Second Language Learning and Teaching

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel
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At the Crossroads: Challenges of Foreign Language Learning

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Preface

At a glance foreign or second language (L2) learning can ostensibly be compared to the processes of learning any other school subject because it requires a systematic study of the content matter (e.g., vocabulary or grammar). However, a routine approach on the part of the student is not sufficient in attaining language proficiency. The reason is that this process additionally poses numerous challenges that are not only cognitive, but also personal and sociocultural. Understandably, the student's individual profile interplays with L2 learning and use. Among the most pronounced individual differences motivation, language aptitude, self-determination, personality and anxiety can be placed (MacIntyre, Clément, & Noels, 2007). Hence, the knowledge of some elements of the new language, for instance, grammatical structures may not prevent the student from a number of emotional reactions displayed while performing in the target language. The complex trajectories of an L2 acquisition are also accompanied by the development of the social aspects of language learning, for example the relation between attitudes towards the second language speaking group and the classroom. Furthermore, what makes language learning a unique, and at the same time challenging experience is the acquisition of the foreign language culture, which may "unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard-won communicative competence, challenging their ability to make sense of the world around them" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 1). Cultural differences have been found to constitute serious obstacles language learners have to overcome, leading to profound difficulties in the foreign language learning process. This risky interplay of powerful linguistic and nonlinguistic influences may result in an internal clash of different opinions and ideas, destabilizing the learner's worldview and beliefs in his or her abilities, as well as threatening his or her ego, which has already been developed in reference to the mother tongue. For this reason foreign language learning can be described as "fundamentally different (…) compared to learning another skill or gaining other knowledge, namely, that language and self are so closely bound, if not identical, that an attack on one is an attack on the other" (Cohen & North, 1989, p. 65). Thus it should not be conceived of as just the acquiring a neutral medium of communication, but rather as a constant organization

and reorganization of one's sense of self through identity construction (Jang, 2006). For these reasons every foreign language learner's biography is full of evidence of their decisions; some of which turned out to be good, while other quite irresponsible. Although the ultimate goal appears relatively similar for all of them, the paths to language acquisition vary dramatically. Each day or even every class they are at the crossroads, facing numerous new or familiar challenges and taking decisions that lead them slowly towards the final reward—language proficiency or even communicative ability.

The book aims to enrich the discussion on the complexities of L2 learning processes that pose a challenge to a learner who is constantly at the crossroads of taking decisions in order to acquire a language. These decisions result in complex, individual trajectories of their L2 acquisition that are accompanied by the development of cognitive, psychological and sociocultural aspects of language learning. The papers collected in this volume offer an amalgam of snapshots taken from various learning contexts, researched from the three perspectives: cognitive, that of learner individual characteristics and sociocultural. Undoubtedly, the interplay between language and cognition has long been established, emphasizing the power of language that informs the structure and function of the human mind (Bloom & Keil, 2001). Still, the results of the research into mental processes and language so far are not exhaustive, leaving a number of questions unanswered. Concurrently, more research is needed in order to understand the place of individual learner characteristics that are reported to affect the routes of L2 acquisition and use (cf. Ellis, 2008). The last perspective followed in this volume, the one entailing social interactions and cultural background, aims to cast more light on the role of the context in L2 learning processes. We hope to gain greater insight into the individual's cognitive, affective and sociocultural experiences in second language acquisition by increasing our understanding of such capacities engaged in human development as mental processes, individual learner characteristics and context. As such, it will be more possible to elucidate the role of each in the complexities that every language learner has to face and cope with.

The present volume consists of three parts. Part I contains a selection of papers addressing mental processes and L1 influences in the process of L2 learning. The second part focuses on variables regarding learner characteristics, and how they interplay with L2 learners' attitudes and learning of a number of linguistic aspects of the target language. The papers included in the last part provide an array of sociocultural perspectives, and aim to examine L2 learning processes embedded in international contexts. The papers collected in this volume offer an amalgam of exceptional ideas contributed by international researchers, whose passion and strive for understanding language learning processes is clearly reflected in their writing. This volume is a means for sharing their research outcomes with a larger audience.

Part I, on mental processes and L1 interference, comprises four research ideas that provide insights into the processes and functioning of the mind in L2 learning. Francesca La Russa, whose chapter opens this volume, is concerned with effectiveness of three types of corrective feedback on the short-term uptake and the long-term retention in the group of Italian as a foreign language students in Paris.

The author of the next paper, Tomasz Krawczyk, analyses the impact of the technique of particularization that is grounded, among others, in the Theory of Mind (ToM) on understanding of figurative language. He is interested in brain areas and mental abilities that allow learners to interpret a message in terms of mental states of another person. The figurative component of L2 is also in the centre of Tetiana Kurbatova's research, whose aim is to reveal the connection between language means and knowledge representation structures. The author follows the principles of L2 mental lexicon in order to dissect the structure of the conceptual sphere of GEOPOLITICS. This part finishes with Namsrai Munkhtsetseg's contribution, which focuses on the challenges that the first language poses on L2 learning. The researcher investigates, among others, structural differences between Mongolian and English subject relative clauses, and analyses types of errors made by Mongolian EFL learners in producing English relative clauses.

The challenges set in Part II revolve around L2 learner factors, such as personality traits and motivation. In the first chapter of the second part, Mirosław Pawlak provides an overview of the scant body of research that has investigated the mediating role of individual difference variables on the effects of form-focused instruction, charting future directions for such studies and addressing the methodological issues involved. Subsequently, Katarzyna Ożańska-Ponikwia investigates the possible links between extraversion/introversion and foreign language learners' preferences and attitudes towards L2 learning and use. The results of her study confirm a complex and nuanced nature of the relationship between extraverts/introverts and their approaches to L2 learning. The link between pronunciation anxiety (PA) and motivation, as conceptualized by Dörnyei (2005) in his L2 Motivational Self-System Model, is the focus of the study by Małgorzata Baran-Łucarz, who confirms a significant correlation only between PA and the ideal L2 self, but not between PA and the ought to L2 self. Motivation has also received a priority in the study by Tim Lee, whose attention is directed towards Hong Kong EFL students' feedback on the effectiveness of L2 motivational strategies.

The final part of this volume shifts the reader's attention to L2 learning sociocultural contexts. More precisely, the researchers investigate the efficacy of study programmes, approaches to assessment and types of linguistic discourse in international L2 learning contexts. The changing reality that poses growing demands on L2 learners' communication skills has been an inspiration to offer an interdisciplinary programme whose successes and failures are analysed in the chapter by Katarzynak Molek-Kozakowska. The effectiveness of the programme is measured in reference to knowledge within the field of social studies, L2 skills and social competences. Next, Dina Tsagari and Ines Sperling review current research into the area of assessment of second language learners (SLL) with specific learning differences (SpLD). The authors aim, among others, to analyse accommodations for SLLs with SpLD applied both at a classroom-based level and in several high-stakes standardized language tests. They emphasize the need for collaboration among the key stakeholders—educational psychologists, authorities and scholars—with regard to the area of assessment for SLLs with SpLD. In the closing chapter Larysa Mosiyevych focuses on political discourse. She is interested in pragmatic effects

caused by specific translation solutions in the political discourse, which is here limited to the mass media samples describing Russian–Ukrainian conflict.

Although learner characteristics, mental processes and contexts are frequent topics of numerous publications, their complex interconnections still call for more data in order to calibrate a more precise picture of L2 learning processes that cannot be unanimously defined and described. It is our hope that the present volume contributes to the explorations of the key concepts associated with language learning and its challenges. This volume may therefore stimulate scholars, students and teachers, and become a useful source for any inquisitive mind reflecting upon the challenges of the language acquisition process that require the learner to constantly assess their assets, responsibilities and obstacles.

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Contents

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Part I
On Mental Processes and L1 Interference in L2 Learning

Treating Errors in Learners' Writing: Techniques and Processing of Corrective Feedback

Francesca La Russa

Abstract Although the utility of written feedback is now acknowledged, the identification of the most effective corrective technique still is a matter of debate. In this chapter, we compare the effects of direct and indirect written feedback on the short-term uptake and the long-term retention of the correction in order to investigate which one could be more effective in enhancing language learning. Furthermore, we examine how students process the received correction. For this purpose, a research was led on twelve Italian as foreign language learners. The outcomes show that both direct and indirect feedback are effective in the short-term but less effective in the long-term; indirect feedback is slightly more effective on the short term, while direct feedback slightly promotes the long-term retention of the correction. Moreover, the level of engagement showed by learners while they process the correction might influence the efficacy of feedback itself.

Keywords Written corrective feedback · Error correction · Editing · Reformulation · Uptake · Retention

1 Introduction

One of the most challenging issues in foreign language teaching is how to treat students' errors in their written production in order both to improve their written skills and to promote language learning. Corrective feedback on the learners' linguistic errors is a widely applied pedagogic tool in second language classes. Even if its utility is now acknowledged by most teachers and researchers, identifying the most effective corrective method has still remained a controversial matter of dis-

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cussion and the results of the studies investigating the different efficacy of written direct and indirect feedback often do not agree.

This chapter aims to examine the effects of written feedback and in particular to compare direct feedback, that is reformulation, and indirect feedback in the form of editing, in order to identify which technique is more effective in terms of the short-term uptake of the correction and on its longer-term retention. Special attention is also given to the processing of feedback: we take into account how students react to the correction and notably their level of engagement in elaborating the correction.

In our pilot study, we conducted a research on twelve Italian as Foreign Language learners performing a three-stage written task and receiving two types of written correction: direct and indirect feedback. The outcomes show that indirect feedback is slightly more effective in the short-term revision of the text while direct feedback is slightly more effective on the long-term retention of the correction. A high level of engagement while students are processing the correction may positively affect the efficacy of the feedback, while it does not exist a direct correlation between the corrective technique adopted by the teacher and the level of engagement showed by students. The latter seems to be influenced by other variables, such as individual factors.

2 A Theoretical Overview of Written Feedback

The communicative approach to language teaching aims at developing the learners' ability to use the L2 in real life communication. This is why it is very important for teachers to expose their students to sufficient input. However necessary, the mere provision of input is not a sufficient condition for the mastering of a second language to take place, at least not at near-native level. Attention to linguistic form is also necessary for the learners to progress in their inter language development in a faster, easier, and more successful way (cf. Doughty, 2003). One of the best focus-on-form tools is error correction (cf. Ellis, 2005). Feedback is a reactive focus-on-form method that draws the students' attention to the linguistic form while performing a task. While oral feedback interrupts the communicative flow, corrective feedback on written output is a more effective focus-on-form intervention, since learners need to deal with it only after the meaning has been communicated (cf. Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998). Online production and oral feedback might produce a cognitive overload; with written corrective feedback, on the contrary, learners have enough time and cognitive resources to compare their output with the received correction and more opportunities to notice the gaps between their production and the target language, so as to reconstruct their inter language and get closer to the standards of the L2 (cf. Van Beuningen, 2010).

There are many techniques for providing written feedback that may vary according to their explicitness, focus, the persons providing them, the medium, etc. The more discussed dichotomies are the distinction between focused and

unfocused, as well as between direct and indirect feedback. We will now shortly introduce the distinction between focused and unfocused correction, while we will exhaustively discuss the direct/indirect feedback dichotomy in the next paragraph. Shortly, the unfocused or comprehensive approach involves the correction of all errors in the text, while the focused or selective feedback targets only specific linguistic structures and leaves all other errors uncorrected. According to Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, and Takashima, (2008), the focused approach is more effective on accuracy development, since learners are more likely to notice corrections that are focused on a specific error type. Sheen (2007) and Bitchener (2008) also affirm that, because learners have limited processing capacity, unfocused feedback is less effective since it targets a broad range of linguistic features, thus producing a cognitive overload. Nevertheless, it might be confusing for students to see that some errors have been corrected while others have not (cf. Van Beuningen, 2010).

2.1 Direct and Indirect Feedback

Direct feedback involves indicating the error and giving students the corresponding correct linguistic form. Indirect feedback only indicates that an error has been made; students have to find the correct solution on their own (cf. Ferris, 2010). Besides this macro-distinction, there are many others subcategories. For example, direct feedback may include the simple provision of the correct form, written meta-linguistic explanations (the provision of grammar rules and examples next to the error or at the end of the text), and/or oral meta-linguistic explanation (e.g., in the form of a mini-lesson presenting the target rules or one-to-one conferences between the teacher and the student). Indirect feedback may be provided by underlining the errors, recording in the margin the number of errors in a line or paragraph, or editing the text, i.e., using a code to show where the error is and its typology (cf. Bitchener, 2008).

There is a huge debate on which is the best way to provide feedback and results in the literature are mixed. This is partially due to the adoption of different criteria and methodologies (e.g., class or laboratory setting, the use of a control group, the duration of the study, etc.), it is partly a matter of perspective. There have been two main orientations in the research on written feedback: one is the SLA perspective that investigates how feedback can enhance language acquisition, the other is the L2 writing research perspective that investigates how feedback can help students improve their writing. Although both of these orientations look at similar phenomena in similar ways, they do not necessarily ask the same questions and this may lead to conflicting results (Ferris, 2010). Recent SLA studies (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007) have shown that direct feedback is more effective, at least for some specific structures; the results of the studies on L2 writing, on the other hand, are conflicting. For example, Lalande (1982) and Ferris, and Helt (2000) claim indirect feedback to be more effective, while Robb, Ross, and Shortreed, (1986) and Semke (1984) do not find any

difference in the effectiveness of the two methods. Chandler (2003), however, asserts the supremacy of direct feedback.

On the one hand, advocates of indirect correction suggest that students benefit more from indirect feedback since they have to engage in a more profound language processing when they are editing their writings (cf. Lalande, 1982; Ferris, 1995). Indirect feedback can push learners to engage in hypothesis testing, this may induce deeper internal processing and promote the internalization of correct forms (cf. Ferris, 2002; Doughty & Williams, 1998). A further advantage of the indirect correction is that it "requires pupils to engage in guided learning and problem solving and, as a result, promotes the type of reflection that is more likely to foster long-term acquisition" (Bitchener & Knock, 2008, p. 415). On the other hand, advocates of direct correction suggest that it reduces the confusion when students, especially lower proficiency ones (cf. Ferris & Roberts, 2001), fail to understand or remember the meaning of error codes. Moreover, students sometimes feel that indirect feedback does not provide them with sufficient information to resolve more complex errors, e.g., idiosyncratic and syntactic ones (cf. Leki, 1991; Roberts, 1999). Bitchener & Knoch (2010) suggest that direct feedback gives learners the explicit information that is needed for testing hypotheses about the target language. Furthermore, direct feedback enables students to immediately internalize the correction, while those who receive indirect feedback do not know if the corrections they made are accurate. As Chandler (2003) explains, the greater cognitive effort required to students when they use indirect feedback to correct their writings is offset by the delay in knowing if the hypothesized correction is correct. To sum up, those who support indirect feedback insist that it is more effective because it promotes the students' engagement and a meta-linguistic reflection that fosters long-term acquisition; those who support direct feedback generally agree that it is more helpful to students because it reduces confusion about the meaning of error codes; it is more immediate, and provides students with sufficient information to resolve complex errors (cf. Bitchener & Knoch, 2008).

2.2 Feedback Processing

Irrespective of the type of correction used by the teacher, the way students process feedback and, in particular, their level of engagement might influence the use of the corrected structures in future. Considering how difficult it is to have access to the internal process that take place in the learners' mind, only a few studies have investigated how students behave when they react to the correction, how they use it, or why they do not. As Ellis (2010, p. 39) affirms: "The general neglect of individual difference factors in CF studies is surprising because it would seem self-evident that learners will vary considerably in how they respond to CF, whether oral or written".

Qi and Lapkin (2001) use think-aloud protocols in order to relate the level of engagement in processing feedback to the retention of feedback. They distinguish

between perfunctory and substantive noticing of the correction. The first is when students merely acknowledge the correction, while the second is when students discuss about the correction, showing a certain meta-awareness. The researchers conclude that the latter leads to better results in future writings. Analysing students' interactions during feedback processing, Storch and Wigglesworth (2010), make a distinction between low-engagement language-related episodes (LREs) when students just read the received correction, and high-engagement LREs, when they discuss and comment on it, showing that they have understood it. These scholars also conclude that a positive relationship exists between the level of engagement and successful results.

Other studies (e.g., Hyland, 1998, 2003; Swain, 2006; Swain & Lapkin, 2003; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010), show how feedback assimilation might be influenced by the students' personalities, their beliefs and opinions about the target language, and their goals in terms of learning the language. Other influential variables are individual and contextual factors such as age, learning context, proficiency, and cultural background. Even though these variables are easier to close off, till now there have been only a few studies that have taken them into account (e.g., Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Ferris, 1999; Reid, 2005). All these findings bring us to the conclusion that 'a one-size-fits-all approach to error treatment is unlikely to be effective or appropriate' (cf. Ferris, 2010, p. 197).

