), whereas those in favour of home assignments („home") rather than more contact hours are more likely to choose online practice („online"). The former cluster („class" and „control") correlates more closely with the preference for ability grouping („AG") and self-assignment to the lower group („low") as all the factors are situated in the same, left-hand half of the plot. At the same time, the students who are against ability grouping are equally likely to favour either the former or the latter type of tuition, as the two clusters are positioned at approximately the same distance from the „NoAG" marker. All this suggests that the students who are not very confident in their grammatical competence feel more secure with controlled forms of instruction and they expect more guidance from the teacher. However, it may also be a manifestation of a more general problem, namely underdeveloped self-study skills and learner independence.

Finally, the obtained data must be analysed and discussed from the perspective of psychological effects of ability grouping on students. To learn about their **emotions** associated with the ability grouping situation, the respondents were explicitly asked how they would feel if they were assigned to a lower level group. The obtained results seem to confirm the claim that ability grouping has a rather negative effect on the students' self-esteem, or mood in general. Some students chose several answers to that question, while others picked one, therefore the results presented in Table 2 reflect the overall trend, not individual decisions, by showing the number of mentions of each emotion in the whole group of respondents.

Tab. 2. How many times was a particular emotion mentioned in answers to question 7

Emotion	Number of mentions
worse than others	48
embarrassed	42
discouraged	39
supported	26
taken good care of	24
motivated	23
indifferent to the fact	17
punished	12
offended	12
satisfied	7
better than others	2

To individualize these results, the general impression was introduced as a feature of each respondent, calculating the value of each individual set of answers as: entirely negative, mixed, entirely positive, or indifferent. Table 3 presents the results of this calculation.

Tab. 3. How many respondents marked only negative, mixed, indifferent and only positive emotions in answers to question 7

Total number of respondents	Only negative emotions	Mixed emotions	Only positive emotions	Indifference
98	46	19	25	8

The above numbers clearly show that students expect to feel rather bad if they happened to be assigned to a lower level group. As expected, the rate of positive reactions is higher among those who opt for grouping and assign themselves to the lower level, while the rate of negative reactions is visibly higher among the respondents voting against grouping and place themselves at the higher level. The results broken down for these factors are presented below in Figures 6 and 7.

Fig. 6. Predominant emotions in the group of students who opt against ability grouping

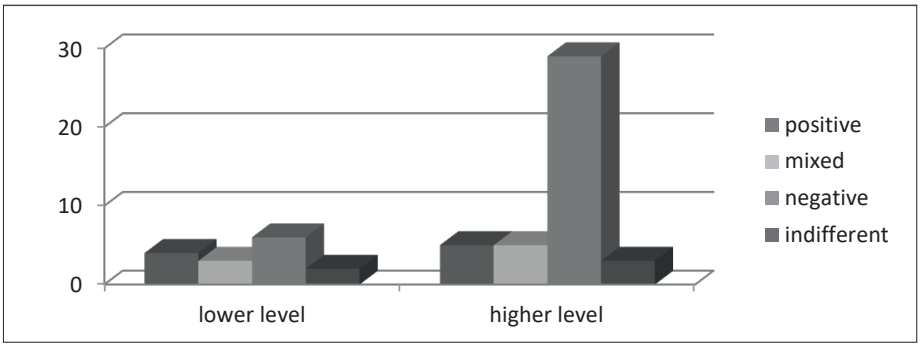
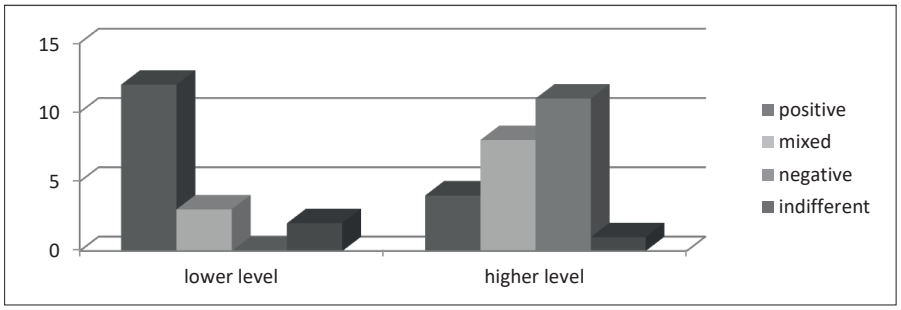
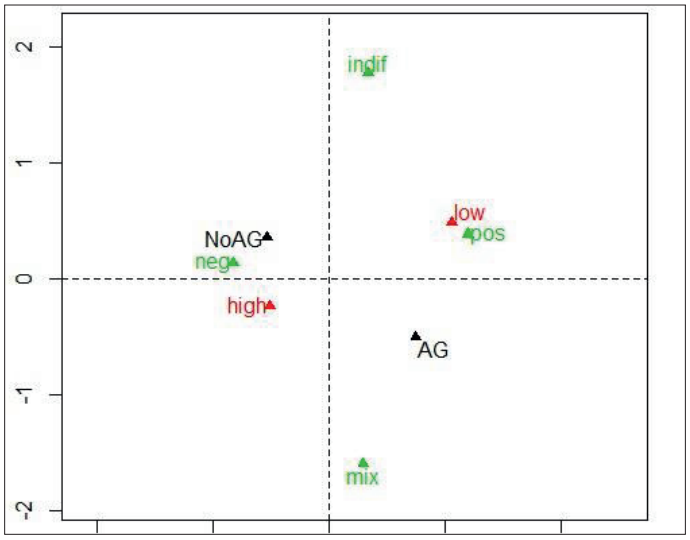


Fig. 7. Predominant emotions in the group of students who opt for ability grouping



The results of multiple correspondence analysis presented in Figure 8 confirm the above-mentioned correlations:

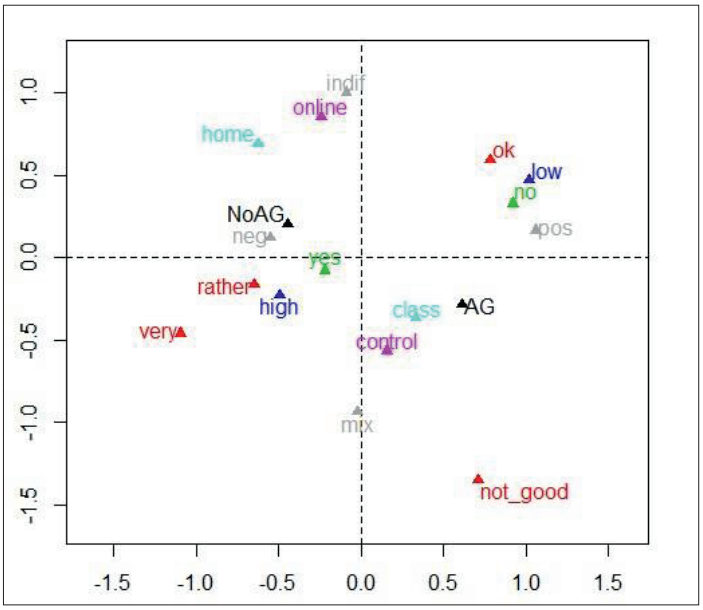
Fig. 8. MCA graph. Factors: grouping preference, self-assignment, predominant emotions



Negative reactions to being placed in the lower level group („neg") quite understandably form a close correlation with the preference for no ability grouping („NoAG") and self-assignment to the higher level group („high"). Positive attitudes („pos") are closely associated with self-assignment to the lower level group („low"), but interestingly the connection of these two features with the choice of ability grouping („AG") is not as strong as that between negative emotions and no tracking, which means that the positive reactions are not limited to students who opt for ability grouping.

To summarize the discussion of the survey results, the MCA graph in Figure 9 brings together all the factors considered above.

Fig. 9. MCA graph. All factors



The multiple correspondence analysis shows that there are clusters of features correlated with, and possibly motivating, the students' voting either for or against ability grouping. The former occupy the right and the latter the left side of the MCA graph.

Opting for ability grouping correlates with the following features:

- Relatively low level of grammatical competence („ok" and „not good")
- Dissatisfaction with the amount of grammatical instruction („no"")
- Self-assignment to the lower group („low")
- Positive emotions associated with it („pos")

The cluster of features related to voting against ability grouping includes:

- Relatively high level of grammatical competence („very" and „rather")
- Satisfaction with the amount of grammar instruction („yes")
- Self-assignment to the higher level group („high")
- Negative reactions to being placed in the lower level group („neg")

As has been mentioned above, statistical significance has not been obtained for most correlations. P value below 0.05 has been obtained only for the correlation between the lack of satisfaction with grammatical instruction and choosing the lower level group (p=0.0270). P value below 0.1 has been obtained for the correlation between the satisfaction with grammatical instruction and self-assignment to the „rather good" group (p=0.0693) and with predominantly negative emotions in case of lower level assignment (p=0.0890). Therefore we must conclude that the results of the analysis should be treated with a degree of caution: they cannot be generalized and must be understood as describing only the group of students questioned.

Conclusions

Summing up, when looking at the results of the survey, the first impression is that our students are not interested in any modifications in the grammar teaching. Another reflection is that most of them do not feel there should be any problem with grammar teaching/learning. It must be stated clearly that the authors are ambivalent about the results. On the one hand, it should be satisfying that most students are content with the grammatical education they receive in our Department. On the other hand, their contentment and self-approval may not be tantamount to the contentment of their teachers. That is an issue that requires further investigation, perhaps in the form of another survey, this time conducted among the teachers. A slightly unsettling conclusion is driven by the results on the type of additional tuition. It seems that most of our students do not feel prepared to undertake self-study in the area of grammar. Even the majority of those seeing themselves in the higher track would rather be controlled than merely guided in their study.

Concerning the emotional effect of lower-group placing on students, negative feelings are predominant, but they are not exclusive. Negative feelings were mentioned in the questionnaires 153 times, and positive feelings – 82 times. Nevertheless, it must be admitted that most students are aware of the emotional cost of being „degraded" to the lower track, as the two most often mentioned emotions were „feeling worse" and „feeling embarrassed" (48 and 42, respectively).

There are also some optimistic findings of the research. Answering the questions posed before the research, we must conclude that we were able to identify a group of students who are insightful enough to see their problem in grammar learning, and who might actually be willing to commit to additional duties in order to improve their grammatical skills. Our potential target for remedial grammar classes are the students who assigned themselves to the lower level group and who chose additional classes as the type of additional tuition. This finding is encouraging. It is very important that this group constitutes a relatively high percentage of the whole year (about one fifth). Such a number opens a possibility of creating one workshop group for the subject Remedial Grammar. A different problem, however, is how this subject should be introduced in the curriculum of the undergraduate studies.

Secondly, we managed to establish the profile of a student who might benefit from additional tuition. It is a person characterized by the features that were revealed as correlating in the correspondence analysis presented above. Such students are probably not very confident about their grammatical ability (the „ok" group), dissatisfied with the current amount of tuition, insightful enough to notice that they should follow a lower level of advancement, and, most importantly, optimistic about the perspective of following the lower track in grammar. The latter is probably the crucial prerequisite for any remedial actions on our part. Clearly, as the research data suggest, students in general are not enthusiastic about being „degraded" to the lower track of studies. The fact that some of them feel positive about remedial learning is very gratifying to the authors of the „remedial action" idea.

Evidently, the actual introduction of a remedial grammar class will pose numerous systemic problems. Also, the research is incomplete without investigating the „other side of the barricade," that is the teachers. Can we control our behaviour so as not to make the "lows" feel that they are „lower expectations" students? Can we motivate them to apply greater effort and achieve more? Finally, it may be interesting to survey the second or third year students, who should see their practical grammar learning in a perspective, and, naturally, if a remedial group is created, a follow-up study will have to be conducted on the efficiency, but also on the actual emotional costs of ability grouping.

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Razem czy osobno? Podział na grupy według poziomu zaawansowania na kursie Gramatyki praktycznej języka angielskiego

Streszczenie

W artykule omówiono problemy, jakie napotykają nauczyciele akademiccy uczący gramatyki praktycznej na pierwszym roku Filologii Angielskiej. Przedstawiono zalety i wady podziału na grupy według poziomu zaawansowania. Omówiono wyniki badania opinii przeprowadzonego wśród studentów, których mógłby dotyczyć ów podział. Uzyskane wyniki poddano analizie korespondencji w celu ustalenia korelacji pomiędzy poszczególnymi aspektami wyrażonych opinii. Opisane w pracy badanie może dostarczyć użytecznych danych w debacie o potencjalnych, pedagogicznie uzasadnionych rozwiązaniach opisanego problemu.

Słowa kluczowe: nauczanie gramatyki języka angielskiego, podział na grupy według poziomu zaawansowania, efekt oczekiwań nauczyciela, szkolnictwo wyższe

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Douglas S. Willcox
Pedagogical University of Cracow

Enhancing the quality of translation in Poland: focus on creative writing as a tool in Translation Studies instruction

Introduction

The paper presents research that assumes creative writing as a pedagogical tool to enhance the quality of translations into a foreign language produced by students enrolled in Translation Studies (TS) programs. Participants were full-time TS students at a university in Poland. The TS students were learners of English as a foreign language (EFL); thus, the translations they produced into English would qualify as translation into a foreign language.

The political, cultural, and social changes that began in Poland in 1989 have influenced the country's translation profession. Professional translators working with the Polish and English languages have frequently been required to translate from their native Polish language into English; thus, they translate into a foreign language. The quality of translations they produce is often unacceptable and non-deliverable. In discussing the quality of translation into English seen in Poland, Korzeniowska and Kuhiwczak state: „What is worse, the same mistakes occur over and over again, and apart from moans and groans brought about by people like us, or sniggers and laughs uttered by non-Polish speaking visitors, very little is being done to eliminate these mistakes" (2005: 65). Because these translations have contained lexical and syntactical mistakes, they failed to convey the intended meaning, thus failing to transfer content from one language to another. A major impetus for this research is the concern that Poland must be able to develop its own translators who are not only advanced writers in a foreign language (English), but who also demonstrate the ability to produce written English at the fluent or near-fluent level.

Translation into a foreign language and translation into a second language has been the subject of extended discussion (Newmark 1981; Dollerup 2000; Grosman 2000; Campbell 2000). Most of the research has indicated that non-native speakers of the target language lacked lexical proficiency with regards to idioms, collocations, and a natural feel for the target language. Hence, translations produced by translators who are non-native users of English, which includes translators for whom English is a foreign language, may present problems in the target language resulting from interference as a result of the translator's source language.

The interference leads to the occurrence of „translationese," „i.e., a non-standard version of the target language that is to a greater or lesser extent affected by the source language" (Hopkinson 2007: 13), also called „third language." However, Poland's contemporary geopolitical situation, which includes a limited source of native translators, has led to the common practice of Polish translators translating into a foreign language:

> Because the majority of Polish texts translated into English in Poland today are done by Poles for whom English is a second language, this leads more often than not to what Alan Duff calls a third language and what is described by Peter Newmark as 'translationese.' The latter explains this term as literal translation that makes little sense or is unnatural. Whether we call it a third language, translationese, or simply mistranslation, it involves work that is being written, printed and propagated which is often lacking in sense, is unnatural and, what is more important in our Polish context, is frequently incorrect from the point of view of grammar, sentence, structure, style, choice of vocabulary (Korzeniowska & Kuhiwczak 2005: 145–146).

As stated above, the resulting third language – the language „lying somewhere between two 'true' languages (the L1 and L2)" (Hopkinson 2007: 13) – contains syntax mistakes, as well as lexical mistakes. The majority of lexical mistakes are the result of a lack of native insight into the native language and the native culture. They can stem from two different rationales behind translators' choices: first, translators might have incorrect understandings of the languages' semantic nuances and the segmentation of the semantic field of words or phrases. Secondly, translators may seek exact syntactic equivalence between languages without an understanding of the lexical differences. Both types of lexical problems might be interpreted as coming from translators' non-native relationships with the culture of the target language. This explanation assumes that „language is a part of culture" (Vermeer 1989: 222). The culture might be understood after D. Hymes as a so-called speech community: „a group 'sharing knowledge of rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech.' Such sharing comprises knowledge of at least one form of speech and knowledge of its patterns of use" (1974: 51). In turn, syntax and grammar mistakes may stem from an absence of a self-revision process and/or problems with executing knowledge concerning the target language syntax.

TS programs situated in an EFL environment face pedagogical challenges in preparing TS students to produce high-quality English translations. To meet market demand, TS programs must strive for excellence in English writing skills among their graduates. The translation market requires that translators demonstrate significant skills. First, graduates of TS programs are expected to complete a commission to produce a deliverable product (CFA Skills, n.d.: 20–21). Therefore, this research regards as very serious the challenge implicit in the following statement by Korzeniowska and Kuhiwczak: „If we do not know how to write in English, we shall never be good at translating into that language" (2011: 169–170). A significant problem for TS students is producing translations that can be qualified as third language or translationese. This paper assumed that one of the major tasks of translation instruction provided during Translation Studies should include

instruction that would develop a student's ability to produce better writing in the foreign language.

In order to reach the goal of having their graduates produce flawless written English – which by definition avoids the creation of the third language or translationese – TS programs in Poland have to address the range of obstacles facing their students. Among these obstacles are:

1. TS students in Poland face interference from their first language (L1), Polish.

2. The quality and quantity of foreign language writing instruction in Poland, including limited feedback for students. Following changes introduced to the new Matura (the school-leaving exam) in Poland, more attention has been drawn to English writing instruction because one of the exam's tasks is to write a short composition in English. However, teachers remain unable to provide extensive feedback to students due to time restrictions (see Reichelt 2005a, 2005b). Native speakers of English usually conduct composition classes for EFL students at the university level. These teachers prepare their own curricula (see Reichelt 2005b). The main goal of the composition classes, as stated by Reichelt, is to prepare students to write their own „year-end English-language exams and for further academic writing, including the thesis students write during their fifth year of study" (2005b: 222). In this case, both the quality and the quantity of writing instruction and feedback are task-focused and limited to the group, instead of individual feedback.

3. TS programs must also address the issue of cultural knowledge. A lack of near native-level knowledge of the culture of the target language results in mistranslation and translationese (see M. Baker 1992). Successful translation into a foreign language is strongly connected with translator biculturalism. Korzeniowska and Kuhiwczak state: „The link between bilingualism and biculturalism is inseparable, and it has to be recognised that a good translation is a matter of successful linguistic and cultural transfer" (2005: 16). In discussing the routine commissions translators encounter in the translation marketplace in Poland, the same authors state: „It is not enough to be fluent in a foreign language or even to be bilingual in order to become a sought-after translator. One has to be both bicultural and bilingual" (2005: 31).