3 Method

This study, that follows the model of the research conducted by Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) on English as L2 learners, is a pilot study on a small sample of Italian as FL students. The aim is to draw some useful indications and methodological guidance for future studies to be conducted on a larger scale so as to give a contribution to the comparative research on the efficacy of direct and indirect written feedback. The questions that guided our experimental study are:

(a) Which corrective technique better promotes the immediate uptake of the correction and which one better promotes its retention in the long term?
(c) What is the significance of the level of engagement showed by students while processing feedback for the efficacy of the correction?
(d) Is there any relationship between the corrective technique adopted by the teacher and the students' level of engagement?

3.1 Participants

Twelve students of Italian as foreign language at the Italian Cultural Institute of Paris were chosen for the research. They were both male and female adult learners

aged between 40 and 60 years. All of them were native French speakers and took the Italian language class for three hours every week. They were at different levels of proficiency: four of them were beginner learners, four were at the intermediate level, and the remaining four were advanced learners.

3.2 Procedure

The study consisted of three sessions of 30 min each that took place in a period of 28 days. There was a one-week break between the first and second sessions and a two-week break between the second and third sessions.

- In Session 1, the learners worked in pairs to perform a writing task: they had to write a text (around 130 words) based on a visual prompt. Feedback was provided either through reformulation of the wrong word or editing codes indicating the errors' typology (e.g., tense, preposition, article, lexicon, word order, missing or needed word, orthography, etc.).
- In Session 2 (Day 7), the learners reviewed the received feedback in pairs for 15 min and their discussion was recorded. For the remaining 15 min, they rewrote the text written in the first session, trying to avoid making the same mistakes.
- In Session 3 (Day 28), each student performed the task given in Session 1 by individually writing a new text.

In Session 1 and 2 we choose to make learners work in pairs since examining students' interaction while discussing the received feedback seemed a more natural tool for analysing how they process the corrections rather than using think-aloud protocols and asking each student to verbalize his/her thoughts while processing feedback. Furthermore, as Swain and Lapkin (1998) explain, think-aloud tasks demand to solve a mental problem and to report on it simultaneously. Because of this cognitive overload, one of the processes of solving or reporting is likely to break down (Vygotsky, 1979). On the contrary, by adopting a collaborative procedure, learners use language as a mediating tool, as they normally do.

3.3 Measures

The analysed data include the texts (Text 1 and Text 2) written by each pair in Sessions 1 and 2, the text (Text 3) individually written by each student in Session 3, and the transcript of their interaction in the first part of Session 2.

To measure the effects of the feedback on the immediate revision of the text, and therefore on the short-term uptake, for each pair, errors in Texts 1 and 2 were compared, and the percentage of corrected errors in Text 2 on the total number of

flagged errors in Text 1 was calculated. For measuring the long-term effects of the corrections, for each pair, the individual texts (Text 3), written by each member in the Session 3, were compared with the text (Text 1) collaboratively written in the Session 1. Since this time the students did not have access to the texts they wrote in Sessions 1 and 2 and had to write a new one, the texts from Session 3 often differed from the previous ones. Students often used new constructions instead of the same structures that were corrected in the earlier texts. We took into account the structures that were present both in Text 1 and Text 3 and we measured the longer term effects of the feedback by calculating the percentage of the linguistic structures used correctly in the Text 3 among those that were wrong in Text 1. Finally, we compared the results of the pairs that received direct feedback with the results of the pairs that received indirect correction.

In order to have an insight on how students process feedback, the transcripts of their interactions while discussing feedback, recorded in Session 2, were analysed. All the LREs were identified and categorized in high-engagement LREs or low-engagement LREs. We have classified as high-engagement LREs those occasions in which at least one member of the pair commented on the correction. This is shown in the following example (1):

(1) *CLA: Mais elle va elle va à la # mais attend # je comprends pas l'aspetto* *JAC: C'est à la place de ça, de il punto* *CLA: Ah non! c'est la denuncia # ah c'est pas il punto # no no regarde!* *JAC: Ah oui j'ai bien compris! C'est pas il punto* *CLA: L'aspetto positivo, le point* *JAC: Ah l'aspetto pas il punto* *CLA: Oui en français on dit le point*	CLA: But she goes she goes to the # but wait # I don't understand the aspect JAC: It is instead of this, of the point CLA: Ah no! It is the report # ah it is not the point # no no look! JAC: Ah ok I understood! It isn't the point CLA: The positive aspect, the point JAC: Ah the aspect not the point CLA: Yes in French we say the point[a]

[a]Excerpt of the transcription of Jac and Cla's interaction

The cases in which the students just read the correction or merely acknowledged it without commenting have been classified as low-engagement LREs. This is shown in the following example (2):

(2) *MAR.: della questa storia # c'est quoi? # Preposizione* *SOP: Di questa storia è che*	MAR: of the this story # what is it? # Preposition SOP: Of this story is that[a]

[a]Excerpt of the transcription of Sop and Mar's interaction

This analysis requires some interpretation from the researcher in order to decide which LREs are to be classified as showing high engagement and which ones as showing low engagement. Therefore, it cannot be strictly objective.

Finally, the results of the analysis concerning the effect of the feedbacks and the results of the analysis of students' interactions have been correlated in order to evaluate how the level of engagement of each student can influence the effectiveness of feedback.

4 Results

The following Table 1 shows the results of the pairs that received indirect feedback in the form of editing in terms of short-term uptake and long-term retention. The following Table 2 shows the results of the pairs that received direct feedback in the form of reformulation in the short and long term. Table 3 is a recap of the results of the experimentation both for the uptake and the retention of the two corrective techniques: under the column 'Editing' it adds together all the results of the pairs that received indirect feedback, while under the column 'Reformulation' it adds together all the results of the pairs that received direct feedback. Comparing the results of the two corrective techniques, we can observe that direct feedback proved to be slightly more effective in terms of long-term retention, while indirect feedback slightly facilitated the short- term uptake of the correction. In general, both of them are effective for the immediate revision of the same text but less effective in the long term. The following Table 4 shows the results of the analysis of students' interactions during Session 2.

Table 1 Editing results

	Uptake (%)	Retention
PAIR 1: HAN, ISA	100[a]	HAN: 36%, ISA: 55%
PAIR 2: SOP, MAR	90	SOP: 25%, MAR: 0%
PAIR 3: REI, FLO	90	REI: 66%, FLO: 60%

[a]To see how the percentage values were calculated and what they refer to cf. Sect. 3.3

Table 2 Reformulation results

	Uptake (%)	Retention
PAIR 4: ANN, DEN	87	ANN:44%, DEN:72%
PAIR 5: JAC, CLA	100	JAC: 42%, CLA: 40%
PAIR 6: DAN, VER	65	DAN:61%, VER:50%

Table 3 Direct and indirect feedback results

	Editing (%)	Reformulation (%)
Uptake	93.3	84
Retention	40.3	51.5

Table 4 LREs analysis

Editing				Reformulation			
Pair	LREs/errors	+	–	Pair	LREs/errors	+	–
1	13/21	13	0	4	16/24	15	1
2	10/11	9	1	5	11/12	7	4
3	7/10	7	0	6	11/21	3	8

Both for the pairs that received editing and for those that received reformulation, we have indicated the number of the pair in the first column along with the number of LREs on the total number of errors in the text they wrote in Session 1. Under the column '+', we have put the number of high-engagement LREs, while the number of low-engagement LREs are placed under the column '−'.

According to both the total quantity of LREs produced and the number of high-engagement LREs (cf. Table 4), on the whole, all the pairs that received indirect feedback showed a high level of engagement. Among the pairs that received direct feedback, pair 4 showed a high level of engagement, pair 5 showed medium/high engagement, and pair 6 showed a low level of engagement.

5 Discussion

In this paragraph, we will recall, answer and discuss the research questions that guided our study.

5.1 Which Corrective Technique Better Promotes the Immediate Uptake of the Correction and Which One Better Promotes Its Long Term Retention?

The outcomes show that direct feedback is slightly more effective in the long term while indirect feedback is more effective in the short term (see Table 3). Intuitively, we would expect the opposite trend. What one may hypothesize is that once the learner reads the solution to his error, he is able to remember and reuse it at least in the immediate revision, but since he is not obliged to think about the correction to find the solution, it is less likely that he would remember it for a longer frame of time. This process could instead be prompted by indirect feedback, since it does not provide students with the correct solution but makes them think about the error in order to find the solution on their own. This meta-linguistic reflection may help students remember the correction for a longer time.

On the one hand, the greater efficacy of direct feedback in the long term might be explained by following an acquisitional perspective. As a matter of fact, direct feedback provides students with a positive evidence of how the target language

works, i.e., it is an input-providing strategy (cf. Ellis, 2010). If input is the first source of linguistic acquisition, direct feedback, which provides such input, can promote the long-term retention of the correction and thus foster language acquisition. On the other hand, we can explain the success of indirect feedback in terms of the correction's uptake by following the perspective of researchers who have studied L2 writing (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Ferris, 2002, 2003; Lalande, 1982). They affirm that prompting an active engagement among students leads to better results during the immediate revision of the text, even though it might not be enough to make them remember it in the long-term.

In any case, the difference in the percentage of success of the two methods is small, and both of them have generally proved to be more effective in immediate revision than in the long-term. This is partially due to the fact that in Session 3, the students wrote a new text individually, which is often very different from the previous ones. Therefore, we did not have much common ground to compare. A possible solution to this issue is to accompany written feedback with an oral discussion in class (cf. Allwright, Woodley, & Allwright, 1988). This sort of feedback could become the starting point for focus-on-form instruction (cf. Long, 1985). Moreover, this strategy could help students remember the correction for a longer period through the negotiation of meaning and interactions with the teacher.

5.2 What Is the Significance of the Level of Engagement Showed by Students While Processing Feedback for the Efficacy of the Correction?

As we have seen, the outcomes of the analysis concerning the effects of feedback do not indicate a clear superiority of one of the two corrective methods. In order to interpret this result more clearly, we have included in this analysis the exam of the students' interactions in Session 2, to get an idea about the significance of their level of engagement while processing the feedback on the final results. Anyway, it is necessary to clarify that, since the result of the analysis of students' interactions is a collective result showing the engagement of the two members of the pair together, we can relate it to the result of the analysis of the uptake of the correction, that is a collective result as well, while we cannot relate it with the result of the retention of feedback which is an individual result, obtained by each member of the pair for his/her performance.

Qi and Lapkin (2001) and Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) affirm that a high level of engagement and a substantive noticing, when students show to have understood the received correction, lead to better results in terms of the efficacy of the feedback. This assumption has proved to be true in our case as well. If we relate the results shown in Table 4 with the results of the uptake of the correction shown in Tables 1 and 2, we can observe that the pairs that showed a high or medium/high level of engagement (pair 1, 2, 3, 4, 5) had better results (respectively 100, 90, 90,

87, 100%) than the pair 6 that showed a low level of engagement and obtained the 65% of uptake. We can conclude that students that actively engaged themselves in processing the feedback, that reflected and commented on the errors, on the corrections or, more generally, on the L2, as showed in Example 1, can better remember and successfully reuse the received correction, at least in the short term.

As we said, we did not relate the collective result of the level of engagement with the individual result of the retention of the correction. Nonetheless, the case of the pair 1 is worth to be mentioned because of the clear different behaviour and results of the two members. Han and Isa received indirect feedback and obtained a percentage of uptake of 100% and a retention of 55% for Isa and 36% for Han. This difference in the results may correspond to their different behaviour and attitude during feedback processing. Analysing the transcription of their interaction, it is obvious that Isa is the one who interprets the errors' codes and mostly reflects, comments, and formulates ways to find solutions. On the contrary, Han, mostly just acknowledges what Isa says. This is exemplified by the following excerpt (3):

(3)	
ISA: Sans le di # le moins veut dire # un vagone ristorante, un centro città # la parola non serve # la signora gli da una carta# ah una cartina no? *HAN: Cartina* *ISA: Mais c'est pas una mappa la carte de ## la carte c'est ça # una mappa c'est # una mappa # la carte # uscendo DAL negozio # dal negozio # oui* *HAN: Oui* *ISA: Comment on peut dire? # Non capisco è necessario mettere un presente qui?* *[...]*	ISA: without of # minus means # a dining-car, a city centre # we don't need the word# the lady gives him a paper #ah a map no? HAN: map ISA: But it isn't a map the paper of ## it's the map# a map is # a map # leaving the shop # from the shop # yes HAN: yes ISA: How can we say it? # I don't understand do we have to use the present here? […][a]

[a]Excerpt of the transcription of Han and Isa's interaction

Since Han did not take an active part in the metalinguistic discussion with Isa, he probably had less opportunity for substantive noticing and this did not help him retain the received feedback. The case of Han and Isa suggests that the learners that show and active engagement in processing the feedback seem to better retain the correction also in the long-term.

5.3 *Is There Any Relationship Between the Corrective Technique Adopted by the Teacher and the Students' Level of Engagement?*

Regarding the relation between the level of engagement shown by students and the corrective technique adopted by the teacher, we had hypothesized that the

corrective method that mostly prompts a higher level of engagement is the indirect one, since it does not provide students with ready-made solutions but forces them to think about the error they made in order to find a solution. The risk with direct feedback is that, because students already have the solution in hand, they might just read it and move on, not engaging themselves in the metalinguistic reflection and thus assuming a passive role. As a matter of fact, as we can see from Table 4 in the previous section, the students who received indirect correction mostly produced high-engagement LREs and only the second pair produced a single low-engagement LRE, while the students who received direct feedback produced more low-engagement LREs.

However, the case of Den and Ann deserves our attention. Though they received direct feedback, they produced 15 high-engagement LREs and just one low-engagement LRE. As we can see in the following excerpt (4), even though they already had the correct form written on their paper, both of them, and especially Den, reflected on the received corrections, trying to understand the reasons behind their errors and giving metalinguistic explanations.

(4)	DEN: It is the relative clause that is wrong it is that travels not "*chi*[a]" then it is different from all the other languages # Here I am confused because in German they say "*chi*" travels in French it is "*chi*" travels as well and in Italian in fact it is "*che*" # ehh but Antonio falls down on the pedestrian crossing on account of
DEN: C'est la relative qui va pas c'est che viaggia pas chi alors là c'est différent de toutes les autres langues # Là je suis troublé parce que en allemand on aurait dit chi viaggia en français chi viaggia aussi et en italien en fait c'est che #ehh ma Antonio cade sulle strisce per colpa	
ANN: ça c'est une expression importante!	ANN: this is an important expression!
DEN: per colpa # per colpa di un motociclista # par la faute	DEN: on account # on account of a motorcyclist # on account of
ANN: Il faut qu'on explique ?	ANN: Do we have to explain?
DEN: Tu crois?	DEN: Do you think so?
ANN: Oui je crois!	ANN: Yes I do!
DEN: En fait pour l'instant on a fait jouer notre mémoire pas notre interprétation # donc di Antonio moi j'avais mis d'Antonio parce que il y avait deux voyelles et je pensais que le i disparaissait mais c'est pas le cas # dal Germania # Germania c'est le nom du pays effectivement # attraverso Austria e Italia c'est la préposition qui était pas bonne mais est que attraverso c'est une préposition? je ne suis pas sûr	DEN: In fact until now we used our memory not our interpretation # so di Antonio I put "*d'Antonio*" because there were two vowels and I thought that the i disappeared but it is not the case # from Germany # Germany actually is the name of a state # across Austia and Italy it is not the right preposition but is across a preposition? I am not sure[b]

[a]*Chi* is the Italian personal interrogative pronoun. Here they used it in a wrong way as simple relative pronoun

[b]Excerpt of the transcription of Den and Ann's interaction

A direct relationship between the corrective technique adopted by the teacher and the level of engagement shown by students does not seem to exist. Even if it is true that a high level of engagement results from indirect feedback, this does not

seem to be a peculiarity of the indirect corrective technique only. The case of Den proves that a high level of engagement may take place with direct feedback as well. A high engagement appears to depend not only on the corrective technique adopted by the teacher but also on individual factors such as the learners' personalities, cultural backgrounds, levels of motivation, and goals in language learning.

We did not investigate further on this aspect, but as we can see in the previous excerpt, Den seems to be very interested in learning languages. Not only is he studying Italian, but he also knows or studies German, and apparently he is used to thinking contrastively about the languages he knows. He seems to have a high level of motivation in learning new languages and he does it with curiosity and engagement.

6 Conclusion

In this chapter, we tried to make our contribution to the controversial issue of how to treat students' errors in their written production. We compared the effects of direct and indirect feedback both in the short and the long-term, furthermore, we examined how students process the correction. In order to have a more complete picture of the effects of written feedback and to explore the relation between the corrective technique adopted by the teacher and the level of engagement showed by students, we related the objective analysis of the comparison between the two corrective methods with the more subjective analysis of how students process feedback.