In order to help TS students develop foreign language skills relevant to their professional work as translators, a creative writing course is proposed that addresses all three aforementioned problems: L1 interference, foreign language instruction, and cultural knowledge. The course teaches students about particular genres as they exist in English speaking countries and – as the students will encounter the genres in their future work as translators – teaches students how to better write directly in English using the acquired knowledge of English syntax, idioms, collocations etc. Moreover, the course gives students cultural insight into the English-speaking world while enhancing students' understanding of the do's and don'ts of culture that imbues written English.

Creative writing in this project is broadly understood to be a form of expression of one's imagination used to convey meaning through poetry, narrative, and drama. This research assumed that creative writing is any kind of writing that puts a writer's creativity to work in order to create written content. „The playful

element in CW should not, however, be confused with a lax and unregulated use of language. On the contrary, CW requires a willing submission on the part of the writer to the 'rules' of the sub-genre being undertaken" (Maley 2009, para. 3). Thus, the approach chosen for teaching was one that explored a number of genres. The course instructor introduces a genre by presenting genre-specific rules and examples, typical vocabulary, and typical applications. Hence, a genre-based approach to creative writing assumes using rules and principles of particular genres to produce creative content.

There is a lack of recent publications strictly focused on creative writing for TS students in Poland. Research on the subject, however, has been done elsewhere. In 2005, Tarnopolsky examined the use of a course in creative writing in the Ukrainian context to improve the second language writing (L2 writing) skills of students intending to become translators (Tarnopolsky 2005). In 2010, Dai described a one-year creative writing course offered to English majors at a university in China (Dai 2010). In 2012, Monis and Rodriques wrote about creative writing instruction in India, analysing the theory, value, and techniques associated with creative writing instruction at the university level (Monis & Rodriques 2012). Reppen, who examined the use of genre-based instruction with ESL students in the United States, states: „Writing research has shown that students need to be exposed to and have practice with various genres in addition to narrative writing" (2002: 321).

The creative writing course proposed in this project was designed to cover a range of genres. Many of the genres were selected based on areas identified by Korzeniowska and Kuhiwczak as indicating a poor level of translation on the Polish market. The two authors detailed genres for which a lack of knowledge of the target audience and a lack of cultural knowledge led to poorly written English: tourism, culture and the arts, academia and science, catering, advertising, business and commerce, and poetry (2005: 19–20). It should be noted that not all genres indicated above by the authors were included in this project's design (Appendix 1 presents the list of genres covered in this research).

The advantage of using the creative writing process with TS students assumes the existing link between translators, creativity, and good writing. In following Korzeniowska and Kuhiwczak, this project assumes that the creativity used in the work of translation implies that translators must use creativity when choosing the most appropriate words and constructions:

> As writing and translating are inseparably linked together, we have to keep in mind that because writing is creative, the same, despite the limitations imposed on the translator, apply to those of us who translate. We have a choice in how we do it, which words we choose, how we structure our sentences, how we work with idiom and metaphor. We are guided by the author, but we undergo a process of choice, and in our choice, we are creative (2005: 170).

In creative writing that explores various genres, TS students are forced to employ similar sets of skills they use while translating into a foreign language. The requirement for translation, however, is lifted from the writing assignments. By doing so, TS students who are EFL learners can focus on writing skills in the absence of a source text. This approach also takes advantage of the fact that TS

students in Poland have in general extensive exposure to English grammar, yet have less exposure to creating communicative written English. The approach taken in this research allows TS students to be prepared for the task of producing communicative English if given the appropriate context in their studies.

Research design

Case study

This research examines a particular educational setting: students enrolled in the Translation Studies department at Uniwersytet Pedagogiczny (UP) in Kraków, Poland. The study period under consideration took place from October 2012 to January 2013, the first semester of the academic year. A typical profile for an undergraduate student studying Translation Studies at UP is that of a person born and raised in Poland. Students come from cities and towns located in Poland. People living in Poland typically (though not always) have little exposure to any regular forms of communicative spoken or written English with the potential exceptions of school and work.

Participants

Participants were members of a class comprised of 24 full-time students in their second year at the university. The course was a compulsory course entitled Creative Writing. Classes were 90 minutes long. The class met every two weeks. The period of study was one semester.

Material

The central concept for the class syllabus was to provide students exposure to and practice with various genres found in English. By presenting a number of short-term assignments, the syllabus design for this creative writing course exposed TS students to various genres, lexical constructions, and syntactical choices found in English. This design employed a broad approach to addressing the research goal, i.e. a high number of short-term assignments in one semester, a design that stands in contrast to the deep approach, i.e. only a few long-term assignments over a semester (See Matsuo & Bevan 2006). Another feature of the syllabus is that each class included a review of grammar components, lexical items, and grammatical constructions often (though not always) associated with the genre taught in that class. Appendix 1 presents the schedule of class topics (genres) for the class.

Method

A native speaker of English taught the course. Each class meeting focused on a different genre. The course utilized the concepts of task-based instruction (TBI) (Hyland 2003: 139; Reppen 2002: 321). Genres were introduced to the group by means of short presentations, video/audio recordings, handouts, and/or website analysis. Participants were provided the necessary vocabulary and grammatical constructions. In-class assignments were conducted to reinforce the instruction. A homework assignment directly related to each genre was assigned and due at the next class meeting. Appendix 1 presents the schedule of writing assignments.

Style

This research assumed that the teacher and the students in the class would benefit by having a common framework for understanding the standards by which excellence in English writing was measured. Doing so would provide the students and other faculty in the TS department with an objective resource for the style being taught. Such a framework would provide the participants and the teacher with common criteria for feedback. A common style would provide participants with a reference point by which they could judge and compare other standards of written English provided by different resources and individuals. This section highlights key elements of the framework of the style taught in the class.

The common framework chosen for this research was the book *Elements of Style* (Strunk & White 2000). Strunk and White's work was chosen in part due to the number of prominent style guides and publications that recognize the work. In 2011, *Time* magazine included *Elements of Style* in its list of books it felt were „the 100 best and most influential written in English since 1923." In its description, *Time* states that the book is

> a now revered guidebook outlining essential rules of the English language. Revised in 1957 by *New Yorker* writer E.B. White (*Charlotte's Web*), *The Elements of Style* has managed to maintain its original purpose over the years, even as our language has become less formal. That's because the rules aren't suggestions but grammatical demands for the composition of sentences, paragraphs and total bodies of work (Skarda 2011, para. 1).

Elements of Style is included in the reference lists and bibliographies of the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* (Modern Language Association 2009: 260), the American Medical Association's style guide (Iverson et al. 2007: 970), and *The Chicago Manual of Style* (The University of Chicago 1993: 867). In its section on punctuation, *The Associated Press Stylebook* describes *Elements* as „a bible of writers" (Christian, Jacobsen & Minthorn 2011: 370). This research recognizes, however, that *Elements of Style* is not the only style guide available to writers. Yet the book clearly has a major impact on the written English that is accepted at universities, accepted by academic journals, and used in many newspapers and websites around the world.

In this research, participants were taught eight principles of composition found in section II of *Elements of Style* (2000: 15–33). The eight principles were:

1. Use the active voice.
2. Put statements in positive form.
3. Use definite, specific, concrete language.
4. Omit needless words.
5. Avoid a succession of loose sentences.
6. Express coordinate ideas in similar form.
7. Keep related words together.
8. Place the emphatic words of a sentence at the end.

Class time was set aside for comparing and contrasting these guidelines with the participants' L1, which in this case was Polish. Examples were provided of the rule being discussed. In-class grammar and writing exercises were completed to reinforce the suggestions.

Another component of composition chosen to teach participants in this research was the five-paragraph essay (J. Baker 2012, para. 12). As the OWL indicates above, the five-paragraph essay, and the elements contained within it, is widespread in secondary education and institutions of higher learning, at least in the United States. As such, this research suggests that individuals should learn to write in English at the level a professional translator should be conversant with this essay and its components. Knowledge about – and ease in working with – the five-paragraph essay would help participants with blogs, presentations, and website content.

Another element of written English covered in this research was the use of action verbs. Action verbs have the tendency to increase the conciseness of writing by reducing the number of words used in a sentence. Stressing this area of English enabled the TS students to meet Strunk and White's dictum to „eliminate needless words." Moreover, writers in English are encouraged to use the active voice. The *AMA Manual of Style*, the style guide for *The Journal of the American Medical Association* (2012 impact factor: 29.98), states: „In general, authors should use the active voice" (2007: 320). Because the teacher is providing logic for using the active voice, it is possible that students can be inspired to find the best word.

Feedback

This research recognized that the pedagogical task of providing the EFL participants with feedback is challenging. In addition, the sheer volume of elements in written English on which a teacher could potentially provide feedback to L2 writers is daunting. Therefore, this research contained material designed specifically for ESL/EFL learners: phrasal verbs (Hart 2009), common expressions (O'Dell 1997), idioms (Collis 1987), slang (Burke 2005), as well as a number of handouts designed by the author of this research (journalism, press release, newsletter etc.). Feedback was thus related to class objectives.

When marking assignments, this research was guided by Mossop's (2010) understanding of major versus minor error. In particular, major errors have serious consequences, i.e. the reader may well misunderstand the message, whereas minor errors do not have serious consequences, i.e. the reader is not misled about an important aspect of the message. Per Mossop: „A serious misunderstanding would be one that bears on some central aspect of the message" (2010: 185), while in defining a minor error, Mossop says, „[...] the (native or near-native) reader could easily recover the meaning" (2010: 185). Mossop discusses this model in the context of assessing the quality of translation. This research suggests that the model can be used for L2 writing samples, including those found in creative writing courses.