Even though the results are not generalizable since our research, because of its explorative nature, is restricted and has been based on just a sample of a few learners, we can nonetheless draw some conclusions. From the comparison between the two methods, it was revealed that direct feedback is slightly more effective in the long-term while indirect feedback works better in the short-term. However, the difference is just of a few percentage points, too small to clearly indicate superior or inferior efficacy of either of the corrective techniques. From the analysis of the processing of feedback, we found a positive relation between the level of engagement in dealing with the correction and the efficacy of the feedback. Regarding the relation between students' engagement and the corrective technique adopted, even though indirect feedback necessarily makes students think about the errors they made and reflect on the target language, direct feedback may also lead to a high level of engagement. The latter may depend not only on the corrective technique adopted by the teacher but also, and above all, on individual factors such as students' personalities, their opinions about the second language, their levels of motivation, and their goals in language learning. Nonetheless, these factors and their impact need to be examined more in depth in future studies. Further longitudinal research on a larger sample would be also advisable in order to consolidate these findings.

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Mind, Language and Experience: Improving the Understanding of Figurative Language in EFL

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Abstract The aim of the present chapter is to present a working technique for improving the metaphorical understanding of EFL learners. The main technique recommended in this chapter is *particularisation,* which is based on four strands of thought: the role of intentions in the meaning of language; theory of mind; the theory of the social ontogeny of predication; and embodied experience as a basis for the meaning of language. The principle of the particularisation technique has been defined as a presentation of a particularised focus, an imaginary character who is consistently presented to a learner through descriptions of his/her mental states, and with whom a learner can engage in an interaction through the means of narratives. The assumption is that through such interactions learners will be able to perceive the intentions of the speaker/writer better and as a result their comprehension of non-literal language will improve. A particularised focus is meant to become for the learners a link between the language and the user. Its explicitly presented mind can help EFL learners to view a foreign language not just from the perspective of a purely structural entity, but as a tool for expressing one's own mind. Non-literal language is a particular example of discourse that depends on intentions, the assumption being that the technique strongly affects learners' comprehension of metaphors, metonymy, similes, jokes, and irony.

Keywords Theory of mind · Figurative language · EFL · Intentions · Non-literal language · Intentionality

1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a technique for improving the non-literal-language understanding of EFL learners based on theoretical considerations concerning the possible sources of the difficulties that students encounter.

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Effective communication in everyday discourse consists of such abilities as manipulating and influencing each other's behaviour, explaining or clarifying, creating an interesting and imaginative ambience in conversations, structuring and organising discourses, or expressing emotions. In all these instances, non-literal language in the form of metaphors, metonymies, similes, jokes, irony, and sarcasm, has an important role (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997; Besemeres, 2006; Charteris-Black, 2002; Cooper, 1999; Danesi, 1995; Littlemore & Low, 2006a, b; Littlemore, Chen, Koester, & Barnden, 2011; Wierzbicka, 1999). Unfortunately, EFL learners find this part of language knowledge particularly troublesome, and, as a result, lose many of the valuable tools in successful interactions. Danesi (1995) suggests that the problems with producing and understanding non-literal language account for learners' foreign discourses' being unnatural, overtly literal on the surface, and lacking depth in describing reality.

2 The Difficulties Learners Face with Non-literal Language

As important as non-literal discourse is, its acquisition and mastery remains a difficulty for L2 learners. The lack of any systematic rules and categorisation for idioms and fixed phrases, because of their proliferation in every language, has become one of the most-basic reasons for L2 learners' avoidance of this type of lexical devices and the resulting artificiality of the learners' language, pragmatic failures, and misunderstanding. The study by Boers (2000) attempted to remedy this apparent lexical chaos by making students aware of the conceptual metaphors that underpin a range idioms and can serve as frameworks for their categorisation. However, even Boers concedes that such treatment cannot be applied to all phrases. An additional problem is connected with processing capacities. In most studies on fixed phrases such as idioms (Conklin & Schmitt, 2008; Cooper, 1999) it has been confirmed that native speakers process the metaphorical meaning of fixed phrases faster than the literal meaning of their constituents, findings also confirmed by the studies conducted by Glucksberg (2001). This advantage seems to be possessed by proficient non-native speakers (Conklin & Schmitt, 2008) though the study by Cooper (1999) indicates that the average student, who does not have such an expansive knowledge of vocabulary as native speakers or advanced students, has to rely on a number of facilitating strategies, such as guessing from the context or using their first language or background knowledge, which makes the processing of non-literal language more difficult. Additionally, L2 learners cannot rely on pragmatic knowledge or familiarity with the culture of the target language as much as native speakers can. The user of a non-literal discourse makes certain assumptions about a common sociolinguistic background with the addressee of their utterances but the lack of such background knowledge can lead to misinterpretation (Littlemore & Low, 2006a, b).

3 The Creative Use of Figurative Language

What Irujo facetiously calls "idiomophobia" (Irujo, 1986, p. 300) in second-language learning involves not only an amassed sum of particularly difficult lexical items, but rather a dynamic system that is in constant flux—a mechanism for the generative and creative use of non-literal language to produce novel vehicles for expressing thoughts, even at the level of conceptual metaphors (Kovecses, 2010). The possibility of modifying and varying the use of even relatively fixed expressions such as idioms (Glucksberg, 2001) raises the question about the very possibility of delineating and charting the exact limits of the accumulation of all figurative phrases, especially since many of them sprout not only with variations of the already existing ones, but with each new advertising slogan, internet meme or catchphrase coined in a film or on television (e.g., Alexander (1984) categorises catchphrases and slogans as fixed phrases). Metaphors, even those that become popular and are locked into the language as fixed phrases, originate in discourse at the level of particular conversations, e.g., when a person coins a new and unusual alignment of words (Cameron & Deignan, 2006; Gibbs & Cameron, 2008). An example is the metaphor 'emotional baggage' analysed by Cameron and Deignan (2006), who show that these two words have not always been associated with each other and only recently have become a metaphoric expression. Thus, interlocutors become active meaning artificers in the process of negotiating the significance of words and phrases.

The assumption that figurative language is dynamic and fluid rather than static and fixed thus has important ramifications for learners, as the possible meanings of even fixed expressions are now burgeoning into almost innumerable interpretative alternatives, depending mainly on the intentions of the speaker/writer. This assumption about non-literal language moves beyond the domain of a limited list of fixed phrases and precipitates its intractable non-transparency for L2 learners. However, finding the solution to the problem of figurative-language understanding requires not just imparting to the students a particular kind of knowledge, like a list of idioms or a pragmatic script, but also equipping learners with a set of general skills in metaphor comprehension. For example, Littlemore and Low (2006a, b) suggest such a set of competences and skills that a language learner should have in order to successfully interpret metaphorical language. Their main aim is to develop in learners not a native-like proficiency in understanding metaphors, but rather to train them in the procedures for interpreting their meanings through querying, guessing and other strategies that are rather uncommon for the average native speaker, who on encountering a metaphor either processes it automatically, as in the case of idioms, or relies strongly on pragmatic knowledge.

Similarly to Littlemore and Low's (2006a, b) suggestion, the technique described in the present chapter does not focus on improving understanding through providing any particular pool of non-literal vocabulary items. Rather, in recognition of the fact that the meaning of metaphors, similes, idioms, irony, and jokes is

dynamic, and changes together with the intentions of the speaker/writer, the present chapter suggests a technique for improving the general skills of learners in understanding the intentions of the language user. This in turn is hypothesised to improve their non-literal language comprehension.

4 Intentions in Figurative-Language Understanding

Grice (1957) treats the intentions of the user of the language as crucial for understanding meaning. For Grice (1957) meaning is not dependent on the reactions that the sign induces in the recipient, but on what the speaker intends. The decisive function of intentions does not, however, diminish the role of the audience to or the addressee of a particular sign, because for one to intend to mean something is at the same time to desire the interlocutor to recognise the sign. Thus, it is impossible to claim that one means something unless he/she employs such ways of communicating one's intentions that would enable the other party to recognise their desires.

Similarly, Bakhtin's philosophy of language (Bakhtin, 1986; Johnson, 2004) assumes the inclusion of the other party to the communicative act as an essential structural component of meaning. In Bakhtin's theory, the basic unit of communication and meaning is utterance. Utterance is a piece of language that has an addressee inscribed in it, so the recipient of the message can be clearly recognised. Bakhtin states that every utterance, every meaningful piece of language, has a recipient that is a target in the very utterance itself. People, according to Bakhtin, cannot mean something without having in mind a particular person to whom one is speaking or writing. Depending on which person one has in mind, the style of language that one uses, what Bakhtin calls the voice, changes.

The importance of the intentions of the language user when expressing meaning is even more essential in the case of non-literal language. The search for and interpretation of authorial intentions is indicated as one of the most intuitive and basic, though not infallible, strategies in metaphor comprehension, even for native speakers (Montgomery, Durant, Fabb, Furniss, & Mills, 2007). In a discussion of various models of metaphor comprehension, Glucksberg (2001) provides a very strong support for the idea that communicative intentions play a crucial role in metaphor comprehension. The principle of informativeness and the topic-comment format that the vehicle of a metaphor follows in giving new information about the topic of that metaphor are the essential elements enabling the users of a particular language to distinguish between metaphorical and the literal discourse. Such quality of intentions has been pinpointed in two comparison models of metaphoric-language comprehension that Glucksberg analyses—Ortony's (Ortony, 1979 in Glucksberg, 2001) and Gentner and Wolff's (Gentner & Wolff, 1997 in Glucksberg, 2001). His own model of metaphorical understanding is based on the

assumption that the intentions of the speaker/writer are recognised, and the expression is informative, before the proper process of metaphor interpretation can take place at all. The intentions behind the metaphor can take various different shapes, not only informative, but also manipulative, as Littlemoore and Low (2006a, b) point out in the case of political discourse.

5 The Representation of the Intending Mind

Having recognised the possible importance of intentions for non-literal-language understanding, one has to give a particular shape to the very concept of intentions in order to be able to introduce it into the language classroom. One way of achieving this is to define intentions as one of a whole set of mental states that a person can have. Therefore, to say that intentions are behind the meaning of language is to suggest that the mind of the language user, the sender of the message, is directly involved in language understanding, not in its actual form, but as being represented in the mind of the recipient, who incorporates that representation in the process of decoding the meaning of the message. In other words, understanding language involves seeing the mind of another person, its mental states being the mechanism for interpreting the message in one way or another. The important question is how it happens that one is able to "see" the mind of another person, and how L2 learners might possibly be "blind" in this respect when trying to understand the mind of other persons behind their foreign utterances.

6 Intentions as Theory of Mind

Grice (1957) himself does not determine how, in actual communication, inferencing and intending takes place, providing only a logical elaboration of how we understand meaning in terms of the intentions of another person. Indubitably, in real communication speakers rarely formulate any explicit descriptions of their plans before they speak, so it seems that intention is implicit or unconscious. Sperber and Wilson (2002) point out that Grice's proposal can be realised simply in terms of a specialised unconscious cognitive mechanism, as we are able to understand intentions and language instantly, without any conscious deliberation. In fact, a large number of neurological studies and experiments (Bibby & McDonald, 2005; Gavilan & Garcia-Albea, 2011; Kasher, Batori, Soroker, Graves, & Zaidel, 1999; Monetta, Grinrod, & Pell, 2009; Poletti, Enrici, & Adenzato, 2012; Surian & Siegal, 2001; Weed, McGregor, Nielsen, Roepstorff, & Frith, 2010; Winner, Brownell, Happe, Blum, & Pincus, 1998) suggest that there are areas of the brain that are responsible for understanding the beliefs, intentions and emotions of another person. Interestingly, such studies equate the deficits of autistic, Parkinson's disease, schizophrenic and RHD (right-hemisphere damaged) patients in the comprehension of

irony, lies, sarcasm and metaphor with lesions, disturbances and other neurological malfunctions of particular regions in the brain. These studies use the concept of theory of mind to denote all kinds of cognitive operations requiring ascribing emotions, intentions and beliefs to others, distinguishing one's thoughts and mental states from the state of reality and taking into account another person's point of view. Theory of mind, or ToM, is a comprehensive term denoting the ability of human beings to take the representation of the mind of another person into account while making sense of the world (Gopnik & Wellman, 1992). ToM is credited with explanatory power in such fields as psychology, neurology, philosophy, sociology and even religion (Boyd, 2008) and its sweeping influence is corroborated by the amount of research conducted within this conceptual framework.

The region of the brain which is usually associated with ToM is located in the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) and the temporal lobes, areas which show consistent activation patterns in the tasks involving the use of ToM understanding (Brune & Brune-Cohrs, 2006; Freedman & Stuss, 2011; Kobayashi, Glover, & Temple, 2008; Martin & McDonald, 2003; Sebastian et al., 2012; Thoma & Daum, 2006; for a detailed description see also Gallagher & Frith, 2003). Though it would be interesting to investigate the neurological activation of the ToM regions in the brains of second-language learners while comprehending L2 figurative meaning, no such study has yet been conducted. However, an illuminating study by Kobayashi, Glover and Temple (2008) of bilingual Japanese children who acquired second language early in their lives, and Japanese adults living in the USA, who became bilingual later in life, underscores the idea that in the adult bilinguals' brains there might be a specific L2 ToM region that develops parallel to L1 ToM. In bilingual children, no such distinct ToM region has been found in brain scans, which might suggest that only learning a second language later in life is conducive to creating an alternative version of the mind that is characteristic and corresponds to the second language. The finding of the study echoes the recollections of bilinguals analysed in Pavlenko (2006), who mostly confirmed that switching languages "can create different, and sometimes incommensurable, worlds for their speakers who feel that their selves change with a shift in language" (Pavlenko, 2006, p. 37) an experience close to the predicament of schizophrenic patients with multiple personalities.

7 Theory of Mind and L2 Learners

Do all the L2 learners who acquire language later in their lives develop a specific L2 ToM that enables them to understand that a foreign language is an expression of a person's thoughts and intentions? Though Kobayashi et al. (2008) conclude that the differences between adults and children in the study might stem from the greater reliance of adults on declarative learning in L2 acquisition, one should bear in mind the fact that the adult participants in the study learned the language, and honed their proficiency, in a community of native speakers rather than in an EFL classroom. This might mean that EFL students miss much more than just opportunities for

interaction from not participating in the community and using L2 in everyday communication, as they have no opportunity to develop L2 specific understanding of the mind of the language user. The present chapter postulates that this might be the case, and the lack of a clear connection between L2 and the representation of the mind of the language user, the same as in brain-damaged patients, but to a much lesser extent and severity, blurs and distorts the meaning of non-literal language.

If the problems of L2 learners, and especially EFL learners, in understanding the intentions behind language stem from the fact that their L2 ToM is underdeveloped or missing altogether, if they are to improve their non-literal language understanding, the very first step should be to study the models of ToM development in children and to draw conclusions regarding the possibility of creating the conditions favourable for ToM development in the classroom. There are three key elements that are recognised as necessary for a child to acquire ToM propensity. The first is linguistic input (de Rosnay & Hughes, 2006; De Villiers, 2005a, b; Hale & Tager-Flusberg, 2003; Hutto, 2011; Lohmann, Tomasello, & Meyer, 2005; Newton & De Villiers, 2007; Olson, 1988; Ruffman, Slade, & Crowe, 2002; Schick, De Villiers, De Villiers, & Hoffmeister, 2007), which either through semantic cues (descriptions of the mental states of a child introduced by the caretakers) or syntactic cues (the embedded complementation of sentences such as "*I think that…*" or "*he believes that*") enables a child to distinguish between the reality and the mental states of a person. The second is the quality of the relationship (Baldwin & Saylor, 2005; Dunn & Brophy, 2005), as interactions with people to whom a child feels closely attached are more likely to elicit language that abounds in the descriptions of mental states, such as past experience of negative feelings, and enhances the recognition of intentions. And finally the introduction of varying points of view and multiple perspectives (Harris, 2005; Jacques & Zelazo, 2005; Perner, Zauner, & Sprung, 2005).

Taking into account the three requirements presented above, the technique of improving non-literal language understanding through enhancing L2-ToM capacities should provide learners with linguistic input rich in descriptions of mental states, enable them to explore language within the context of meaningful relationships, and create in learners the sense that every utterance is an expression of somebody else's point of view, rather than an objective description of the state of affairs. The latter requirement is especially important as taking a perspective introduces into the discussion of ToM development a new significant dimension: that the capacity to ascribe to another person intentions, beliefs, and representations of reality depends on the very awareness that this can be done, that mental states and language belong to somebody, and have an indelible mark of ownership. This might explain why the learners might possibly not develop ToM for a second language, as having experienced L2 only as arbitrary and instructed abstract knowledge which represents objective reality, and not the reality of a particular person, makes the concept of the ownership of linguistic expressions absent. And, as a result, there is only one perspective in understanding and one version of reality —the objective reality of arbitrary meanings.

8 Intentionality

ToM answers just part of the question, as even if learners are able to understand a message in terms of the mental states of another person, these mental states can still remain incomprehensible, empty, and unintelligible. This is because, apart from L2 ToM, learners can miss an important feature which enables mental states to be about anything in the first place—intentionality. Intentionality is the most characteristic feature of all human mental states that captures the quality of their being about something, evidently directed at and pointing at some object, idea, person, event, proposition, and anything else that at a particular moment constitutes the content of the mind (Sokolowski, 2000). Radu Bogdan, in his theory of the social origins of predication (Bogdan, 2009); states that intentionality of mental states develops in the context of a close interaction between an adult and a child, involving their shared attentional focus on some object in the external world.