Results of study

In using Mossop's approach for feedback, it is important to demonstrate the differences between major and minor errors. Examples are presented of written errors excerpted from assignments (Table 1).

Tab. 1. Major and minor errors found in writing samples; Actual error; Error type

Error: Major or minor	Sentence	Error type	Suggested alternative
Major	I lift it up, and its limb.	Sentence fragment because the second clause does not express complete thought.	Nonsensical. Lack of meaning precluded teacher from providing an alternative.
Major	The last thing I remember, from when I was alive, were does scarlet eyes.	Spelling („does" should be „those").	The last thing I remember, from when I was alive, were those scarlet eyes.
Major	I have always liked dimmed and packed with people concert halls.	Syntax	I have always liked concert halls that are dimmed and packed with people.
Minor	She was to perform an important order – huge wedding reception…	Missing article	She was to perform an important order – a huge wedding reception…
Minor	You told that we are going to travel.	Lexical choice and tense	You said that we were going to travel.
Minor	First two weeks of my Irish adventure I spend on convincing myself that I would never find a job.	Missing article; verb tense; lexical choice; remove needless words	I spent the first two weeks of my Irish adventure convincing myself I would never find a job.

The data for demonstrating error assessment regard the final class assignment in which students were able to choose one of the three assignments. The final assignment is presented because it would represent the culmination of the semester's instruction. Table 2 presents the error assessment for each student for the final class assignment.

Tab. 2. Final assignment; Total major and minor errors per student assignment; Assessment

	Completed final class assignment[a]		
	This I Believe (essay)	Jumble Story (short story)	Clark Rockefeller (dialogue/script)
	Errors present in assignment (M = major error, m = minor error)		
Student			
1	1M, 1m		
2			0M, 4m
3		0M, 7m	

4			0M, 9m
5	5M, 3m		
6		1M, 9m	
7		2M, 4m	
8		1M, 3m	
9		0M, 5m	
10	2M, 6m		
11		1M, 1m	
12		1M, 3m	
13		3M, 4m	
14	1M, 2m		
15		1M, 8m	
16		0M, 9m	
17			0M, 3m
18		4M, 3m	
19		5M, 5m	
20		5M, 9m	

[a]Of the original 24 students, 4 withdrew from the class prior to the end of the semester

Discussion of research results and research limitations

Findings

The approach taken with the participants resulted in improved awareness among the participants regarding choices they made when writing in English. During the semester, students demonstrated the ability to incorporate material related to nine different genres into their writing. However, analysis indicated that the participants were still prone to errors, both major and minor, in their writing.

Discussion of study results

This research presents a creative writing course that focused on improving components of TS students' written English. The course is assumed to be a pedagogical tool for solving the problem of the occurrence of third language and translationese. The design of the syllabus aimed at enhancing the correctness of the students' written English, enhancing familiarity with common genres, and deepening students' understanding of a given genre's cultural background. Providing feedback for TS students' efforts at communicative English without the burden of translation was vital for their understanding of the effectiveness of their skills in the area of written English.

Participants were exposed to a wide variety of genres and were challenged to learn typical and culturally relevant lexis. What is remarkable is that seven out of the twenty participants chose formidable material for their final assignment: either the formatted essay from the *This I Believe* radio show (This I believe, n.d.) or

a dialogue script from a true story (Christian Gerhartsreiter 2010) that came from international headlines. These two assignments challenged participants to address interference from their primary language. The assignments allowed students to use their creativity in making lexical choices and encouraged them to use more original vocabulary. The three final assignments opened students to take note of aspects of written language – for example, rhythm, stress, and how text hangs together – in a way that does not usually happen during the process of translation.

Providing participants with feedback that addressed the correctness of English and that addressed major and minor errors had a significant impact on students. By making TS students aware of major errors in their written English, one result may be that they develop a better understanding of possible problems with their work, e.g. they may develop the habit of self-revision to ensure a commission is of deliverable quality.

Still, it was disheartening to see major errors in some of the participants' written English. The major errors, as defined by Mossop, relate directly to the occurrence of a third-language or translationese. The question then becomes: Can TS department at the university level address the shortcomings found in EFL students' L2 writing prior to graduation? If not, then the problematic translations found in the Polish context will continue (see Korzeniowska & Kuhiwczak 2005: 65). On the other hand, if TS departments can address the problems, the overall level of translation seen in Poland can potentially improve.

Participants indicated during the research that they valued feedback from a native English speaker. Given that this research refers to an EFL situation, the findings of Dixon et al. (2012) are somewhat stark regarding second language acquisition: that is, the need for a native speaker in effective foreign language learning. It should be noted, however, that Dixon et al. were synthesizing findings from four different areas of research: foreign language education, child language research, socio-cultural studies, and psycholinguistics. Yet they are unambiguous in their findings:

> It is striking that results from foreign language educators and from child language researchers, studying learners of different ages and in different settings, converge so powerfully on the importance of amount of input and interaction with native speakers in explaining both speed of acquisition and level of proficiency attained; combining perspectives from those two approaches might help generate a more unified explanation for the observation that older learners are more efficient but less likely to achieve native-like proficiency (Dixon et al. 2012: 46).

However, it is fair to say that in the context of this research, university TS programs will need to address the problem of translationese whether or not native English speakers are on university staff.

In summary, the creative writing class conducted among TS students helped them utilize a foreign language (English) by having them work directly into English, thus helping them be more aware of interference from their first language. It also provided students with native speaker feedback on their performance as writers using a foreign language.

Limitations

The period in which the data were collected, one semester, should be extended in order to gain a more comprehensive measure of the impact of creative writing on students' writing and translating skills. In the future, the impact of such instruction in the area of translation into foreign language could be measured by examining both pre-graduation and post-graduation work produced by TS students. This would be a longitudinal study that followed TS students and their work while they are enrolled at a university to the period when they begin accepting commissions as professional translators.

Conclusions

TS programs in Poland must strive for excellence in written English produced by those who graduate from their programs. The challenges facing TS students and translators in Poland, which include L1 interference, foreign language instruction, lack of feedback, level of cultural knowledge, and lexical choices, have to be addressed. To do so, this research proposed employing creative writing classes, which would improve the decision-making processes TS students undergo both during the process of translating and when writing directly into English. Two strategies were undertaken in parallel during the course. First, TS students learned and practiced a range of genres common to English. Second, these students learned and practiced lexical choices and constructions used in each genre in order to improve the quality and accuracy of the translations they produced.

The stakes are high for TS studies based in Poland. The quality and accuracy of translations produced in Poland impact the country's functioning within the European Union and in the greater international community. By including a creative writing course in their curricula, university TS programs in Poland can impact the quality of graduates' written English and can prepare professional translators to perform at a high level in the Polish context. As a result, TS programs can in turn impact the general level of English translation found in Poland.

Several interesting topics for future research can be seen in light of this research. How to more effectively and efficiently use Mossop's assessment process for TS students in the classroom is an extraordinarily interesting matter. The answers to two significant questions – how to distinguish between major and minor errors and how to distinguish the degrees of quality of translations – are worth pursuing. Mossop addresses many areas in the category of assessing translations and translators. The answers to these questions are equally relevant for creative writing classes, TS programs, TS students, translation agencies, and companies that employ translators, including those entities located in Poland.

Another area for additional research is that of virtual systems of feedback, including real-time feedback. It is worth exploring ways in which teachers, instructors, editors, employers, and others who work in the area of second language writing could better use digital technology, e.g. Cloud computing, MS Word,

open-source software etc., to train and develop individuals in the area of written English. There is great potential in this topic, and exploring it further could yield significant results.

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Podwyższanie jakości przekładu w Polsce: pisanie twórcze jako narzędzie w nauczaniu tłumaczenia

Streszczenie

Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia badanie typu action research, w ramach którego do programu nauczania na specjalności przekładoznawstwo wprowadzono zajęcia z twórczego pisania w celu poprawienia jakości tłumaczeń na język obcy. Badanie poruszało problemy studentów ww. kierunku, których tłumaczenia zawierały elementy tzw. „trzeciego języka" lub *translationese*. Założono, że obecność tych elementów była spowodowana przez interferencję języka źródłowego w języku docelowym. W badaniu uczestniczyło 24 studentów drugiego roku studiów dziennych z Polski. Uczestnicy brali udział w autorskich zajęciach z pisania twórczego, mających na celu poszerzenie ich wiedzy o gatunkach literackich obecnych w języku docelowym oraz ćwiczenie stosowania języka docelowego na zaawansowanym poziomie, a w rezultacie – zminimalizowanie wpływu interferencji L1 i poprawę jakości tekstów pisanych w L2. Badanie skupiało się na: 1) pisaniu bezpośrednio w języku angielskim, 2) rozwijaniu praktycznego rozumienia angielskiej składni, 3) rozszerzaniu zakresu dokonywanych wyborów leksykalnych oraz 4) wzbogacaniu świadomości kulturowej dotyczącej języka obcego za pomocą analizy dziewięciu gatunków literackich. Uzyskane wyniki pokazują, że uczestnicy dokonywali wyborów leksykalnych podczas pisania po angielsku bardziej świadomie. Uczestnicy potrafili zastosować nauczane treści w pisanych tekstach, mimo że teksty te wciąż zawierały błędy.

Słowa kluczowe: pisanie twórcze, studia przekładoznawcze, trzeci język, translationese

Appendix

Appendix I. Class A schedule of class topics (genres)

Nr.	Genre & Language (Reference material)	Homework
1	Genre: Interviews (Proust Questionnaire, n.d.) Language: Idioms (Collis 1987: 1–10)	Write a summary of a Proust interview done with a partner.
2	Genre: Journalism (Own) Language: Action verbs (Azar 2002: 11)	Write a newspaper article about a fictional auto accident or a fictional crime. Write short essay: make up a story about someone you see in a café.
3	Genre: Press Release (Own) Language: Active vs. passive voice (Strunk & White 2000: 18–19)	Write a press release about a fictional company.
4	Genre: Newsletter article (Own) Language: Slang (Burke 2005: 75–88)	Write a newsletter article about a university function. Write an article that includes all the slang phrases reviewed in class related to being „On the road" and related phrasal verbs.
5	Genre: Blog content, social media content (Own) Language: Adjectives (Azar 2002: 100–117)	Write a blog post for a fictional cupcake shop Write an article about your university life in Kraków or an article about life in Poland in general.

6	Genre: Business Slogans (Own) Language: Agreement of subject-verb (Azar 2002: 84–92)	Write advertising copy for a fictional product the student might start.
7	Genre: Presentations (Powell 2002: 20–30) Language: Useful expressions (O'Dell 1997: 35)	Create a presentation about a business (fictional or otherwise) you start. Give presentation in class.
8	Genre: Website content (Strunk & White 2000: 20–33) Language: Nouns with prepositions (O'Dell 1997: 19–24)	Write website content for a fictional company.
9	Telling the story: How to write a short story (Own) Language: Phrasal verb: Get (Hart 2009: 322–328)	Assignment: Create a story based on either: 1. This I Believe (an essay) (This I Believe, 2011) 2. Rumble Story (a short story) (Own) 3. Clark Rockefeller/Christian Gerhartsreiter (a dialogue/script) (Christian Gerhartsreiter, n.d.; Who is Clark Rockefeller?, 2010)
10	Final presentation	N/A

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Grzegorz Wlaźlak
Silesian University of Technology

Lexicalization and institutionalization of neoclassical forms with *-ity* and *-ness* in 18th-century English dictionaries

Introduction

Most handbooks on the English language history raise a claim that the 18th century was an age of systematic pruning of new words that had been incorporated into English in the preceding ages of massive vocabulary enrichment (cf. Williams 1975; Millward 1988; Cable & Baugh 1993). By pruning they understand a radical drop in the number of newly coined forms due to the prescriptive pattern of good practices and a proscriptive approach to bad ones. The 18th-century vocabulary enrichment was also frequently referred to in the literature on historical linguistics as the age of classical correctness, initiating the times of linguistic codification (Beale 2010: 22), i.e. the intensified process of prescription transferred throughout the number of authoritative grammars and dictionaries, access to which was widespread and common. In the last decades of the century, the atmosphere of „linguistic insecurity" was a general characteristic of the language due to many new forms, neologisms and doublets that were annotated in dictionaries as legacy of the times. Some lexemes did not exist in public discourse at all, but appeared in dictionaries, e.g. „*abacot* – a Royal Cup of State made of two Crowns" (Phillips, *The New World of Words* 1720: 13), *dissoned – dissonant?* (Bailey 1731), *depectible or depertible* – tough, clammy, tenacious (Johnson *Dictionary* 1755: 569). Such fictive words were called by some critics 'ghost words' or, as Dr Johnson named them, mere 'dictionary words', which is a signal that 18th-century lexicographers had little sense of **lexicalization** or a very vague idea of the phenomenon. The adoption of a given lexeme into a dictionary (nowadays formally understood as **institutionalization** as in Bauer 1983: 2001) for linguistic authorities of the time signified the approval and acceptance of the products of earlier work.

> The lexicographers were rather like the beneficiaries of a will, undermining the modern notion of plagiarism or copyrights. The compilers preferred to include the unknown word rather than to face the charge of ignorance or neglect (Mugglestone 2010: 314).

In this paper we shall concentrate on the validity of these statements using some aspects of the theory of lexicalization and institutionalization, processes

that affect complex linguistic structures, both on the syntactic and lexical levels. The initial section discusses the basic terms used in the paper from the position of the study of morphology. The following sections will concentrate on the selected competing suffixes *-ness* and *-ity* in English with reference to 18th-century examples of their forms in dictionaries. This will be followed by an analysis of the selected research material to show how the lexicalized forms in *-ness* and *-ity* used to be presumably accessed by the users. The final part is an attempt to reach conclusions with reference to the modern state of research.

Word-formation – discussion of terms

Leonhard Lipka (1992) claims that word-formation may start as a neologism formation by a single speaker or a specified group and subsequently, under the pressure of certain sociolinguistic factors (e.g. industrial and scientific revolution, socio-political upheaval etc.). A newly coined derivative might gain a wider status as part of the established vocabulary of a given community, and also admittedly, be included in the existing dictionaries (a mode of institutionalizing). Lipka argues that lexicalization is a gradual, historical process that involves all types of changes, e.g. phonological, semantic, and signifies a loss of motivation, all combined in one lexical item. This is the only way to explain all irregularities of the lexicon, especially at its early stages of development. It is through their frequent use that the lexical items lose their syntagmatic nature and become units with specific content, thus blurring the border line between complex and simple lexemes.

After this stage, lexical items become subject to semantic change, provided they are of frequent use in a given language, as it happens in the case of most lexical forms. This effect may be explained by the constituents of the combination that stop to contribute to the meaning of the item in question and thus the combination becomes semantically opaque and lexicalized, which in practice means that no further interpretations are possible for this morphosemantic structure (Kastovsky 2005: 114). All the above presented processes greatly enhance the unity of the language lexicon by fostering the dynamics of the lexicon on various linguistic levels. However, Lipka observes that both lexicalization and institutionalization do not belong to the level of *langue* (systematic word-formation), as understood by de Saussure, nor to the level of *parole* (specific, concrete realizations), therefore a third option is needed, the norm (1992: 96). This seems to be a plausible solution to account for the users' choices between alternative word-formation types (e.g. *fluid > fluidity/fluidness*, *folly/foolishness*, Nathan Bailey's *Dictionary*, 1731), lexical gaps or habitual disambiguation. With these in mind, we are going to concentrate on the combinations containing neoclassical forms ending in *ness* and *ity* in 18th-century English dictionaries, since the morphological status of such forms is still unclear. It must be openly stated that historical dictionaries do not catalogue all possible uses of lexemes in all types of texts.

Hans Marchand (1960, 1969) contends that most European languages, including English, have practically two principles on which they base their word-formation: native and non-native. Following this, we should be more interested not in

the etymology of a given combination, although it may add some hints concerning its morphosemantic structure, but more in the mechanism of its formation: native pattern or a pattern of the source language, from the synchronic point of view. As a consequence, on the morphological level, the English language system possesses different types of affixes that select bases from different lexical strata. Marchand (1969) lists 56 prefixes out of 66 that are of foreign origin and 48 of the total 80 suffixes. There are other authors who claim English derivational morphology is not stratified according to [+/- foreign] feature as proposed by Marchand and others (Rainer 1993: 129), but according to [+/- Latinate] feature solely. As Plag (2004: 84) suggests, the Latinate feature, being dominant, favours and facilitates other competing suffixes to attach to non-Latinate bases, take *-ity/-ness* variants in e.g. *opaque-ness* vs. *opacity*. Particularly interesting for our analysis is the last criterion, especially when it applies to the diachronic substitution of one affix by another (*-ity/-ness*, *-ive/-ory* or *-al/-ment*) preceded in terms of a historical change by a stage of competition between an indigenous, sometimes older and less productive affix, and a new variant with a more productive affix (Bauer 2001: 177).

Theoretical approaches to neoclassical forms

The aforementioned classic, Hans Marchand (1969), remarks the problem of coining patterns from Latin and Greek when some forms do not exist, although there is a potential morphological rule to produce them. The author explains this phenomenon by the fact that in a due course of extensive borrowing from the source language like Latin, the prefixes derived from this source lose their identifiable meanings, which, in consequence, enforces lexical listing for all words formed with them. In Marchand (1969: 130), we may find other reasons for these operations: first individual lexical items are borrowed, and after a certain point a formal-semantic relationship can be established so that the pattern can be extended to new formations by analogy, until the word-formation process finally becomes productive. However, at a certain stage of vocabulary expansion, the abundance of borrowings affects the whole word-formation system, which in turn, either makes some forms obsolete (sometimes it affects native ones, like *-th* de-adjectival forms: *ruth* ('pity' from *rue*; *spilth* from *to spill*; *tilth* from *to till*; *berth* from 'to bring the ship into its stop'; *drouth*? *mowth* as 18th-century 'mowing,' or *gloomth* and *greenth* ascribed to Walpole in Bauer 2003: 73, 206) or causes them to compete, not only between native and non-native elements but also the non-native newly acquired forms (hence we have various negative prefixes of the type: *a-*, *dis-*, *non-* and finally *in-* with all their allomorphic versions like *il-*, *ir-*, *im-*; Kastovsky 2005: 169).