Early infancy is a crucial and very-basic period that lays the foundation for any further interactional intentionality (Bogdan, 2009). The initial attempts of an adult to regulate the behaviour of an infant at a distance by expressing affect and emotions through verbalisations, gestures and mimicry turns into the first communicative exchange that a child participates in, which is called bilateral communication. Although the child does not understand the caretaker's intent, she/he is already a player and a participant in the game of communication and intent recognition. The child reciprocates the adult's intents by the expression of affect. Affects and emotions are important here because they serve as carriers and 'smugglers' of communicative purposes and intents; the inborn sensitivity to the expression of emotions enables the child to respond to them accordingly. The child not only responds, but also recognises that his/her own response has a certain evocative force that influences the adult, as the adult takes the child's response as a recognition of his/her intent and responds in turn, making the responses of the child significant, meaningful. In this quasi-conversation, which becomes a template for all the other interactions of the child, he/she begins to share with the adult the recognition of intent and becomes accustomed to the alternating rhythm of interaction, in which one person expresses something, and the other responds accordingly and expects the first person to recognise the response as an answer.

Later on, the child, now predisposed in the inherent ability to discern the attentional focus of others and the target of their attention, the components of which Bogdan calls 'naive psychology', notices that the adult focuses attention not only on the child, but also on the object that has been targeted in order to gain his/her interest. What is more, being accustomed to bilateral communication from the earlier stages of his/her interaction with the caretaker and to the recognition of communicative intents, the child recognises that the adult wants her/him to direct attention at the object too. Then, the pattern of bilateral communication is activated and the child reciprocates the intent of the adult by focusing on the object and recognising that, like the reciprocation of the affect, this has a particular evocative effect and significance for the adult. Thus, reference to some external object in the form of an

intentional focus becomes a shared intentional focus when it combines with the patterns of intent recognition and reciprocation developed in the bilateral stage.

In compliance with the assumption made in the present chapter that the reconstruction of the original conditions favourable for developing certain mental capacities in childhood will enhance the development of these capacities in the EFL classroom, Bogdan's theory is complementary with the previous considerations on the development of ToM. Thus, being aware of the importance of a relationship between an adult and a child in which a shared intentionality develops becomes an essential factor in devising a technique for improving learners' non-literal-language understanding.

Through including shared intentionality in the technique, the second language of the learners will become meaningful to the students in a new, more genuine way, a way that does not lead to the capture of the L2's meaning in the "prison" of the student's mind, as some logical, arbitrary set of rules and lists of words relating to an objective reality. But the L2 becomes transferred into the outside of the mind to the mind of the significant other, creating a connection between 'me' and 'you', between the inside world and the outside world that originally exists and underlies the meaning of language as a mechanism of shared intentionality developed through the interaction of a child with others. Without such a connection, the meaning of language becomes a depersonalised calculus and a text is just a set of related elements that the students have to match against some objective reality of the arbitrary meanings of words. The author of a text cannot share anything, any intentional focus or communicative intent, with learners, because their minds are incapable of and unprepared for noticing or perceiving shared intentionality transmitted through the foreign language in the first place. It is as if the world in L2 were for learners some sterile, de-subjectivised collection of words, and the objects to which they arbitrarily correspond, but no state of affairs, no description, no predicate of this sterile reality were possible, making L2 resemble more a mathematical equation than a genuine way of sharing thoughts with other people.

Apart from the development of the very mechanism of intentionality, learners' will have to know what the foreign language users' thoughts are directed at. In this respect, the theory of Johnson (1987) seems to offer the most-beneficial suggestions for L2 learners, as it emphasises the role of human experience and imagination for meaning. These two elements, like communication in the context of a unique relationship, a description of mental states and the awareness that language is a representation of a subjective, not objective reality, could be missing from the language classroom, as learners do not have the opportunity to fuse their linguistic knowledge with their experience of the world outside the classroom, and the only way to do that is through imagination. Unlike Radu Bogdan, and such philosophers as Searle (Searle, 1983), Johnson suggests that the mind is not directed at the propositions reflecting the state of the world, but rather at the schematic structures stemming from embodied experiences (Johnson, 1987). This kind of empirical knowledge, stemming from embodiment, has a particular form that models those subterranean regions of the mind which are the source of meaning in all kinds of diverse cognitive endeavours. Experience, however, cannot be mistaken for

representational mental images or a set of pictures displayed in the head. Experience is the way human beings are in the world and in this way becomes objective, because one cannot be differently in the world. Human bodies are invariably similar, and exist in the same way. Johnson (1987) states that this existence becomes the basis of any kind of meaning, be it linguistic meaning, or be it equation in mathematics. Fused with higher cognitive functions and language through the means of imagination, embodied experience becomes a receptacle of meaning and the content of intentionality.

9 The Technique of Particularisation—Theory and Practice

The intentions of the speaker/writer, which in the present chapter are hypothesised to play a crucial role in understanding non-literal language, are not just a set of propositions corresponding to the beliefs of that person. In real communication, various mechanisms operate that make these intentions real factors shaping language comprehension. Theory of mind, the theory of the social origins of predication by Radu Bogdan, with its focus on shared intentionality, and finally the role of experience and imagination as expounded by Mark Johnson, all have their place in determining what it means to apprehend communicative intentions. On this theoretical basis the technique of improving the metaphorical language understanding of L2 learners—*particularisation*—can be proposed. The main principle behind the technique, in compliance with Bogdan's theory and the conclusions of the previous sections regarding ToM mechanisms, is that in order to improve and enhance the understanding of intent-driven language like metaphors, similes, jokes, irony or sarcasm, second-language learners need to be exposed to the linguistic input introduced in the form of an interaction between the learner and the significant other, the context of this interaction being shared attention to the external world, which would lead, as in the case of first-language development in children, to the inclusion or formation of shared intentionality mechanisms in the understanding of language, and the formation of a specific L2 ToM mechanism responsible for attributing intents to the meaning of second language of the learners. What's more, in order to make the intentionality of the language users' intents meaningful, in compliance with Johnson's theory, the technique has to actively involve the learners' imagination. This would enable the connection between the embodied experience of the learner and the foreign language.

In order to meet all these requirements, communicative activity has to be structured in a special way which cannot be achieved in communication between teacher and student, or between the students themselves, or even might be lacking in the genuine interactions between students and native speakers outside the classroom. What is proposed as being effective is an imaginative interaction within the student's mind with a particularised focus, a realistic imaginary character that is

presented through narratives, descriptions or pictures, and which is particularised, or made realistic, through the presentation of his/her coherent biography, emotions, mental states, and experiences in the world. The imaginary interaction of a student with a character particularised in such a way would be achieved through writing/reading narratives, describing the emotions, mental states, thoughts of the particularised focus and the learner, exposure to the repeated expressions of a particularised focus's thoughts and emotions and shared naming of the imaginary world in which the interaction with the particularised focus would take place.

The important thing to achieve in particularisation is to create a make-believe in which the learner has the impression of dealing with a real person. Only in this way is the desire to understand that person's mind created and this person becomes a significant other for the learner, thus the prototype of a second-language parental figure. Additionally, through specifying the exact emotional/mental/biographical/behavioural and spatial-temporal outline of the focus with whom the learner is going to interact, i.e., through particularisation, the meaning of language becomes ascribed and grounded in a manifestly singular character. This manifest singularity is necessary for exposing the 'ownership' of the linguistic reality and showing students that the meaning of L2 depends on the perspective of the utterer/writer. The particularised focus has to be realistic in order to make an indelible mark on the learner's cognition and make the social sharing of the meaning possible, but it cannot be real—otherwise it would not have access to the innermost region of the learner's mind, which is his/her imagination.

The role of a particularised focus is not only to be a prototype of "otherness" in second language, with whom the learners will create a bond of shared intentionality. A particularised focus is also a teacher for the learner who tutors him/her in the acts of intelligible experience. As Johnson points out, experience is not the basis of meaning because it provides mental images or sensual material, but because it is the result of one's existence in the world. Meaning, understanding and knowledge begin at the level of simply being in the world. A particularised focus is for a learner an experiencer, someone who is and exists in the imagination and mediates between the second language and the image schemata of experience elaborated into linguistic meaning through acts of metaphorical projections (Johnson, 1987). Various strands have to be linked with each other in order to make language truly meaningful. A particularised focus is the strand of otherness, shared intentionality and existence, who stands for these elements of our mind that are responsible for meaning making mechanisms. The second language can be connected with the strand of intentionality mechanisms and meaning through maintaining the world of a particularised focus and his/her acts of intelligible experience. But the merger would never be completed without the imagination of the student, which is tapped into and linked to a particularised focus and the second language by making the learner interact and imagine his/her interactions with the particularised focus.

This is one of the reasons why real communicative activities have been excluded as capable of bringing about the change in the understanding of the L2 that has been described. This does not mean that the ability of the students will not be transferred to the social domain of language use. The suggestion is that having developed the

vestigial, prototypical 'other' in the mind through imaginative interactions, the learner will be able to participate in the interactions with L2 users, both spoken and written, that require the demanding task of inferencing intentions behind the language and attributing beliefs to the speaker/writer. This is the final role of the particularised focus: transforming into 'the mind behind the text', a real sense of some other person's being behind each utterance, text and message in second language which enables the learners to correctly interpret metaphors and other forms of indirect language.

The technique can be applied on all age levels of education. In the primary classroom, a particularised focus can take the form of a puppet or a toy. At the beginning of the course/school year, the teacher introduces a particularised focus to the students by means of storytelling or a simple short activity in which the students have to greet the character in turns by introducing themselves. Specifically for the sake of building up the feeling of a particular being embedded in the presence of the focus in the classroom, the teacher should make sure that the puppet/toy used remains the same throughout the course and is not associated with any other character. The presence of the character within the classroom should be established on a regular basis and many references to the previous occurrences of the character in the class should be made so as to create a consistent biography of the character. Also, the biography of the character must be created outside of the context of the classroom, in an imaginary world like Kingdom or Magical Forest, and the teacher must make sure that the world created is clearly presented to the students via storytelling and that the students have an opportunity to interact with a particularised focus in the context of that world through a role-play or a game. The activities in which the character appears may vary, e.g., one day a teacher can tell a story from the world of a particularised focus in which the character and the students together with the teacher appear. Another day the story may not involve the students, but just the adventures of the character in the imaginary world alone. Then, however, the narrator of the story should be the focus itself, role-played by the teacher. During the activity the focus may come into various interactions with the students, joking or answering their questions. In general, all kinds of activities involving the focus must also involve the students. A particularised focus presented alone in a story or a picture may be perceived by the students as just another imaginary character, too remote from the immediacy of their own mind.

The above rules apply to the older students as well. At this level, however, the teacher can individualise a particularised focus so that each student can have their own, e.g., the students can look for interesting characters in books, films, or music, and then particularise them through describing their thoughts, emotions, actions, consistent biography and imaginary world in which they live and interact with the student. A shared classroom focus, however, may also be necessary, as not all of the students may be willing to develop their interactions with a character at a level in which the make-belief of dealing with a real person is achieved. Depending on the proficiency level, the students may engage in the world of the focus either through the narratives prepared by the teacher or the narratives written by themselves. In most cases both will be necessary, the first type to show the students how such an

imaginary interaction and the world of the focus look like (this is also an opportunity to include in the text some non-literal language to further enhance the effect of the focus) and the second one so as to maximize the involvement of the students' imagination. An important thing in the case of narratives is to keep in mind that they should be created with the student as one of the characters of the story, most naturally by using first person narration, e.g., "I talked with [the name of a particularised focus]" instead of "John talked with [the name of a particularised focus]". In this way, even in the case of the narratives prepared by the teacher, the immediacy of the imagination of the students is engaged. Other types of activities involving a particularised focus include role-plays, in which one of the learners takes the role of a focus particularised early on; writing letters to a particularised focus, in which another student responds pretending to be the focus; creating stories collectively; expressing the thoughts of a particularised focus through pictures, poems, or works of art; creating a newspaper article about the interactions of a learner with a particularised focus, and so on.

Apart from the very interactions with the focus, additional form of improving metaphorical language understanding may be explicit non-literal language practice within the context of such interactions. The student may, e.g., ask a particularised focus role-played by the teacher what a non-literal phrase means and the teacher may provide the explanation through the agency of the character. Another type of such activity may be exposure to the non-literal language in the context of the narratives involving the focus and the student.

The possible application of the technique described in the present chapter is limited only by the creativity of the teacher himself/herself. What is the most important is that particularisation should be applied in a consistent manner. If a character is particularised in some way, this character should remain separate from all the other particularised characters: his/her actions, thoughts and emotions should be consistently built up throughout the course of events into a consistent biography and not a motley array of descriptions. The important thing to achieve in particularisation is to create a make-belief in which the learners have the impression of dealing with a real person and to let the students frequently interact and share the space of their imagination with a particularised focus.

10 Conclusions

The aim of the chapter is to present a technique for improving the non-literal language understanding of EFL learners, an area which many students find particularly troublesome, riddled with misunderstandings and difficulties. The assumption made in the chapter is that figurative language is not simply a set of various lexical items, but rather employs the utterer's/writer's intentions as a guiding principle in shaping the meaning, so EFL learners face the challenge of not only processing the language itself, but also incorporating into their interpretation the mind of another person. Taking these considerations into account, the technique

described in the present chapter develops the deepened understanding of non-literal language through students' interaction with a particularised focus, an imaginary character whose mind is presented explicitly to learners through particularising him/her with biographical details, describing mental states, and defining spatial-temporal experiences. In this way, learners create in their imagination a coherent world in which the outside is linked with the inside, the reality is linked with the representation of that reality, and the mind is connected to the second language, creating a whole which yields the speaker's meaning, what is intended to be said, rather than what is said alone. This blend is hypothesised to give students an awareness of language not just as a descriptive calculus, but as a tool that serves the purpose of expressing one's thoughts, which eventually leads to improved metaphorical-language comprehension, as the intentions of the speaker/writer, his/her mind, are essential elements in the meaning of all figurative expressions.

The technique presented above is obviously theoretical and in need of empirical validation. Due to the nature of the technique most reliable studies should be conducted on a longitudinal basis, as interactions with a particularised focus should be consistent throughout the course of events and not just occasional. However, it is conceivable that an improvement might occur in understanding through simply presenting the non-literal language in the context of the imaginary interactions of the learners with particularised focus. All these assumptions, however, are yet to be tested. The most-valuable confirmation, apart from the research data, will of course be the opinions of the learners and the teachers on the effectiveness, practicability and usefulness of the technique.

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Basic Features of Conceptual Sphere "Geopolitics" in Modern English-Speaking Worldview

Tetiana Kurbatova

Abstract The article focuses on analyzing verbalization means, which serve to represent the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" in the modern English-speaking worldview. While mastering a foreign language it is necessary to learn a huge bulk of vocabulary and other linguistic information. How lexical units are acquired, stored and arranged in our mind is a controversial issue for psychologists, linguists and educators. To facilitate this process, one should investigate the principles of a second language mental lexicon functioning. The research is aimed at revealing the connection between language means and knowledge representation structures and relies mostly on the ideas professed by Cognitive Semantics. Cognitive modeling and interpretation combined with traditional linguistic methods enabled us to identify the contexts of cognitive understanding the phenomenon of geopolitics in the modern English-speaking worldview. We identify the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" as a complex of interrelated concepts that structure the phenomenon of geopolitics in native speakers' consciousness. The research presents two cognitive models of the conceptual sphere—the nuclear and peripheral one, and the hierarchical one. The conceptual sphere under study is a complex multidimensional mental formation, its content being formed by its notional, figurative and evaluative components. The verbalization of the conceptual sphere components becomes possible due to the action mechanisms of word formation such as affixation, compounding, blending and reduction. The figurative component of the conceptual sphere is realized by a number of cognitive metaphorical models.

Keywords Concept · Conceptual sphere · Worldview · Metaphor · Notion · Lexeme · Nomen · Mental lexicon · Evaluative component · Figurative component

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1 Introduction

It is obvious that the ability to master any foreign language includes, first of all, the knowledge of words of the target language. The majority of linguists agree that a person is able to know and remember a large number of words, this idea implying that these words are carefully stored and organized in the human mind (Gairns, 1986). Yet, it is still a mystery how the mental repository of all representations that are intrinsically related to words functions (Bonin, 2004).

Vocabulary acquisition is an obligatory element of mastering a foreign language. The lexical basis is formed in conditions similar to those existing in a speaker's cognition. In other words, we should know how a speaker's mental or notional lexicon operates in order to make foreign language acquisition more efficient. Besides, it is still a question how the second language mental lexicon differs from the first language mental lexicon. Some scholars believe that, although these two types of a lexicon are stored separately they are obviously connected and interact with each other (Singleton, 1999). Therefore, it is quite clear that even if a second language learner does not know the nomination in a foreign language, he or she is familiar with the concept represented by this nomination.

Language is a reflection of a society's life and its perception of the world. Studying a language, we can have a deeper understanding of the society itself. Besides language is one of the most important human characteristics. Politics is an essential sphere of human existence. One can say that politics shapes the way we live. Studying the language of politics we can get an insight into a human nature. The concept "geopolitics" has been chosen for analysis as this lexical domain is characterized by high nomination density (3200 lexical units) indicating its importance for English speakers.

2 Mental Lexicon

Our research has been performed within the scope of cognitive linguistics concerned with investigating the relationship between human language and mind. The cognitive nature of second language acquisition requires the description of a language system considering its mental character. As Givon (1979) states, language structures should be explained in the way they correspond the peculiarities of a human memory and cognitive operations. The mental lexicon is known as a mental dictionary containing the information about pronunciation, meaning, syntactic attributes, etc. of a word (Jackendoff, 2002). It is not a collection of lexical units in our mind; it specifies the way words are acquired, processed, stored and retrieved by speakers. The scholars Besner and Humphreys (1991) state that a lexicon can be understood as a way of organizing the sort of knowledge the researchers assume language users have. That is, we have a sense of what sort of knowledge language

users need to perform their task in normal daily life, and our conception of that knowledge can be expressed in terms of a lexicon.

The mental or inner lexicon is connected with the part of memory responsible for language generation. It is a peculiar analogue of a national language, that part of a memory system having a verbalized character or connected with information processing in a verbal form (Kubryakova, 2004, p. 379). From this point of view, the concept of a lexicon can level the actual memory structures with which real language users mediate their language use (Besner & Humphrey, 1991, p. 105).

3 Concept Definition and Structure

The processing, storage and usage of information in human conciseness are realized by concepts, basic mental formations that constitute the basis of the notional or mental lexicon of a speaker. In present-day linguistics, the notion of a concept is the most controversial. Its definition varies in different scientific schools and is often interpreted differently. A concept being an information structure has become a primary research object for Germanic studies which is reflected in the works by Langacker (2000), Jackendoff (1994), Lakoff and Johnson (1980).

The term "concept" can be traced back to "The classical theory of concepts" by Aristotle (1998). In modern linguistics it is interpreted as "a multi-dimensional cluster of sense" (Clark & Marshall, 1981, p. 28), "a gene of culture" (Talmy, 2000, p. 55), "a certain potency of meaning" (Lyapin, 1997, p. 56), "a unit of memory", "a quantum of knowledge" (Askoldov, 1997, p. 267). Being an aspect of thought, the concept is often called an "umbrella" term as it is widely used in several scientific trends from congitive linguistics and psychology to cultural linguistics, philosophy and mathematics.

A concept can be understood as a cluster of culture in the consciousness of people; it is something in the form of which the culture enters the mental world. And, moreover, people through the concept enter the culture and affect it through the concept. Concepts are not only contemplated, they are experienced. They are the subject of a person's emotions, likes and dislikes, associations and interpretations. The concept is also a discrete unit of the collective consciousness, which is stored in the national memory of native speakers in a verbal form. As a cognitive unit of meaning, a concept is an abstract idea or a mental symbol sometimes defined as a "unit of knowledge", built from other units. A concept is usually associated with a corresponding representation in a language (Stepanov, 2007, p. 43).

According to Stepanov, a concept has a layered structure, its strata being the result of the cultural development in different epochs. The special structure of the concept includes the main feature, some additional (passive, obsolete) features and the inner form. The inner form, the etymological criterion, is regarded to be a foundation on which all the other layers of meaning are built (Stepanov, 2007). There are other points of view on the structure of a concept. Slyshkin and Karasik propose to consider the cultural concept as a multidimensional meaningful

construct, where the notional, figurative and evaluative components are distinguished. The notional aspect of a concept is the linguistic fixation of a concept, its name, description, definition, comparative characteristics of this concept in relation to other groups of concepts. The figurative component of a concept comprises visual, auditory, tactile, taste characteristics of objects of reality which are reflected in our consciousness. The evaluative component of a concept specifies the importance of a concept for both an individual and a language community. The concept is concentrated around some strong point of consciousness, from which associative vectors diverge. The most relevant associations to native speakers constitute the nucleus of a concept, the less significant ones make up its periphery. The concept structure has no distinct outlines, while receding from the nucleus the associations gradually fade (Karasik & Slyshkin, 2001).

Evans believes that concepts are organized by the field structure and include a sensual image, an informational or notional content and an interpretative field. The sensual image in the structure of a concept is formed by perceptual cognitive features. These features arise in the native speakers' minds reflecting the surrounding environment perceived through the organs of senses. Figurative features form a metaphorical interpretation of objects and phenomena. The structure of the concept is formed by cognitive classifiers which are merged with cognitive features varying in the degree of brightness and distinctness in the mind (Evans, 2009). The informational content of a concept consists of a minimum amount of cognitive features that determine the most important and distinguishing aspects of an object or phenomenon in our mind. The interpretative field includes some cognitive features, which interpret the informational content of the concept. The structure of a concept can be described only when its content is defined and described, that is, the cognitive features of the concept are revealed. In a broader sense, the structure of the concept can be represented as a circle. The basic notion, the nucleus of the concept, is in the centre of this structure, and the periphery is formed by numerous interpretations added by culture, traditions and an individual's experience.

4 The Structure of the Conceptual Sphere "Geopolitics"

The conceptual sphere "geopolitics" has several conceptual layers or elements: a nucleus, the nearest periphery and the farthest periphery. The bulk of words and word combinations analyzed in the research amounts to 3200 lexical units selected from English dictionaries (*Merriam-Webster Collegiate Dictionary, Dictionary of Politics and Government, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, Oxford English Dictionary, New Oxford American Dictionary*) and illustrated by the examples taken from the US and Great Britain periodicals (*BBC News, The Chicago Tribune, the Daily Mail, the Daily Post, the Economist, the Guardian, the Independent, the Newsweek, the New Yorker, the New York Times, the Observer, the Times, the Telegraph, the Washington Post*) issued at the beginning of the current century (2008–2015).

The basic features of the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" are defined by the etymology of its nomen "*geopolitics*" (*geo* + *politics*) implying space and power or government. The nomination was first introduced in 1899 as a short form for "geographical politics" (*Oxford English Dictionary*). The name of the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" or its nomen was chosen after studying a number of synonyms including *international relations* (26%), *foreign affairs* (18%), *international policy* (5.5%), *foreign politics* (3.9%), *international politics* (3.5%), *global policy* (1.9%), *world politics* (1.9%), *world policy* (1.2%), *external politics* (1.2%), *political geography* (0.9%) while analyzing the examples taken from electronic resources (the websites of the above mentioned periodicals). The lexeme *geopolitics* has been observed in 36% of the contexts per one thousand examples using the continuous sampling method. It represents the content of the concept under study as a whole entity in the aggregate of all its aspects, variety and frequency of usage in speech testifying the multifunctional and general character of the lexeme *geopolitics* in modern English.

The notional component of the given conceptual sphere can be presented as follows: a political sphere of human activity, a science, a politological concept, international policy, a country's political course within the global political space, economic, political, cultural and other relations of states, a combination of political and geographical factors, pseudoscience.

As any concept, it is a purely mental entity which exists in a human brain as a complex of notions, values, emotions, fears, expectations, images, etc. and the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" is formed by a number of nuclear conceptual indications or semes such as *politics* (38.6% of the analyzed units), *countries' relations* (35.9%), *geographical factors* (22.8%), *power/authority/influence* (18%), as these semes were registered in all analyzed English dictionaries (*Oxford English Dictionary, New Oxford American Dictionary, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, The Merriam Webster Online Dictionary*). The periphery of the notional component of the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" is represented by some additional conceptual indications specifying the nuclear ones, namely: *international safety* (5.7%), *a conflict* (5.3%), *society* (9.8%), *government* (0.2%), *globalization* (9.6%), *a country* (8.3%), *an international organization* (2.7%), *a politician* (8.6%), *diplomacy* (4.6%), etc. Therefore, we identify the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" as a complex of interrelated concepts that structure the phenomenon of geopolitics in native speakers' consciousness. It is a complex multidimensional mental formation, its content being formed by its notional, figurative and evaluative components.

In the human mind, concepts are united into certain conceptual systems because of their development and interaction with one another. Conceptual systems include some conceptual spheres, that is, totalities of national or ethnical concepts (Kosharnaya, 2002, p. 54). The conceptual sphere under analysis is a vitally important fragment of the modern English-speaking worldview. A worldview or world image is the fundamental cognitive orientation of an individual or society encompassing the entirety of the individual's or society's knowledge and points of

view. A world view can include natural philosophy; fundamental, existential, and normative postulates or themes; values, emotions, and ethics (Pavilenis, 1983, p. 19).

The terms "linguistic world view" and "conceptual world view" should be clearly separated: the linguistic world image is a model of the world, created by language and existing in language. As Kolshansky emphasized, "each language creates its own conceptual world, which serves as a mediator between reality and a man. A person can be guided only by the world given to him in the intermediate language consciousness and is his spiritual thanks to his mother tongue" (Kolshansky, 1990, p. 29). A conceptual world view makes the basis of the linguistic world view. Every natural language reflects a certain way of conceptualizing (perception and organization) of the world and, thus, the concepts expressed in language form a unified system of beliefs, which is a kind of "collective philosophy" and it is "imposed" to all native speakers as mandatory (Kolshansky, 1990, p. 23).

Geopolitics as a fragment of the surrounding reality requires a systematic integrated study as such geopolitical phenomena as globalization, the cold war, a geopolitical conflict and numerous others are constantly affecting the life of the English-speaking medium, which finds reflections in linguistic forms. Understanding the mechanisms of knowledge and ideas formation concerning geopolitics will facilitate the reconstruction of the English-speaking worldview enhancing the process of the English language acquisition.

The methods applied in the given research represent a combination of traditional linguistic methods (definition analysis, the analysis of synonyms, opposites and derivatives, context analysis and others) and modern methods of conceptual analysis (cognitive metaphor analysis, concept modeling).

From the hierarchical point of view, we represent the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" as a hyperconcept (that is a concept of the highest rank, the most abstract category). Such components as "geopolitical space-time", "geopolitical activity", "subject of geopolitics", "object of geopolitics" are hypoconcepts which include a number of concepts ("geopolitical space", "geopolitical time", "international politics", "global society", "international organization", "politician") and subconcepts such as "cold war", "diplomacy", "human rights", "balance of power", "geopolitical conflict", etc. (Table 1). These are the key notions that form the notional component of the given phenomenon in native speakers' consciousness at present.

For example, the hyperconcept "geopolitics" includes such segments or slots as the hypoconcept "geopolitical activity", the concept "international politics" and the subconcept "geopolitical conflict", which are verbalized by such English lexical units as *aggression, military conflict, attack, blitz, blitzkrieg, bombardment, brinkmanship, invasion, global conflict, intervention, annexation, battle, war, warfare, bloodshed, bomber, guerrilla war, war on terror, big stick, bomb-happy, war business* and others (Table 1).

Table 1 The hierarchical model of the conceptual sphere "*geopolitics*"

Hypoconcepts	Concepts	Subconcepts	Verbalization means
Geopolitical space-time 16.4%	Geopolitical space 11.7% Geopolitical time 4.7%	Country 5.3% Federation 2.5% Border 3.9% Cold war 1.9%	*Country, state, federation, union, border, thaw, boundary, the Berlin Wall, Cold War, epoch, Arab Spring, Cold War II*
Geopolitical activity 48.7%	Foreign affairs 39.1% Globalization 9.6%	World power 7.5% Diplomacy 6.6% International safety 7.7% Balance of power 6% Geopolitical conflict 7.3% Human rights 4%	*War, warfare, conflict, terrorism, espionage, spy, crisis, ambassador, mission, negotiations, peace talks, human rights, balance of power, superpower, international security*
Object of geopolitics 10.8%	Global society 10.8%		*Nation, people, majority, minority, race, alien, foreigner, xenophobia, refugee, racism*
Subject of geopolitics a24.1%	Politician 8.6% Country 8.3% Alliance 4.5% International organization 2.7%		*Atlanticism, association, Atlantic alliance, the Axis of Evil, EU, NATO, WTO, UN, UNESCO, Schengen Agreement, politician, world leader*

5 Verbalization Means of the Conceptual Sphere "Geopolitics"

According to the linguistic and cognitive understanding, the relations between the concept and the verbal means of its expression are complicated. Language does not form any concepts, but serves as a means of their representation and exchange in the process of communication. Concepts being purely abstract entities exist in the mentality of an individual, thus, to be used in communication they have to be verbalized, that is, expressed by language means. In language, a concept can be verbalized by individual words and phrases as well as by sentences or entire texts. The choice of the verbal form depends on the mental representation characteristics, a speaker's mental lexicon and the language itself, all these being interconnected.

The verbalization of the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" components becomes possible due to the action mechanisms of word formation such as affixation, compounding, blending, reduction and others. Affixation is one of the most productive models of word formation (45% of the analyzed lexemes). Conversion (6%), semantic derivation (3%) and borrowing (0.7%) appear to be less productive. Many geopolitical terms are either of Latin or Greek origin (*corps diplomatique, persona grata*). One can notice the appearance of new nominations borrowed from the Arabic and Asian languages (*jihad, al-Qaeda*).

The most common models of compounding are *noun + noun = noun* and *adjective + noun = noun* (63%) (*spymaster, graymail*).

Affixation remains one of the most productive models of word building (45%). The traditional noun suffixes are *-er, -or, -ing, -ist, -ism, -ty, -ence, -ance, -tion, -sion, -cy, -ment* (*sleeper, governor, governance, conference, conspiracy, harmonization, amity, alliance, traitor, impeachment, summitry, neutrality, accession*). The mentioned formants take part in new unit formation of the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" (*globalism, antiglobalism, presidentialness, politainer, bilateralism*).

The traditional English suffixes are accompanied by affixoides or root affixes *(-phobia, -graphy, mega-, -politics, -mania, bio-, anti-, multi-, hyper, super-, free, -friendly, -intensive, -wide, -oriented)*. They can be of both English and foreign origin (Greek or Latin)—*megalomania (extreme pleasure in someone's own power or importance), kleptography (the secret theft of information using a security hole deliberately built into a cryptographic system), genopolitics (the study of the genetic basis of political actions and attitudes), market-oriented, gay-friendly, duty-free.* The suffix *-ship* considered to be obsolete or non-productive is used to form new words in the political sphere (*showmanship, statesmanship, democratatorship (dictatorship that pretends to be a democracy by holding sham or fixed elections)*.

The formant *Euro-* (1.2%) is extremely popular nowadays: *Europhilia (admiration for Europe, Europeans, or the European Union), Europhobia (dislike for or hostility to Europe, Europeans, or the European Union), Europhobic (hostile to Europe, Europeans, or the European Union), Europol or European Police Office (an international association devoted to fighting cross-border organized crime within the European Union), Euro-sceptic/eurosceptic (a person who is opposed to increasing the powers of the European Union), Eurotax (a tax imposed by the European Union), Eurozone/eurozone (all those countries that have joined the European single currency, considered as a group), Eurobabble (pretentious jargon or meaningless talk relating to or emanating from the European Union)*. Compare:

> This Eurobabble has always been there just to hide the real intention with EU: More power and wealth for the rich, less for the rest (The Guardian 16 March, 2015).

Among prefixes the most wide-spread are *non-, inter-, de-, il-, im-, inter-*: *(non-candidate, non-governmental, non-aggression, de-policing, illegal, immigrant, impeach, impose, interdependent, international, intergovernmental)*.

Verbs often have a suffix *-ise/-ize* (15%) (*optimize, itemize, obamacize, anglicize, harmonize, Americanize*). The less productive suffixes include *-fy, -ate, -ite, -ve: ratify, negotiate, multipartite, dissolve, collaborate, assimilate*.

Conversion as a transfer of one part of speech to another without any form changes is often used in the language of geopolitics, the most productive model being Noun → Verb (*bluff—to bluff, base—to base, blockade—to blockade, reign—to reign, reform—to reform, dollar—to dollar, brain—to brain*). Compare:

> Nepal is facing a humanitarian crisis due to the blockade of its border posts with India by groups opposed to the new national constitution (The Guardian 6 February, 2015).

> The spectre of trucks blockading streets in protest at record fuel prices—on top of student and public-sector worker demonstrations—will be raised tomorrow (The Guardian 9 January, 2011).

Multicomponent lexical units can be based on a syntax-like entities: *just-in-time politics* (*a form of politics in which* ad hoc *coalitions and relationships are built around issues instead of parties or ideologies), new white flight (the migration of whites to areas or states that are not racially diverse and that have relatively low rates of crime and other social ills)*, *cloak-and-dagger (characteristic of or concerned with intrigue and espionage), big-stick policy (force or the threat of using force).* Compare:

> Can we call the plan to save Lawrence of Arabia's belongings for the nation a cloak and dagger operation … (The Guardian 5 January, 2007).

As for the lexical and semantic word building one can mention the cases of a meaning transfer like *the Pentagon* (*the pentagonal building serving as the headquarters of the U.S. Department of Defense, near Washington and DC, the U.S. Department of Defense*), *power* (*the military strength of a state the sea power of Venice; a state or country, esp. one viewed in terms of its international influence and military strength).*

Substantive adjectives (0.4%) like *the unemployed, the coloured, locals, Federals* have such features of nouns as articles and a plural form.