Many linguists maintain that the proportion of new terms in the lexical intake grew steadily throughout the eighteenth century (Marchand 1969: 131; Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 66; Stockwell & Minkova 2001). English speakers and writers in different periods began to combine these foreign affixes with native bases, increasingly borrowing derivations from Latin or Greek. Several morphological problems remain unresolved such as the answer to the question when the

English users started to perceive new elements as potential English affixes or morphemes; what were the mechanisms deciding about the choices made during the process of derivation, why certain bases go better with certain affixes and why they do not accept others; why certain word-forms were blocked (semantically or morpho-phonologically); what are the roots of some derivatives, nominal or adjectival (e.g. *generate > general >*generalness > generality*; *rotate > rotation*; *locate > local > locality/*localness*), and lastly how they find the way into the dictionary of a language?

The historical linguistics methods and available written records may turn out to be incomplete or lacking background, but what they reveal is a tendency in the users' ability to decompose a derivative into a base and an independent affix, the process called analyzability. This is a fundamental factor in neologizing, just like the perceived productivity of an affix, because the users are able to see these affixes as independent units of language that can attach to a wide range of bases and potentially create new lexemes. This operation increases the users' confidence to employ new items in the active lexicon and derivational activity. Frequent application of a new item in lexical combinations leads to the loss of the sense of 'foreignness' of some loaned items or morphemes.

The notion of lexicalization and institutionalization

The two processes above refer to, and in particular, affect lexical items that did not have a definitely established status in the community of language users (Marchand 1969; Lipka 1972; Kastovsky 1982; Bauer 1983). Kastovsky, for instance, understands the notion of lexicalization as the incorporation of a complex lexeme with specific properties into the lexicon. These specific properties are responsible for further distinctions among the two types of lexicalization recognized by Kastovsky, i.e. idiosyncratic and systemic. The idiosyncratic one usually leads to the formation of idiomatic terms, when the semantic changes are so extreme that the meaning of the whole lexeme cannot be derived from its constituent parts. The other type known as systemic lexicalization consists in semantic features added to the noun in a regular pattern (*smoke > smoker = gamble > gambler*) (Lipka 1972: 75).

For Bauer, contrary to Kastovsky, lexicalization is a diachronic process and the author presents, in an explicit way, the stages of the development of the complex word from a nonce formation coined by the users at a specific moment to meet certain specific needs, through the stage of institutionalization, when only one possible meaning of the word is selected at the expense of losing its potential ambiguity, i.e. the nonce word becomes familiar and accepted by other users as a known lexical item. It must be noted that the institutionalization stage does not take place because of linguistic activity of an individual, but due to some changes in the language system, and the word comes into general use in the society and is listed in dictionaries. It is at this particular moment that the coined lexeme takes on the form which it could not have acquired if it had been the effect of a productive rule, in his understanding the word is lexicalized (Bauer 1983: 45).

Institutionalization, according to Bauer, is the societal use of the word closely connected with blocking. Institutionalization means the presence in the dictionary but also in public use (2001: 80).

Finally, Lipka gives his own interpretation of the two terms, where lexicalization can be understood primarily from a historical perspective because it is the result of:

> the process by which complex lexemes tend to become a single unit with specific content, through frequent use [...] a gradual and historical process involving phonological and semantic changes and the loss of motivation. These changes may be combined in a single word (Lipka 1992: 107).

Institutionalization, on the other hand, is the consequence of the semantic changes in the previous process and should be approached synchronically, by studying the addition or loss of semantic features, the degree of idiomaticity of the given item as it represents purely sociolinguistic aspect of the process. Lipka defines it as „the integration of a lexical item with the particular form and meaning, into the existing stock of words as a generally acceptable and current lexeme" (2002a: 112). These two processes are independent and seem to be fundamental for the extension of the lexicon of a language and play an important role in what he calls „dynamic lexicology," where the institutionalized and lexicalized complex forms of words are registered and listed in good dictionaries to represent one more level of language, the norm of the language.

Analysis

For the purpose of the analysis we take the patterns of formations with *-ness* and *-ity* suffixes that appear on a regular basis in 18th-century dictionaries, the former attested as a native one, the later representing a non-native item. There exists a sumptuous amount of literature concerning both suffixes in scholarly investigation: Matthews (1974), Aronoff (1976), Randall (1980), Kiparsky (1982), Romaine (1983), Van Marle (1985). Both suffixes represent the type of synonymous affixes that can be formally general and quite regular according to Carstairs-McCarthy (2001), where „general" means that it can attach to most adjectives and produces, as a result, a fairly predictable noun with a predictable meaning. „Regular" stands for the feature of the adjective the suffix can be attached to (e.g. any adjective in the case of *-ness*), even if such a form does not exist or is not used by convention (in the case of *-ity* > **richity*) its meaning is quite transparent.

It is well known that *-ity* nouns more than *-ness* nouns are likely to develop lexicalized meanings. Compare, for instance, *activeness* and *activity*, *capableness* and *capability*: the second member in these pairs can signal just the quality of the base adjective, but can also mean 'a faculty or property', respectively. New *-ness* nouns are likely to have only a quality sense, cf. *differentness* and *miserableness* (Adams 2001: 32). There is a list of potential bases for the suffix in most handbooks on morphology (Marchand 1969; Lieber 1992; Carstairs-McCarthy 2002; Plag 2004), such as adjectives terminating in *-ive* (*selective*), in *-able* (*capable*), in *-al* (*local*) and its variant *-ar* (*insular*), adjectives in *-ic* (*electric*) and in *-id* (*liquid*), as well as these in *-ous* (*viscous*) with its allomorphic option *-ose*.

Both suffixes were typical in the works of 18th-century lexicographers representing the so-called 'encyclopedia' type, such as John Kersey (1702) and Thomas Blount (ed. 1707), and 'universal dictionary' type, e.g. Nathan Bailey (1745) or Dr Samuel Johnson (1755). Formal patterns of these suffixes are more evident, if we classify them according to the forms they take as dictionary headword entries. The table below presents the instances of the suffixes in question, including all occurrences of lexemes ending in *-ity/-ness*.

Tab. 1. Suffix *-ness*/*-ity* forms in selected dictionaries (LEME corpus)

Author, dictionary, date of publication, abbreviation	**Number of attested entries ending with suffix:**		**Number of doublets/ triplets**
	-ness	***-ity***	
John Kersey, *A New English Dictionary*, (JK) 1702	**828** in headwords	**262** in headwords	3
Thomas Blount, *Glossographia* (TB) 1707	**626** mostly in explanations	**424** mostly headwords	6
Nathan Bailey, *Universal Dictionary*, (NB) 1745 entries from **A** to **K** only	**2274** in headwords	**298** in headwords	7
Samuel Johnson, *The Dictionary*, (SJ) 1755 entries from **A** to **K** as above	**1700** in headwords	**692** in headwords	85

As can be seen, the last two authors (NB, SJ) in the list comprise almost the double of *-ness/-ity* forms, respectively, if compared with the other data. Blount (TB) as a typical copyist of 17th-century dictionaries records only the so-called 'hard words,' where the suffix *-ity* was usually used with learned, specialist language, therefore it prevails. Kersey (JK) and Bailey (NB) concentrate mostly on scientific and technical terms, but still the proportion shows the preference for *-ity* in learned vocabulary and preference for *-ness* in explanations and definitions of terms. Let us confer some sample definitions from Blount (TB) and then from Bailey (NB):

Thomas Blount (1707) *Glossographia*, letter A:
Abstrusity (from *abstrudo*) darkness, secrecy. Dr Brown.
Acclivity (*acclivitas*) steepness
Acerbity (*acerbitas*) a sour or sharp taste, cruelty, roughness
Acetosity (*acetositas*) sourness, sharpness, the substance or taste of vinegar
Acidity (*aciditas*) sharpness. Lord Bac.

Nathan Bailey (1745) *A Universal Etymological Dictionary of English*, letter A:
Acclivity (*acclivitas*, L.) is a steepness reckoned upwards on a slope (...)
Acidity (with Chymists) or keenness of any liquor (...)
Alternity (*alternitas*, L.) interchangeableness
Amability (*amabilitas*, L.) amiableness, loveliness
Ambitiosity (*ambitiositas*, L.) ambitiousness

With Bailey and Johnson, the number of these attestations increases suddenly, where formations in *-ness* are almost double or triple if compared with the formations in *-ity*. As the examples above show, formations with *-ity* appear predominantly in the headwords of dictionary entries as less transparent, while *-ness* formations tend to occur mostly in explanations and definitions, being attached both to native and foreign bases. Though the number of headwords with *-ness* suffixes significantly exceeds *-ity* entries in all dictionaries (cf. Table 1). The conclusion may be that the lexical status of these forms was still very unstable as far as their compositionality status is concerned. The authors, instead of pruning the unauthorized forms, decided to record most of them together with their competing alternative forms; cf. the number of doublets and triplets in the last column in Table 2.