Cases of abbreviation are widespread (12%) caused by language resource economy and such extralinguistic factors as advances in science and technology, mass-media and information technologies development. Most often the nominations of different alliances and international organizations are abbreviated or shortened (77%): *WHO (World Health Organization), NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), BRIC (the countries of Brazil, Russia, India, and China viewed as a group of emerging economies with large potential markets), EEA (European Economic Area), AIF (Anti-Iraqi Forces), CIA (Central Intelligence Agency).* Compare:

> All *Brics* countries have become more conscious of this since the onset of the current financial and economic crisis (The Guardian 2 April, 2013).

Free word combinations containing the components in their direct meaning make up about 23% of the analyzed units. They are created from the existing generic nominations and combinations by adding new elements. Their combinability is restricted by grammar and common sense (*ambassador—career ambassador, diplomacy—superpower diplomacy).*

One of the basic features of the conceptual sphere verbalization is a large number of borrowed nominations, primarily from Latin and French. The lexemes denoting the phenomena of diplomatic activity were borrowed due to the constant contacts of different countries' representatives—*accredit, corps diplomatique, persona grata, persona non grata, envoy, embassy, ambassador, diplomat, diplomacy, consul, détente, attaché*) from Latin and later French as well as from other languages (*junta* (Spanish, Portuguese), *troika* (Russian), *Taliban* (Persian, Arabic), *sultan* (Arabic),

Sultanate (Arabic), *fatwa* (Arabic), *intifada* (Arabic), *ayatollah* (Arabic), *Baath* (Arabic), *Al Fatah* (Arabic), *Raj* (Hindi)). A recent tendency is the increased number of borrowed nominations from Arabic and Asian languages (0.2%)—*jihad, jihadi, jihadist, jihadism, al-Qaeda, Hamas.*

Telescopy is based on merging word stems in a shortened or full form resulting in formation of a new lexical unit which keeps the binary character of the structure. For instance, *Obamamania/ObamaMania (the intense excitement over Barack Obama winning the 2008 Presidential Election), Chermany (China and Germany taken together as an economic unity or market), Chimerica (China + America), Chindia (China + India), Chindonesia (China + India + Indonesia), shampaign (sham + campaign—a fake, insincere, or misleading campaign, particular for political office), pollutician (pollution + politician—a politician who supports initiatives and policies that harm the environment), Eurogeddon/Euro–geddon (Europe + Armageddon—an extreme European economic, political, or military crisis).*

The conceptual sphere "geopolitics" is characterized by a large number of neologisms, new nominations in English (4.5%). Almost every geopolitical event or a new phenomenon generates new nominations (*9/11, bioterrorist, franchise terrorism/terrorist, homicide bombing, jihadist, no-planer, so September 10, suicide bomber/bomb/bombing, Putinversteher*. Compare:

> She has faced down the so-called *Putinversteher*—those who show such "understanding" for Putin's actions that they come close to excusing them (The Guardian 22 October, 2014).

The opposite process is irrevocable as some nominations become obsolete when the historical phenomena denoted by them disappear (*Reaganomics—the free-market economic approach of US president Reagan, involving cuts in taxes and social spending together with removal of controls on domestic markets).*

6 Cognitive Metaphors in the Verbalization of the Conceptual Sphere "Geopolitics"

The notional nucleus of a concept is surrounded by various figurative associations both connotational and metaphorical.

The theory of cognitive or conceptual metaphors highlights the metaphoric use of language and was developed by such cognitive linguists as Lakoff and Johnson (1980), Gibbs (1994), Kövecses (2002, 2005), Evans and Green (2006). The theory considers metaphors at the level of thinking, not only as a figure of speech. They are used to express one idea in terms of another linking two conceptual spheres or domains, the source domain and the target domain. The target domain describes some abstract phenomena and it borrows its structure from the source domain, which contains more concrete phenomena based on human physical experience. At the linguistic level, an object or a phenomenon in the target domain is verbalized using the words and expressions from the source domain. Thus, a metaphor is a sign

system that allows us to understand an unfamiliar experience in terms of other familiar experiences.

The lexical units of the conceptual sphere under analysis provide a great variety of conceptual metaphors as the notions of geopolitical activity are mostly abstract by nature and cannot be explained or understood without metaphors. There is no other way of perceiving such phenomena as globalization, crisis, inflation, etc. but only by comparing them with more concrete, familiar or directly experienced notions.

On the other hand, some political speakers and writers tend to choose metaphors deliberately to convey their ideological or persuasive points. Thus, metaphors, both conceptual (cognitive) and poetic (figurative) are widely used in political texts. Moreover, the ideas of the conceptual metaphor theory are used to identify ideological underlying messages. For example, while analyzing the articles from the Los Angeles Times on anti-immigrant issues one can find that they implied an anti-immigrant policy (Santa Ana, 1999). The American nation was metaphorically viewed as a house or building and the immigrants were viewed as natural disasters such as floods threatening the building. The importance of metaphors is difficult to overestimate, because "they are building blocks of political, economic, cultural, and religious realities that are not only the foundation of human life but also the object of it" (Kim, 1996, p. 36).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) identify three categories of conceptual (conventional) metaphors: ontological, orientation and structural.

In our research the figurative component is realized by a number of cognitive metaphors involving such metaphorical models as "geopolitics is a human being" (*geopolitics teaches*), "geopolitics is a natural phenomenon" (*geopolitical earthquake/disaster/eruption*), geopolitics is a mechanism" (*geopolitical wheel/machine/spin*), "geopolitics is a disease" (*geopolitics hurts*), "geopolitics is a building/a house" (*geopolitical platform*). These are the examples of ontological metaphors, some of the most basic devices as they are usually taken as self-evident, direct descriptions of mental phenomena (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) and are based on human experience associated with physical objects in everyday life, especially with our bodies. Ontological metaphors arise when we view events, activities, emotions, ideas and so on as entities and substances (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Thus, geopolitics is viewed as a human being able to think, feel, perform actions, etc. and bears some anthropomorphic features of an acting character. Compare:

> He agrees that *geopolitics* probably *hurts* factories (The Guardian 18 September, 2014).
>
> Hitler recognized no borders, which is certainly not what *geopolitics teaches*… (The Economist 20 October, 2014).

It is worth mentioning that the lexical units correlated with the nomen *geopolitics* express physical or mental activity, emotions and feeling of a human being as a result of which geopolitics is perceived as something negative. Compare:

> With the Cold War at its zenith, the *geopolitics that governed the fate* of global citizens was something that shook and touched people … (The Daily Mail 16 December, 2014).

Orientation metaphors are based on spatial relationship between objects and their movement. The orientation metaphor "geopolitics is a movement" is based on the movement of geopolitical objects and subjects in the geopolitical space (*geopolitical movement, to move westward/eastward/backward/forward/to the left/right/up/down).* Compare:

> And this shift represents both Democrats *moving to the left* (The Independent 12 June, 2014).
>
> NATO and the EU *moving eastward* to surround Russia … (The Washington Post 12 August, 2014).

In structural metaphors, one abstract concept is understood and expressed in terms of another, usually more concrete one. For example, war is a concept that is often mapped as a source domain. War usually involves attacking, winning, losing, fighting, defending, etc. So, we use this word to explain such abstract notions as geopolitics. In the structural metaphor "geopolitics is war", the concepts from the source domain "war" are transferred to the target domain "geopolitics", as a physical conflict is part of every person's experience and for this reason, it is well-structured and easy to understand. Therefore, we use it to structure the relations in a geopolitical conflict: parties in a conflict are fighters or warriors, their political activity is conceptualized in terms of attacking and defending, the place where a political event occurs is associated with a battlefield. Besides, numerous attributes of war are used in the geopolitical context (*geopolitical weapon, shield*). Compare:

> The Cold War was the *geopolitical*, ideological, and economic *struggle* between two world superpowers, the USA and the USSR (The Economist 28 January, 2010).
>
> On the *geopolitical front*, there is the possibility to work with Russia on Islamic extremism … (The Times 6 June, 2009).
>
> Putin is making the West's *Cold Warriors* look like fools (The Independent 22 March, 2014).

In a structural metaphor, a new concept is metaphorically constructed by another one. In other words, two concepts are combined to make a structural metaphor. The structural metaphor is used to express a part of a system, a stage, a goal, and the like (Kim, 1996, p. 39). Thus, people tend to perceive geopolitics as a succession of war conflicts, the struggle for the world power in which the strongest wins by all means.

There are some other structural metaphors like "geopolitics is sport/a game", "geopolitics is business", "geopolitics is a theatre/a circus" representing geopolitics as a structure on the basis of various associations. For example, the subjects of geopolitics as active participants of this process act as businessmen, sportsmen, players, actors, directors, clowns, circus performers, etc. Compare:

> Putin is *playing chess* and I think we are *playing marbles* … (The Independent 2 March, 2014).
>
> The Big Picture of the *Geopolitical Chess* Game: Ukraine is A "Square on the Chessboard" (The Washington Post June 1, 2014).

… the Russian *geopolitical ball* fell into the court of the EU … (The Economist 20 April, 2010).

Parties in a geopolitical conflict are conceptualized as rivals in a game/sport/battle (*geopolitical rival/enemy*) or victims (*geopolitical victim*). The activity of geopolitical subjects and objects is conceptualized by means of associations with a game, theatre or circus (to *play geopolitical games, geopolitical gambling*, *to perform political drama/farce/pantomime, to have a success, to succeed, to triumph or fail on a political stage*). The places where different geopolitical events occur are described according to these models (*a geopolitical battleground/front/ring, a geopolitical arena/stage/theatre/circus*). Compare:

This willingness to tease Washington had made some wary of *the role* Cuba might *play* in the contemporary *geopolitics* … (The Guardian 20 December, 2014).

… multiple *geopolitical audiences*, wearing a *Western mask* to Western leaders … (The Independent 12 June, 2012).

A New Actor in the Geopolitical Arena. Will a Romney victory rattle *geopolitical stage*? (The Independent 17 September, 2012).

Another *Geopolitical Triumph* for Vladimir Putin! (The Guardian 7 July, 2014).

As a rule, different types of metaphors are widely used in the language of politics. We can observe the combination of several figurative or nonconventional metaphorical models like "the USA is an eagle" (a symbol of power), "Russia is a bear" (a symbol of raw strength), "Europe is a tortoise" (a symbol of patience and stability) combined with other means of verbalization (expressive adjectives, political clichés, plain language) in order to create a bright expressive contrast. These creative imaginative metaphors are innovative in the way they shake our conventional way of experiencing realities and open up a new horizon on our experiential terrain (Kim, 1996, p. 41). Compare:

There the Russian man: *macho*, *militarist, practitioner of the Soviet-style big lie* (Russian soldiers in Crimea? What soldiers?), a *resentful post-imperial nationalist* who in a recent press conference compared Russia to an *embattled bear*. Here the German woman: *gradualist, quietly plain-speaking, consensus-building, strongest* on economic power, *patiently* steering a slow-moving, sovereignty-sharing, multinational *European tortoise* (The Guardian 22 October, 2014).

There is no doubt that a conceptual metaphor is always a source of something new and interesting. Metaphors provide a certain cultural background because they always reflect specific needs of the target audience and the key issues of various national or social groups' lifestyles turned into further metaphorical derivations.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980, 1993), the scientists exploring the conceptual basis of the metaphor, indicate metaphors as rooted in thoughts. The way we see this world is reflected in the way we reflect our ideas. Thus, a unique cultural background of any nation is reflected in metaphors used in speech. It is clearly observed that speakers use concepts referring to certain physical experiences to understand and

express concepts referring to more abstract conceptual domains. In other words, they use some easily recognized images (a bear, a tortoise) for describing more sophisticated ones like geopolitical courses of Merkel and Putin.

7 Conclusions

We identify the conceptual sphere "geopolitics" as a complex of interrelated concepts that structure the phenomenon of geopolitics in native speakers' consciousness. The research presents two cognitive models of the conceptual sphere—the nuclear and peripheral one, and the hierarchical one. The conceptual sphere under study is a complex multidimensional mental formation, its content being formed by its notional, figurative and evaluative components, which are realized in language by a great variety of verbalization means.

In everyday classroom activities, teachers should facilitate students' awareness of conceptual metaphors. They should make students know that metaphors are not only poetical or rhetorical devices in literature, but "a means of understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff, 1993, p. 203). On the other hand, educators should also develop students' ability to analyze metaphors, thus, teaching them to think independently. It is necessary for teachers to encourage students to dig out the underlying conceptual metaphor system as well. This method helps to deepen the understanding of the second language, thus promoting the learning of English accordingly.

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On the Mongolian Students' Difficulties in Acquiring English Relative Clauses, Due to Syntactic Structure Difference

Namsrai Munkhtsetseg

Abstract According to researchers of applied linguistics, the basic problems of foreign language learning arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language itself, but primarily out of first language habits. English and Mongolian relative clauses are greatly different from each other with regards to their phrase structure. This paper examines evidence for structural differences such as head-directionality, which cause difficulties for Mongolian learners in mastering the English relative clause. 100 students between grades 10 and 12 (aged between 15 and 18) who have studied English for 5–7 years were chosen in the study. First, in order to check the students' background knowledge of relative clauses, the students were given an exam with 2 tasks: (1) to translate Mongolian sentences into English and (2) to create sentences by putting given words in the correct order. According to the study, most students had problems with English relative clause structure: omitting the relative pronoun altogether, selecting the wrong relative pronoun, or disordering the constituents of the syntactic structure. Second, we carried out an experiment on the same students in order to examine the importance of translation for learning complex structures in the English relative clause. According to the study, I hypothesize L1 grammar influences the foreign language learners and I argue that a grammar-translation method is the most effective way to teach and learn L2 complex grammar attributes based on the result of the second experiment.

Keywords Relative clause · Head-direction parameter · Interference · Error analysis · Translation method

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1 Introduction

Relative clauses are sometimes called adjective clauses and follow the noun which they describe. They are dependent clauses which give additional information about a noun in the main clause, and they follow that noun in the complex sentence they create. The most important work on the complexity of relative clauses was the proposal by Keenan and Comrie in 1977 based on language typology (Izumi, 2003), which studies similarities and differences among all languages in the world (Gass & Selinker, 2008, cited in Minako, 2009).

According to Noam Chomsky (1981), The Head-Direction Parameter (HDP) was hypothesized to govern two basic, widely attested word order options: subject-object-verb (Mongolian) and subject-verb-object (English). Many studies have provided evidence that the differences in the principal branching directions between the two languages often cause difficulties in acquiring complex syntax (e.g.,, Flynn, 1984; Flynn & Espinal, 1985). For example, Schachter (1974) examined the composition data written by Persian, Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese learners of English. She observed that the Chinese and Japanese groups produced significantly fewer relative clauses than did the Persian and Arabic groups. She explained that it is because the native and target languages form relative clauses in strikingly different ways. She also noted that while Chinese and Japanese learners do not use relative clauses with great frequency, they use them with a high degree of accuracy when they do use them (Chang, 2004).

The head-direction parameter plays a significant role in the acquisition of L2 or foreign language relative clauses. When L1 and L2 are the same with regards to the head-direction parameter, the acquisition of relative clauses is facilitated. When L1 and L2 differ with regards to the head-direction parameter, the acquisition of relative clauses is difficult for learners, as they must assign a new value to the parameter in acquisition.

Acquisition of English relative clauses by different language learners has been studied actively for the last few years, but there haven't been any studies on Mongolian learners' acquisition of English relative clauses so far. For this reason, the present study examines evidence for head-directionality differences causing difficulties for Mongolian learners in acquiring complex structures such as relative clauses in English.

Moreover, the paper tries to examine whether grammar-translation is good method to help students understand the complex structures of foreign languages such as relative clause word ordering, etc.

2 Differences Between English and Mongolian Relative Clauses

Noam Chomsky's Principles and Parameters' Theory in the 1980s introduced the idea that a small number of innate principles are common to every human language (e.g., phrases are oriented around heads), and that these general principles are

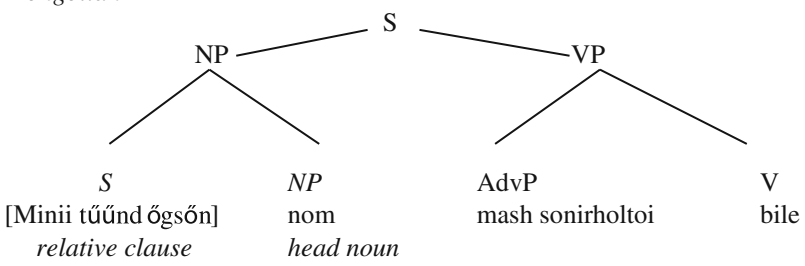
subject to parametric variation (e.g., the order of heads and other phrasal components may differ). All languages have phrase structure, or a systematic way of organizing the different elements in a sentence. This is a linguistic universal. Not all languages, however, have the same type of phrase structure. Head directionality is connected with the type of branching that predominates in a language: head-initial structures are *right-branching*, while head-final structures are *left-branching*.

While English is a head-initial and left branching language, Mongolian is head-final and right branching language. Thus, the relative clause in English follows the head noun phrase (NP) while the relative clause in Mongolian precedes the head noun phrase (NP). Let's see some examples:

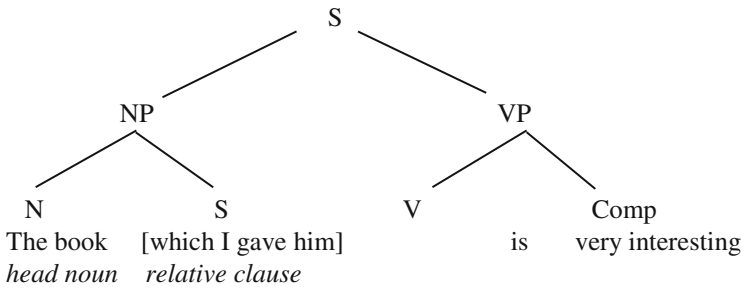
(1a) Mongolian: Minii tűűnd őgsőn nom mash sonirholtoi bilee.
I-*Gen* 3SG-Dat give-pst book-Nom very interesting Cop
(1b) English: The book which I gave him is very interesting.

As the tree shows:

Mongolian



English



Also, English uses relative pronouns such as *who, whose, when, which, where and that*.

(2a) English: The house [*where* he lives is very near].

Likewise, there are no explicit markings such as relative pronouns between a relative clause and the head noun in Mongolian as shown in (2b).

(2b) Mongolian: [Tűűnii amidardag] baishin mash oirhon.
3SG-Gen live-Hab house-Nom very near

Diessel (2004) stated that English has a wide variety of relative clauses, which are commonly classified based on two structural features: (i) the syntactic role of the HEAD, that is, the main clause element that is modified by the relative clause; and (ii) the syntactic role of the GAP, that is, the element that is gapped or relativized inside the relative clause. One of the most important components of a noun phrase is the head noun. In English, the head noun becomes the center of attraction of the noun phrase. This part cannot be omitted from the phrase, whereas the pre modifier or post modifier can be omitted.

Most Mongolian relative clauses are pre-nominal. They can be classified into three types, i.e., relative clauses proper, gapless relative clauses, and headless relative clauses. Relative clauses proper are gapped relative clauses with head nouns.

One of the features of Mongolian relative clauses is that their subjects are mostly marked in the genitive case as shown in (1a), (2b) and (3a) while the subjects of English relative clauses are always marked in the nominative case as shown in (1b), (2a) and (3b).

(3a) Mongolian: [Minii tűűnd őgsőn] nom mash sonirholtoi bilee.
I-Gen 3SG-Dat give-pst book-Nom very interesting Cop
(3b) English: The *book* [which I gave him] is very interesting.

Depending on the time of action, however, verbs in both English and Mongolian relative clauses can be in different tenses and aspects. Let's see this in some examples:

The verbs in relative clauses are in the past tense:

(4a) Mongolian:[Őčigdőr *irsen*] hűműűs buudald baigaa.
Yesterday *come-Pst* people-Nom hotel-Loc exist-Prs
(4b) English: The people [who *came* yesterday] are at hotel.
The verbs in relative clauses are in the progressive tense:
(5a) Mongolian: [Tűűnii hajuud *zogsoj baigaa*] ohin manai angiin suragch
[3SG-Gen next to *stand-ImPf to be*-Prog] girl-Nom our class-Gen pupil.
(5b) English: The girl who is standing next to him is pupil of my class
The verbs in relative clauses are in the habitual aspect:
(6a) Mongolian: [Tűűnii *ajilladag]* gazar maš tohilog.
[3SG-Gen *work-Hab]* place-Nom very comfortable.
(6b) English: The place where he works is very comfortable.

Instead, the Mongolian sentence-final word, or verb of the relative clause, can be in a different tense and/or aspect. Headless relative clauses are gapped relative clauses without overt head nouns. For example:

Dorj zaluudaa hanilsantaigaa nasyg eleej baigaa hűn.
Dorj youth-Loc marry-Pst-Com-Ref age-Acc spend-ImPerf to be-Prs person-Nom.
Dorj is the person who has spent his whole life with the one whom he married to.

As we have seen from the example, there is no overt head noun in Mongolian sentences. Instead *hanilsan- of hanilsantaigaa* refers the head noun covertly.

3 Mongolian Language Interference in Learning English Relative Clauses

One of the crucial factors that influences and characterizes foreign language learning is language transfer. Sentences in the target language may exhibit interference from the mother tongue of the learner. The basic problems of foreign language learning arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language itself, but primarily out of the special 'set' created by first language habits (Fries, in Lado, 1957; Bley-Vroman, 1989, p. 55).

Ferguson (1965) points out that one of the major problems in the learning of a second language is the interference caused by the structural differences between the learner's native language and their second language. A natural consequence of this conviction is the belief that a careful contrastive analysis of the two languages offers an excellent basis for the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses, and the development of actual classroom techniques (Ferguson ibid, p. 4).

Interference can affect in positive as well as in a negative ways, though with greater differences between the two languages, more negative effects of interference are expected. We should take into account that languages with more similar structures are more likely to be exposed to mutual interference than languages with fewer similar features.

According to Berthold et al. (1997), interference may be viewed as the transference of elements from one language to another at various levels including phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical. Grammatical interference is defined as the first language influencing the second in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determiners, and tense and mood (Berthold et al., 1997, cited in Archvadze, 2015, p. 3)

One of the reasons why Mongolian learners of English are confused in comprehending and producing English relative clauses is because of the differences in the structures of English and Mongolian. In other words, the knowledge of the Mongolian language influences the learner's English relative clause production. Mongolian learners of English may have problems with English relative clauses due to the fact that Mongolian is a left-branching SOV language while English is a

right-branching SVO language. Likewise, the presence of relative pronouns in English and their absence in Mongolian causes problems as well.

4 Research Questions

The present research aims to investigate what difficulties Mongolian students have due to the structural differences between the relative clauses of the two languages. The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What kinds of errors do Mongolian learners make in producing English relative clauses?
2. What causes Mongolian learners to make such errors?
3. Is translation an effective way to make students understand the complex structure of relative clauses?

5 Research Methodology

Participants

100 students aged between 15 and 18 (10th–12th grades) who have studied English for 5–7 years were chosen for the study. Subject and object relative clauses had been taught to all participants, and how well each participant learned varied depending on the level of their English knowledge.

Data collection

In order to examine the first and second research questions we had given two tasks to the students in the Pre-test and carried out an error analysis on the students' tests. In the pre-test, each of the participants was first given 5 item word order test and 5 translating sentences (from Mongolian into English) relating to relative clauses in order to check learners' background knowledge about English relative clauses. Subjects were given 30 min to finish both tasks (Appendix 1).

In order to examine the third research question we gave the students two Post-test tasks similar to those in the Pre-test. The participants were given 30 min to finish both tasks (Appendix 2).

Data analysis

Pre-test data were analyzed in terms of: (1) the influence of Mongolian relative clause structure, and (2) the type of errors produced by students. Error analysis was used.

Post-test data were analyzed in terms of: (1) the result of translation teaching, and (2) which group of students had done post-test better. Comparative analysis was used.

6 Pre-test

First, in order to check the students' background knowledge of relative clauses, the students were given an exam with 2 tasks: (1) to translate Mongolian sentences into English and (2) to create sentences by putting given words in the correct order. 72% of the students made errors in translating sentences and the remaining 28% couldn't translate them at all. In the second task, however, only 57% of the students made mistakes while the remaining 43% were able to do it correctly. As we have seen from the results of the exam, the students have more problems in translating complex sentences than in creating sentences from a given set of words. The errors made by the participants have been analyzed in the next section in detail.

6.1 Error Analysis

Error Analysis is recognized as an essential branch of applied linguistics and constitutes the appropriate start for Second Language Acquisition. The psychological basis of Error Analysis is cognitive theory which is related to Chomsky's language acquisition and universal grammar. Therefore, it is a methodology for describing second language learners' language systems.

In fact, the error analysis is basically linguistic analysis on complex phenomena of language learning. The role of error analysis is very important in second and foreign language teaching and learning. Differences between language and culture should be taken into consideration in order to deal with transfer, and as a result, teaching will be more effective.

Errors on part of the learner are seen as an integral part of language learning which is used in teaching grammar, linguistics, psychology, etc. Therefore, an integration of three disciplines is needed to deal with the complexities of second language acquisition and provide empirical evidence for the improvement of teaching methodology, syllabus designs, and teaching techniques in English language classrooms (Akbar, 2012, p. 1031).

Analysis of second language learners' errors can help identify the learner's linguistic difficulties and needs at a particular stage of language learning. Moreover, errors made by learners will help teachers to foresee what may be difficult or easy for them, and will provide clues for how to act.

Error analysis should be done in order to understand the influence of the Mongolian language on English relative clause acquisition by Mongolian students. It is noticed that students have made numerous mistakes in word ordering and relative pronoun use. First, let us see the result of the first task: translation of Mongolian sentences into English (Table 1).

Due to the lack of relative pronouns in the Mongolian language, 68% of the learners omitted relative pronouns entirely. 12% of them selected the wrong relative marker (pronoun) and 79% of the participants made mistakes in word order in the

Table 1 The representations of total errors in learners' relative clause translation (task 1)

Types of mistakes	Omission of relative pronoun	Selection of relative pronoun	Ordering
Number of students	68	12	79
Percent (%)	68	12	79

relative clauses. The following sentences (7a, 8a, 9a, 10a, 11a) were given students to translate into English.

(7a) Tend suuj baigaa hűn bol minii ah.
There sit-Conv.ImPF to be-Pr person-Nom to be 1SG-Gen brother.
(7b) The man who is sitting there is my brother.
(8a) Hődőő amidardag hűűhdűűd bagaasaa mori unaj surdag.
Countryside-LocIII live-Hab children-Nom childhood-Abl horse-AccIII ride-Imp learn-Hab.
(8b) The children who live in the countryside learn to ride horses in childhood.
(9a) Ene bol tűűnii surch baisan surguuli.
This is 3SG-Gen study- Conv.ImPF to be-PF school-Nom
(9b) This is the school where he used to study.
(10a) Tűűnii surdag surguuli endees holgűi.
3SG-Gen study-Hab school-Nom here-Ablfar-Neg.
(10b) The school where he studies is not far from here.
(11a) Öčigdör minii hudaldaj avsan üzeg maš goyo.
Yesterday 1SG-Gen buy-Conv.ImPF take-PF pen-Nom very nice.
(11b) The pen which I bought yesterday is very nice.

Let us see some mistakes that students made when they translated the above sentences.

Omission of relative pronoun:

(12) My brother is sitting there.
(13) *There is my brother sitting.
(14) *There sitting man is my brother.
(15) *There sitting person is my brother.
(16) *Their sitting person is my brother.
(17) *This is very nice pen, yesterday I bought.
(18) *Yesterday my bought pen is beautiful.
(19) *My bought pen is very nice yesterday.
(20) *This is his studied school.
(21) *It was school he studied.

Most of the students did not use relative pronouns at all when they translated the Mongolian sentences (7a, 8a, 9a, 10a and 11a). The relative pronoun *who* is omitted in (13), (14), (15), (16); the relative pronoun *which* is omitted in (18) and (19); the relative pronoun *where* is omitted in (20) and (21). Instead of using a relative pronoun, they simplified the structure of the sentence in the above examples.

Simplification refers to the situation when learners avoid the use of the complex structures and prefer to use the simpler forms. Sometimes, this also results in errors. Simplification errors are the errors that are caused by simplifying or leaving out some elements. Thus the above sentences and the following are examples of simplification errors.

(22) *Yesterday I bought a nice pen.
(23) *I bought a good pen yesterday.
(24) *His studied school near from here.
(25) *He's school not far from here.
(26) *He was studied in this school.
(27) *This was his studied school.

Even though some of the sentences are grammatically correct, they were not expected to be translated that way. In other words, the students should have translated the sentences using relative clauses. Let's see some examples:

(28) His school is not far from here.
(29) His school is not far away from here.

The expected translation was: *The school where he studies is not far from here.* The Mongolian sentence is as shown in (10a). In examples (28) and (29) the pronoun *his* might be caused by interference of the Mongolian language because the subject of the relative clause is mostly marked in the genitive case in Mongolian. Thus the students translated *tűűnii-3SG-Gen* into *his* in English in the test item (10a).

(30) He used to study in this school.
(31) He studied in this school.
(32) It was his school.

Expected translation was: *This is the school where he used to study.* The Mongolian sentence is as shown in (9a). It is noticeable that the students avoided relative clauses due to the difficulties arising from the difference between the relative clause structures of the two languages.

Word ordering is considered as the syntactic arrangement of words in a sentence, clause, or phrase. In other words, it is the order in which words occur in sentences. Furthermore, it refers to the different ways in which languages arrange the constituents of their sentences relative to one another. A noun phrase with a relative clause is a phrase that consists of a pronoun or noun with an adjective clause or relative clause which can consist of a subject and a verb and (optionally) an object. Word order in a noun phrase with a relative clause is relative clause + head noun in Mongolian. On the contrary, word order in a noun phrase with a relative clause is head noun + relative clause in English. It is observed that most of the participants had problems with ordering in a noun phrase with a relative clause when they translated Mongolian sentences with a relative clause into English. As mentioned above, 79% of the participants made ordering errors. In the translation task they

made errors by putting the relative pronouns in different positions instead of putting them after the head noun as shown in (33) and (34)

(33) *That pen is very nice which I bought yesterday.

The expected translation was: *The pen which I bought yesterday is very nice.* The Mongolian sentence is as shown in (11a). In the example, the relative clause *which I bought yesterday* is placed right after the adjective *nice*.

(34) *The school was not far from here where he studied.

The expected translation was: *The school where he studies is not far from here.* The Mongolian sentence is as shown in (10a). In the example, the relative clause *where he studied* is placed right after the word *here.* The errors violate the structure dependency principle of phrase structure.

Some of the participants translated Mongolian sentence (7a) as follows:

(35) *There is my brother who is sitting. In the example,

Some of the participants translated Mongolian sentence (11a) into English as shown in:

(35) *Yesterday I bought a pen which is beautiful.

In the example, even though the relative clause *which is beautiful* grammatically follows the head noun *pen*, the expected relative clause was *which I bought yesterday.*

Selection refers to the problem of improper selection of certain forms. According to the study, 13% of the students had problems with selecting relative pronouns. In other words they chose the wrong relative pronoun for the translation. Let's see some examples:

(36) *His school which he studies isn't far here.

In this example, the relative pronoun *which* is used instead of the relative pronoun *where* But *where* is a location-relative pronoun that joins a modifying clause. In the example, the clause modifies a place. If *which* is used, it should have preposition *in* denoting a place in that case. Thus, the correct form should be as shown in (9b) *This is the school where he used to study*. The Mongolian sentence is as shown in (9). Or it can be as following: *This is the school in which he used to study*. The following are also improper selection examples:

(37) *This is school which he was study.
(38) *This is a school which he studied.
(39) *This school is that he studied school.

In this example, students had two kinds of errors: improper selection of relative pronouns and disordering. The other types of errors are not considered at this time.

The second task was to put given words in the correct order to create sentences. This task aimed to check the students' understanding of the word order of relative clauses.

In general, word order errors can significantly complicate comprehension. Let's see some detailed examples:

1. freezer, ice cream, the, I, ate, the, that, was, in. The intended sentence is *"I ate the ice-cream that was in the freezer"*

(40) *I ate the ice-cream was in that the freezer.
(41) * I ate that ice-cream was in the freezer.
(42) * I ate that the ice-cream in the freezer.
(43) *I was in the freezer that ice-cream ate.
(44) *I ate in the freezer that was the ice-cream.

In the above (40), (41), (42), (43), (44) examples, the students might be confused between demonstrative pronoun *that* and relative pronoun *that*.

2. a lot, ask, who, learn, students, questions. The intended sentence is *"Students who ask questions learn a lot*"

(45) *Students learn a lot questions who ask.
(46) *Students learn who ask a lot questions/*Students learn who ask questions a lot.
(47) *Students learn a lot who ask questions.
(48) *Students ask questions who learn a lot.
(49) *Students who learn a lot questions ask.
(50) *Students ask who a lot questions.
(51) * Who ask students a lot questions learn?
(52) * Students learn "Who ask a lot questions?"
(53) * Who ask questions, students learn a lot?
(54) * Who learn students ask a lot of questions?

According to the study, it is obvious that the second scrambled sentence was the most difficult one for the students to reorganize into the correct sequence. As shown in Table 2, ten variations of the incorrect sentences (45)–(54) were made by 84% of the students. If we examine the above sentences, the students might confuse *who* as the interrogative pronoun as shown in (45), (46), (47), (48), (50), (51), (52), (53) and (54). In example (49) even though *who* might be considered as relative pronoun, the sentence is ungrammatical due to the improper ordering of the other words in the sentence.