Tab. 2. Instances of doublets and triplets attested in Dictionaries

Examples of doublets and triplets	Doublets in SJ	Triplets in SJ
Acidity / acidness TB, NB	Capableness – capability	Authenticness – authenticalness – authenticity
Activity / activeness NB	Capaciousness – capacity	Bruteness – brutishness – brutality
Austerity / austereness JK	Ceremonialness – ceremoniousness	Deceitfulness – deceivableness – deceptibility
Amfractuosity/amfractuousness NB	Compactedness – compactness	Enmity – enemity – inamity
Fatality / fatalness TB	Complexedness – complexness	Extensiveness – extensibleness – extensibility
Firmity / firmness JK	Corrosibleness – corrodibility	Homogenealness – homogeneousness – homogeneity
Fixity / fixedness JK	Deformedness – deformity	
Ingenuity / ingenuousness TB	Divineness – divinity	
Rapidity / rapidness TB	Facticness – facticalness	
Tardity / tardiness TB	Inhospitableness – inhospitality	

Upon a closer analysis of the above data, it seems evident that certain forms reveal a tendency similar to the one shown by the suffix *-ity*, which is still less general but possible and the meaning of such a form is quite transparent (e.g. *corrosibility* in Kersey, or *autumnity* in Bailey). Even if some patterns are formally irregular, e.g. verbs *reflect* and *reflex* in Chambers are synonymous and formally similar disyllabic lexemes, the derived nouns differ, cf. *reflection* and *reflexibility*. It is obvious that *-ity* represents the Latinate type of an affix and prefers Latinate bases, or bound morphemes, while *-ness* may be attached to all kinds of bases. From the historical point of view, the question arises how the users who were not qualified in classical languages selected the two: the base and the affix. Proscriptive practice might have intervened in certain instances on the phonological grounds correlating Latin bases with Latin affixes as vowel-initial, while native ones tended to be consonant-initial without affecting the structure of the base. One more argument for this type of selection lies in the levels of affix ordering: Latinate affixes do not combine with native ones as in *kindness* + (*-ity* or *-ancy*), while native affixes frequently tolerated non-native affixes (*reflexive-ness*) (Dressler 2005).

Such a tendency is explained by Dressler's two principles: constructional iconicity and transparency, where iconicity stands for more meaning most naturally reflected by more form: e.g. *fixity/fixedness*, *firmity/firmness* but also *deformity*

= unpleasantness, *fatness = obesity* etc. The transparency of all these items is evident in their formal clarity on the semantic and phonological levels (Dressler 2005: 274). Different forms may represent various stages of institutionalization of these forms, which are already attested in the lexicon. Some forms survived in optional, competing versions of lexemes for the same concept, thus extending the number of choices for semantic diversification. The derived structures are compared as for acceptability without eliminating any of them, as various constraints must be taken into account, such as:

- semantic restrictions, when such a lexeme already exists in the target language with similar or exact meaning (*glory* not **gloriosity*, but *curiosity* not **cury*),
- morphological restrictions, when some word-formation rules block the derivation if the base has a particular internal structure, e.g. *acceptable* > *acceptability* (deverbal suffix) but not *acceptableness*; while *charity* > *charitable* (denominal suffix) *charitableness* but not *charitability*,
- phonological restrictions with the stress change (*rapid* > *rapidity*).

As a result of the above constraints, the forms that survive tend to become lexicalized, most of *-ity* derivatives are lexicalized and become permanently incorporated into the lexicon with their idiosyncratic meanings (*gravity*, *verity*), whilst the others are blocked. Blocking applies when the two items are entirely synonymous, which is not always the case. Blocking does not work with certain affixes, and *-ness/-ity* is an example of that (Bauer 2001: 81). In morphology, this type of blocking is called type-blocking, when one affix stops another because each can be applied to a certain domain. In the case of *-ness/-ity*, we have a general domain reserved for *-ness*, which can be attached to any adjective thus creating a very general idea, a characteristic, and *-ity* with a specific domain, as can be observed in the examples provided above. However, both suffixes are not entirely synonymous on the one hand, and not entirely rival on the other, which is evident from the attested doublets (in some cases triplets). Due to high occurrence of certain lexical forms lexicographers increased their frequency in the lexicon, thus bringing about a blocking effect of certain forms according to the rule: the higher frequency of the blocking word, the stronger the blocking effect. It was observed that only low frequency items were tolerated as doublets (Rainer 2005: 337), which leads to the conclusion that the bases of the patterns of word formation must be possible words, not potential words. Rainer (2005) mentions the type blocking when there exists a synonymous pattern but the word may never exist, or free variation forms appear with more general and more specific pattern, as in *-ness/-ity* for style or register distinctions (e.g. *selectivity* for technical sense, and *selectiveness* for others). These constraints and restrictions oblige the users to carry out morphological analysis of the base, bringing about semantic lexicalization of these items under the influence of certain language internal or extralinguistic changes.

In conclusion, some forms listed above became lexicalized and institutionalized as members of the existing lexicon. The formal behaviour of the suffixes *-ness* and *-ity* shows one more inherent feature of their structure, i.e. formal regularity

does not imply formal generality. If we search through contemporary dictionaries, we may find a list of potential bases for these two suffixes, such as: *offensive*, *aggressive*, *social*, *chemical*, *lunar*, *nuclear*, *strategic*, *allergic*, *languid*, *horrid*, and *gracious* with no corresponding nouns that appear in common use, i.e. as an entry in a dictionary. However, if we look at the problem diachronically, in the lexicographical works cited above we may find plenty of forms such as: *offensivity*, *sociality*, *verticity*, *vertuality* etc. According to Steriade (1999), the common tendency in morphology is to maintain the formal identity between the base and the derivative even at the expense of too long forms, provided they have no rival forms in the existing lexicon or the shorter ones as was the case with *glory* but not *cury*. She goes further on with her principle of Lexical Conservatism stating that: „Newly coined forms are penalized if they do not closely resemble already existing forms" (Steriade 1999: 245). The superfluous or unnecessary weird forms are eliminated in the process of the common use as the last instance (*cury*), because derivation often tolerates duplicated or longish forms with similar, even overlapping semantic fields: *fecundity = fruitfulness*, *affrontiveness = abusiveness*, *alimentariness = nourishing*, *analogicalness = proportional*, *authenticalness = genuineness*. The dictionaries of each period show the characteristic word-formation processes of the times and sometimes they reveal total freedom of coining new words with certain limits to each rule, such as the fact that the suffix *-ity* does not automatically generate the noun because there exists a suitable base to form such a noun.

Still, the open question remains how language speakers decide to select among the alternative forms giving the priority to some at the expense of the others. Lipka (1994) proposes such factors to reconsider in this context:

1. social phenomena unaffected by linguistic factors,
2. mixture of linguistic and non-linguistic factors

Pavol Štekauer (2000: 3) in his onomasiological theory of word formation claims that there are many possible ways to form a suitable naming unit, but only one happens to be chosen, and the result is that all word-formation rules are sufficiently productive, but they may simply be not used on a given occasion or at a point of time, because of the choices made by the linguistic authorities (e.g. in times of prescriptivism and proscriptive approach to language) or style, register etc. This does not imply that these rules were not available; quite on the contrary, they had always been an inherent element of the language structures. The analysis above, however, shows that many new items were institutionalized as possible dictionary entries because, just like the set of possible and existing words is not finite, the set of possible but non-existing words is also infinite, with no specific rules to restrict the degree of complexity of derived items. The only exception, as some researchers have noticed, is the matter of performance, i.e. the pronunciation of long words, and/or memory when complex items difficult to remember were first eliminated in the competition to be lexicalized and institutionalized (Booij 1977).

Conclusions

The 18th century was an age of new word-formations still flooding the English language lexicon, some processes became more productive, others became less frequently applied or completely abandoned. The number of new formations, alternatives and doublets undermines the premise of language pruning and vocabulary reductions. The fact that so many forms in *-ness* and *-ity* were suddenly listed as headwords of the dictionary entries (cf. Table 1) proves that many of these formations were still unfamiliar to the average user or required explanation and formal confirmation by the contemporary language authorities as acceptable. New words attestations in dictionaries were constantly published in the lexicographical works in various forms, thus promoting their use and institutionalizing the status. This tendency proves that the age of classicism continued the practices of previous centuries, at least on the lexical level of the language. The dictionaries tell us a lot about the ways certain lexemes entered the English language lexicon and started to function as lexical items adopted by the majority of speakers, because subsequently the language authorities institutionalized them in the fashion of the century by prescribing ones and proscribing others.

The late 17th- and early 18th-century dictionaries virtually do not list *-ness* forms at all, e.g. Thomas Blount in his dictionary called *Glossographia* (1656, 1707), or they appear solely as explanations of neologisms and/or loanwords. After the publication of Nathan Bailey's *Universal Dictionary* (1731, 1745), forms with the *-ness* suffix appear listed as dictionary entries. It partly agrees with the statistical research on productivity of this suffix conducted by Aronoff and Ashen (1998: 240–241), who convincingly argue that forms with *-ity* need to be stored in the lexicon, while those with *-ness* are built by the rule nowadays. Hence the appearance of the native suffix *-ness* on non-native bases and the consequent occurrences of doublets such as *sincereness/sincerity*, *singularness/singularity*, *fatalness/fatality* (Marchand 1969: 335). These examples of affix rivalry in EMoE confirm the assumption that *-ity* is supposedly claiming the territory of *-ness* because *-ity* forms were treated solely as derivatives. However, many of them are in fact loanwords, too: *absurdity* 1529, *absurdness* 1587, *penetrability* 1609, *penetrableness* 1684 (Romaine 1985; Riddle 1985; Görlach 1991: 137; Aronoff & Ashen 1998; Nevalainen 1999: 339). The productivity of the suffix *-ness* scores much higher than that of the suffix *-ity*, because the native element can be appended to many bases, while the foreign origin suffix is restricted mostly to [+Latinate] bases, being subject to the blocking effect. What is more, the derivation with *-ness* is more coherent semantically and less opaque, while *-ity* renders mostly non-transparent output.

Another conclusion is that 18th-century lexicographers and codifiers could not handle the issue of prescriptive rules on lexis because it turned out to be a challenge to propose a word-formation rule that would yield only the correct set of complex derived words. Unlike with spelling or grammar, where it could sometimes be resolved by means of one treaty. Even the most productive and straightforward rules have restrictions, including *-ness* with possible but not accepted forms such as *decidedness*, or *-ity* with forms like *furiosity*, *gloriosity* etc. When in

doubt, people used different derived forms: *indecision/indecisiveness/undecidedness*, because certain patterns were not so widely used or attested by authorities. In the times of codification and prescriptivism, it was a recurrent problem, resulting in conflicting norms of correctness for readers who consulted dictionary entries for relevant words. Thus, the age of 'pruning' actually opened new gates for the wave of vocabulary items formed alongside new, modified principles.

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Leksykalizacja i instytucjonalizacja neoklasycznych derywatów na *-ity* i *-ness* w osiemnastowiecznych słownikach angielskich

Streszczenie

Artykuł koncentruje się na badaniu słownictwa okresu neoklasycyzmu w historii języka angielskiego. W literaturze fachowej panuje dość powszechne przekonanie, że był to okres kodyfikowania i kontroli rozwoju słownictwa. Jak wykazano w artykule, słowniki angielskie opublikowane w XVIII wieku pokazują odmienny obraz tego zjawiska. Analiza słownictwa z dość powszechnymi sufiksami *-ness* i *-ity* w kontekście leksykalizacji i instytucjonalizacji pojęć ujawnia współistniejące procesy morfologiczne, które skutkują tworzeniem dużej liczby nowych form, które są dość nietransparentne semantycznie. Autor analizuje również formalne uwarunkowania ww. sufiksów, aby wyjaśnić pewne nietypowe, ale potencjalnie możliwe, lecz zapomniane formy pojęć z punktu widzenia ich produktywności. Poddane są one analizie formalnej i semantycznej, w perspektywie synchronicznej i diachronicznej na bazie różnych teorii językoznawczych zajmujących się współcześnie analizą słowa.

Słowa kluczowe: leksykalizacja, instytucjonalizacja, sufiksy, słowniki, XVIII wiek

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Katarzyna Nosidlak
Pedagogical University of Cracow

A report on the international conference on Child Foreign Language Learning (CFLL). Between Theory and Practice, Kraków, Poland, 28–30 April, 2016

As a proud representative of the organizing committee of the international conference on *Child Foreign Language Learning (CFLL). Between Theory and Practice*, I would like to share my impressions of this event with the readers of *Annales Universitatis Paedagogicae Cracoviensis Studia Anglica.*

The conference was a three-day event (28–30 April, 2016) and was initiated by Professor Joanna Rokita-Jaśkow, *the Chair of English Language Teaching* at the *Institute of Modern Languages at the Department of English Studies at the Pedagogical University of Cracow. The conference organizing committee was composed of the department employees, including Werona Król-Gierat, the conference secretary, Małgorzata Marzec-Stawiarska, Melanie Ellis, Albertyna Paciorek, Agnieszka Strzałka and Katarzyna Nosidlak.* The event was organized in partnership with the publishing house Nowa Era, and under the auspices of REYLL (the Research into Early Years Research Network).

The event was inspired by the changes introduced to the system of foreign-language education in Poland. Specifically, following the European language policy guidelines in respect of 'an early start' in a foreign language, on 1st September 2015 obligatory foreign language instruction at pre-primary level was introduced in Poland. This decision has made Poland one of the first European countries in which a foreign language is taught to very young learners.

Recent educational analyses show that the trend towards the promotion of 'an early start' has the potential to develop in various countries around the world – in terms of research, educational innovation, curricula, and materials. Therefore, due to the popularity of this trend in the field of modern foreign language pedagogy, we were successful in bringing together language specialists from a number of countries, such as Croatia, Norway, Turkey, Spain, France, Sweden, Portugal, Great Britain and the Czech Republic, representing different areas of research and practice. It is also noteworthy that the conference gathered practically all Polish experts ever involved in child foreign language education: researchers, curricula developers, coursebook writers etc. The conference was intended as a forum of exchange of knowledge and experience from the sphere of language learning, which

included such topics as: 1) similarities and differences between early learning of foreign and second languages; 2) the abilities of the (very) young learner, including the topics of metalinguistic awareness, phonological awareness, linguistic creativity etc.; 3) the ways of implementing European policy with reference to early language learning; 4) the psycho-pedagogical aspects of teaching and learning foreign languages for young and very-young learners; 5) teaching language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, writing, and language subsystems, for example, vocabulary and pronunciation; 6) developing intercultural skills; 7) the evaluation of materials, course-books and syllabuses; 7) the use of new technologies, including apps, internet resources, interactive whiteboards etc.; 8) broadly understood educational discourse; 8) teaching foreign languages to children with special educational needs; 9) the social contexts of early foreign-language learning, for example, the importance of parental involvement, teacher/school support etc.; 9) the diagnosis of school readiness for a foreign language; 10) young-learner teacher evaluation.

The plenary lectures were delivered by distinguished researchers from the field of child foreign language learning. On the first day of the conference Prof. Victoria Murphy from the Department of Education, Oxford University, Great Britain, delivered a warmly received lecture entitled *„The age myth: the role of age in learning foreign languages."* As the title of the lecture suggests, Murphy countered the popular belief about the determining role of a learner's age in second language acquisition, and explained why it is not the most important variable among the factors influencing the process of foreign language acquisition. She underlined the significance of various mutual influences between age and other factors, such as materials and other individual learner differences, including, for example, attitudes and motivation. Additionally, Murphy highlighted the role of the specific context in which young learners learn a foreign language.

The second plenary lecture, entitled *„English in pre-primary education in Europe: integrating and emulating,"* was delivered by Dr Sandie Mourão from Nova University, Lisbon, Portugal. Her talk summarized the available data on the issue of foreign language practices adopted by teachers working with very young learners in Europe, focusing on the examples of good practices in terms of methodologies, approaches, curricula construction and teacher qualifications. In her presentation, Dr Mourão highlighted the importance of play, routine and child-initiated language activity.

On the second day of the conference Prof. Małgorzata Pamuła-Behrens from the Pedagogical University of Kraków spoke on the importance of developing reading skills. During her plenary lecture, Prof. Pamuła-Behrens presented the current research in this field and also shared her knowledge and expertise on this issue in the Polish educational context. The lecture was followed by a presentation of a representative of the Nowa Era publishing house, Dr Paweł Poszytek, who discussed the role of a range of factors ensuring ultimate success in an individual's journey to foreign language proficiency. Among other factors, Dr Poszytek accentuated the importance of 'an early start' and presented its role in the Polish educational system.

All the plenaries were inspirational and thought-provoking for the participants in the conference, which was evident from the number of questions asked after each of them.

Throughout the conference, I had the opportunity to attend various sessions, whose topics ranged from issues concerning the cognitive aspects of foreign-language acquisition and topics related to the evaluation and implementation of various teaching methods and learning strategies, to the ins and outs of effective teacher education. The presentations, delivered in both Polish and English, were grouped into thematic sessions, including: 1) teacher education, for example the issue of teacher language in a young-learner classroom; 2) learning strategies, e.g. reading awareness among young learners; 3) language policy, e.g. the plurilingual approach in language teaching; 4) language and cognition, e.g. the influence of the second and third languages on the development of a child's working memory; 4) material evaluation, e.g. the relevance of lexis in textbooks for young learners; 5) teaching methods, e.g. teaching pronunciation to primary-school learners and hand puppets as a valuable teaching resource; 6) pre-primary contexts, e.g. practice in multilingual contexts, using the case study of a Shanghai kindergarten; 7) metalinguistic awareness, for instance, language awareness in pre-school children; 8) special education needs, e.g. working with especially gifted students; and the self-perception of students with special needs; 9) the role of parents and parental involvement in the process of foreign-language education; 10) the importance of intercultural skills, and 11) Polish as a foreign language. In summary, during the two days of the conference, almost 60 papers were presented by researchers from Poland and abroad.

The participants in the conference were also given the opportunity to vote for the best presentation. The winning paper, entitled *„Power relationships in an early foreign language classroom: insights from teacher training,"* was delivered by Ewa Guz and Małgorzata Tetiurka from the John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin. The ladies presented their analysis of 45 video recordings of lessons conducted by teacher trainees during their teaching practice. The aim of their study was to identify various teacher-related factors contributing to the successful establishment of teacher authority in the primary school classroom.

The smooth transition between theory and practice was especially underlined during the last day of the conference, which was devoted to the practical teacher training provided in a number of workshops. The coverage of the workshops was remarkably wide and included presentations devoted to, for example, the application of storytelling, flashcards, and British & American songs and rhymes. The workshops which were especially appreciated by the attending teachers were conducted by Sylvie Doláková from the Masaryk University, Brno, the Czech Republic. She presented various practical pronunciation exercises for young and very-young language learners, and also spoke about the possibilities of using simple stories as valuable materials for Content and Language Integrated Learning (CILL).

In addition, the participants in the conference were also given a chance to experience the magic of Kraków during a guided tour of the Old Town, and to share their impressions in a more relaxed atmosphere during the conference dinner at

the Hawełka restaurant, which has been operating since 1876, and is located in the Main Market Square, one of the largest and most magnificent mediaeval squares in Europe.

The conference turned out to be a great success, for which we sincerely thank everyone who took part, and it is very likely that it will become a regular event.