Table 2 The representations of word ordering in sentences with relative clauses (task 2)

Sentence	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth
Number of incorrectly ordered sentence variations	5	10	6	4	7
Percent of students who made mistake (%)	52	84	54	27	76

3. children, I, a, woman, two, know, has, who. The intended sentence is *"I know a woman who has two children"*

(55) *I know who a woman has two children.
(56) *I know who has a woman two children.
(57) *I has a woman who know two children.
(58) *I has know who a woman two children.
(59) *Who I know a woman has two children?
(60) *I woman who has know two children.

In examples (55), (56), (58), (59), the students might be confused about the interrogative function of *who* versus the relative function of *who*. But in examples (57) and (60) even though *who* might be considered a relative pronoun, it is disordered. As we have seen from the examples, the students have been unfamiliar with the structure of the English relative clause.

4. countryside, who, have, I, the, some, live, in, friends. The intended sentence is *"I have some friends who live in the countryside*"

(61) *I live in the countryside who have some friends.
(62) *I have who the some friends live in the countryside.
(63) *I have the some who friends live in the countryside.
(64) *Who have some friends I live in the countryside?

According to the study, this scrambled sentence was the easiest one for students to arrange. It can be proven that 27% of the participants had problems as shown in Table 2. In the example, the relative pronoun was placed in many different places instead of being placed after the head noun *friends*. In the example (64), the pronoun *who* was considered an interrogative pronoun *who*.

5. my, bought, gave, friend, he, the, pen, which, yesterday, me. The intended sentence is *My friend gave me the pen which he bought yesterday.*"

(65) *My bought pen which he gave me friends yesterday.
(66) *My friend bought the pen yesterday which he gave me.
(67) *Yesterday my bought the pen which friend he gave me.
(68) *My friend gave me yesterday which he bought the pen.
(69) *Yesterday he bought the pen which my friend gave me.
(70) *My friend gave me which he bought the pen yesterday.
(71) *Yesterday my friend bought the pen which he gave me.

According to the study, 76% of the participants had problems properly ordering the constituents of this scrambled sentence. The relative pronoun *which* is placed separately from the head noun in examples (66), (68) and (70). In examples (65), (67), (69) and (71) the positions of the subject and object of the relative clause and main clause are exchanged.

In general, if we look at the participants' errors we find one type of mistake that was particularly frequent in the second task: in the sentences, the participants

changed the word order such that they produced a relative clause different from the one in the test item.

6.2 Findings

When Mongolian learners produce English relative clauses, the influence of native language interference occurs in most cases. According to the result of the test, it can be said that more learning difficulties might be expected due to substantial differences between English and Mongolian relative clauses. One of these differences is the position of the relative clause in a sentence. The Mongolian learners face difficulties in learning English relative clauses due to the head direction or word order difference between English and Mongolian. In other words, the interference from the word order of the Mongolian adjective clause (relative clause) creates much more difficulty in acquiring English relative clauses. When students translated the sentences, they commonly made errors by putting the relative clause and head noun separately. The relative clause pronouns were omitted in English due to the absence of the relative pronoun in the Mongolian language.

On the other hand, it can be said that some of the errors made by the students have been caused by the lack of knowledge of the structure dependence principle of a language. Thus teachers should explain the structure dependence principle to their students.

7 Treatment

In order to check whether translation is a good way to solve the problems of Mongolian students with English relative clauses and its importance for teaching and learning the complex structure of relative clauses, we carried out another experiment on the same students. In other words, we tried to find out the answer to the 3rd research question as mentioned above in Sect. 4. Before we explain the study in detail, let us briefly introduce the basis of the translation method.

While some scholars consider translation an unsuitable activity for language learning and teaching, many theorists, linguists, and teachers agree on the importance of using translation in foreign language classes. For instance, Schaffner (1998) claims that translation and related exercises could be beneficial to foreign language learning for the following reasons: (1) To improve verbal agility. (2) To expand students' L2 vocabulary. (3) To develop their style. (4) To improve their understanding of how languages work. (5) To consolidate L2 structures for active use. (6) To monitor and improve the comprehension of L2.

The importance of translation in foreign language classes lies in the comparison of grammar, vocabulary, word order and other language features in the target language and the student's mother tongue. Students are directly exposed to the contrasting language systems of the target and native languages. Therefore, the learners should be required to discuss and correct common mistakes. Correcting mistakes in translations is a challenging activity for students. Some incorrect word-for-word translations are handed out, and the students are encouraged to discuss and correct the mistakes. Translation exercises are considered to be a positive learning resource for them to comprehend and memorize and to acquire English skills.

According to Ross (2000), if students are aware of the differences, language interference (transfer) from their own language is likely to be reduced. Moreover, translation in the L2 classroom offers a way to highlight similarities and differences between L1 and L2 forms. Word-for-word translation, that is, literal translation, turned out to be a big problem. By translating sentences in parallel, translators may transfer sentence lengths and characteristics of L1 into L2, making the translation obscure or unnatural. L1 influence appears to be strongest in complex word order phrases and in word-for-word translations of phrases.

Benjamin (1968) states that a faithful word-for-word translation will not transmit the original sense. Thus, according to Sharwood Smith (1974) in order to produce acceptable English sentences, the learner needs to know the restrictions on word ordering. In particular, they must know the certain areas within the sentence where no extra words may be placed or at least where an extra word would create a feeling of clumsiness for a native speaker.

As mentioned above, in order to examine whether the translation method, especially the grammar translation method, is an effective way to teach and learn the complex structure of English, we divided the participants into two groups. In this experiment, the first group was given exercises to translate Mongolian relative clauses into English while the second group was given exercises to fill out or put in the correct order. In other words, we would like to check which one is effective for students to understand the complex structure of relative clauses.

The first group was taught how to translate Mongolian relative clauses into English and vice versa. During the translation practice session they had particular problems with the word order of Mongolian and English relative clauses, since with no prior practice these translation exercises were difficult for them. When they translated Mongolian relative clauses into English they made common mistakes such as omitting relative pronouns and ordering the words improperly in the sentences. During the practice session, the students were taught about the presence and absence of relative pronouns and the differences in word order in the two languages and were given tasks to translate sentences with relative clauses from Mongolian to English and vice versa. After the practice session they understood the structure

dependence principle and were subsequently able to translate subject relative clauses into both languages.

The second group was also taught about the structural differences and the structure dependence principle for relative clauses. During the practice session, the students were given the task of putting given words in the correct order to make sentences. It seemed that the students could carry out the tasks easily as they understood the structure of English relative clauses. Compared to the translation practice, ordering the words properly was an easy task for them. The students had three hour practice totally for the experiment.

8 Post-test

In order to check the results of the practice sessions for both groups, the students were tested on relative clauses. Like the first experiment, the relative clause test has two tasks: translation and proper ordering of phrasal constituents. After three hour of practice, 86% of the first group could do the above two tasks successfully, while 65% of the second group could.

The first group of students could do both tasks (translation and putting the words in the correct order) more successfully than the second group of students with fewer errors as shown in (Fig. 1).

Even though the grammar translation method is considered an ineffective, boring, and 'old-fashioned' method in communicative classrooms, it is quite useful to

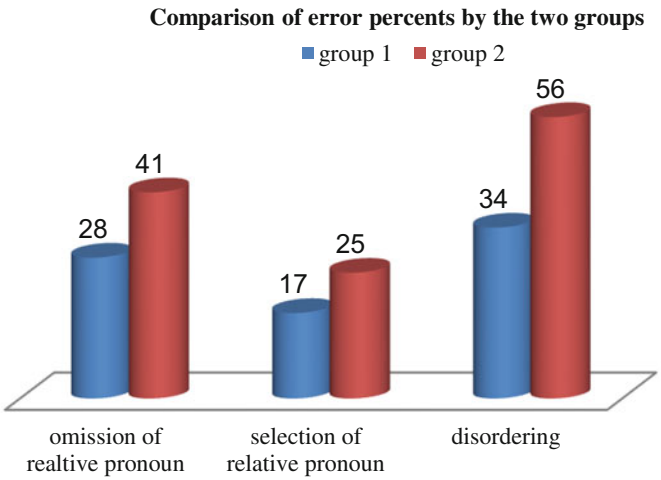


Fig. 1 The presentation of errors in the second experiment

make learners understand the structural difference of complex sentences between source and target languages. According to the study, I hypothesize that translation is the most difficult task for language learners, but it is also the best task to improve their foreign language knowledge. It enhances better understanding of the structures of the two languages in foreign language classes as well. In other words, translation is the most effective way to practice producing L2 or foreign language sentences such as complex sentences with relative clauses.

9 Conclusions

In conclusion, our study has shown that the main differences found in relative clause structures between English and Mongolian cause one of the many difficulties that Mongolian learners face. When students recognize the differences in the internal structure of the Mongolian and English noun phrases and the use versus non-use of relative pronouns in the two languages, they easily acquire English relative clauses. It is important for both teachers and students to understand that knowledge of the structure dependency principle is required to teach and learn relative clauses that contain a subordinate clause in any languages.

If teachers analyze errors and problems of first language interference faced by the learners of foreign languages, they can find appropriate methodologies, strategies, and materials for teaching second and foreign languages. Although some scholars consider the grammar-translation method as a passive, ineffective, and boring method, I have suggested that grammar-translation is the effective way to teach and learn complex structures such as relative clauses based on my second experiment result. In other words, translation plays an important role in foreign language education in general.

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Appendix 1

Relative clause test for the Pre-test
Oct/15/2015
Translate the following sentences into English

1. Тэнд сууж байгаа хүн бол миний ах.
2. Хөдөө амьдардаг хүүхдүүд багаасаа морь унаж сурдаг.
3. Энэ бол түүний сурч байсан сургууль.

4. Түүний сурдаг сургууль эндээс холгүй.
5. Өчигдөр миний худалдаж авсан үзэг маш гоё.

Put the words in correct order to make sentences

6. freezer, ice cream, the, I, ate, the, that, was, in
7. a lot, ask, who, learn, students, questions
8. children, I, a, woman, two, know, has, who
9. countryside, who, have, I, the, some, live, in, friends
10. my, bought, gave, friend, he, the, pen, which, yesterday, me

Name:
Age:
Class:
How many years have you studied English?
Thank you for your participation.

Appendix 2

Relative clause test for the post-test
Oct/26/2015
Translate the following sentences into English

1. Түүний ажилладаг газар маш тохилог.
2. Тэнд зогсож байгаа эмэгтэй бол миний эгч
3. Энэ бол түүний төгссөн сургууль.
4. Гэрт амьдардаг хүүхдүүд эрүүл чийрэг байдаг.
5. Түүний надад өгсөн даашинз их ганган.

Put the words in correct order to make sentences

6. singing, who, is, my, man, brother, is, the
7. computer, very, the, bought, where, the, shop, he, big, is
8. thick, is, table, is, book, which, on, thick, very, the
9. was, yesterday, fantastic, watched, we, film, the
10. who, French, has, studies, a, she, friend

Name:
Age:
Class:
How many years have you studied English?:
Thank you for your participation.

Appendix 3

Gloss translation of Mongolian sentences in the second experiment

Translation task sentences

1. Öčigdör cecerlegt nadtai togloson hüühed bol minii naiz.
   Yesterday garden-Loc 1SG-Com play-PF child-Nom is my friend.
   The girl who played with me in the garden is my friend.
2. Tűűnii ajilladag gazar maš tohilog.
   3SG-Gen work-Hab place-Nom very comfortable.
   The place where he works is very comfortable.
3. Tend zogsoj baigaa emegtei bol minii egč.
   There stand-ImPF exist-Pr woman-Nom is my sister.
   The woman who is standing there is my sister.
4. Ene bol tűűnii tőgssőn surguuli.
   This is 3SG-Gen graduate-PF school.
   This is the school which he graduated from.
5. Gert amidardag hüühdüüd erüül čiireg baidag.
   Yurt-Loc live-Hab children healthy strong exist-Hab.
   Children who live in yurt are healthy and strong.

Some examples showing the genitive marked subject in Mongolian relative clauses

1. Öčigdör minii üzsen kino maš sonirholtoi baisan.
   Yesterday 1SG-Gen watch-PF movie-Nom very interesting to be-Pst.
   The movie which I watched yesterday was very interesting.
2. Tűűnii nadad őgsőn daašinz ih gangan.
   3SG-Gen 1SG-Dat give-PFdress-Nom much fancy.
   The dress which she gave me is very fancy.

Appendix 4

Abbreviations in Gloss Translation

Nom: Nominative case
Gen: Genitive case
Acc: Accusative case
Dat: Dative case
Loc: Locative case
Abl: Ablative case
Com: Comitative case
Conv: Converb
ImPF: imperfect verb

PF: Perfect verb
Prs: Present tense
Hab: Habitual
1SG: 1st person singular
3SG: 3rd person singular

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Part II
On Individual Learner Differences

Individual Difference Variables as Mediating Influences on Success or Failure in Form-Focused Instruction

Mirosław Pawlak

Abstract Even though there is a growing body of research on the effectiveness of form-focused instruction (FFI), defined as both the introduction of target language (TL) features, be they grammatical, lexical, phonological or pragmatic in nature, the practice of these forms or the provision of corrective feedback on errors in their use (cf. Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Spada, 2011; Loewen, 2012; Pawlak, 2014), studies of this kind have in the main focused on determining the effects of different instructional techniques, paying only scant attention to the impact of mediating variables. One key set of such variables are individual differences (IDs) among learners, both cognitive (e.g., aptitude), affective (e.g., motivation) and social (e.g., beliefs), the impact of which can hardly be underestimated as in some situations individual learner profiles may in fact determine the success or failure of the techniques and procedures employed by teachers. Given the fact that research exploring the effects of such factors is still in its infancy, it is important to take stock of what has been achieved in this domain and consider future directions of empirical investigations of this kind. This is precisely the aim of the paper which provides an overview of the available research on the interfaces between IDs and FFI, particularly with respect to grammar, offers a critical look at their scope and methodology, and seeks to identify the challenges that research on FFI has to face in this respect.

Keywords Individual differences · Form-focused instruction · Corrective feedback

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1 Introduction

The interpretations of success and failure in learning second and foreign languages are likely to vary quite widely, depending on the goals pursued by a given student or a group of students, ranging from the achievement of near nativelike levels of proficiency to the ability to get basic messages across in typical, everyday situations. These goals also have a bearing on the need for and importance of form-focused instruction (FFI), understood here mainly as the teaching of grammar structures and as encompassing "(…) any attempt on the part of the teacher to encourage learners to attend to, understand, and gain greater control over targeted language features (…)" (Pawlak, 2014, p. 2). This is because, while for some language learners, perhaps those enrolled in BA or MA programs in a foreign language and thus aspiring to be teachers, translators or interpreters, achieving a high level of mastery of grammar features constitutes a crucial objective, many others may content themselves with quite rudimentary command of grammar and be rather unconcerned about errors that they commit in the use of this target language (TL) subsystem. If we relate learners' objectives to the leading conceptualizations of communicative competence (e.g., Bachman, 1990; Canale, 1983; Canale and Swain, 1980), not all students may be equally keen to gain control over this aspect of systemic or organizational competence, focusing more perhaps on the knowledge of vocabulary or simply setting more store by pragmatic or strategic abilities. What is more, many language learners may in the main be concerned with *fluency* (cf. Brumfit, 1984), which allows them to successfully convey their messages, rather than *accuracy*, which can often be viewed as superfluous when the TL is used for everyday purposes and the intended communicative goals are reached. Even when accurate use of grammatical features is the aim, a crucial distinction comes into play between *explicit* and *implicit* or at least *highly automatized* knowledge of these features (cf. Ellis, 2009), with some learners being content with correct application of rules on tests and exams with an eye to getting good grades or passing a course and others striving to use such rules accurately, meaningfully and appropriately (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 2003) in spontaneous communication. What should also be stressed is that concern with accurate use of grammar, irrespective of a specific context, implies adopting as a point of reference the native-speaker model of the TL rather than some international variety, such as English as a lingua franca (Mackey, 2011).

Obviously, all of these issues have a bearing on instructional practices, with different programs and courses in a foreign language setting different curricular goals with respect to the mastery of grammar and pursuing these goals in a variety of ways, with major differences between educational levels, age groups, course types, or institutional instruction and private tutoring. What complicates the situation even further is the existence of a myriad of individual differences (IDs) between learners which go far beyond their disparate goals in learning an additional language and are related, for example, to their language aptitude, working memory capacity, beliefs, learning styles, learning strategies, motivation or anxiety (cf. Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Pawlak 2012a). It is clear that if

FFI is to be effective, it should to some extent take such individual variation into account and even if it cannot be tailored to individual learner profiles, it should at the very least be informed by such considerations. Therefore, it is somewhat surprising that the bulk of research into the effects of FFI has ignored the mediating effects of IDs, as if predicated on the assumption that a one-size-fits-all approach is going to be effective, an assumption that is blatantly erroneous. With this in mind, the present paper aims to shed light on the contribution of IDs to the effectiveness of different instructional options, the application of which influences success or failure in learning target language forms. In the first part, the theoretical underpinnings of FFI will be outlined, which will be followed by a discussion of existing controversies in this domain. Subsequently, a framework for researching FFI will be presented, factors impacting upon the efficacy of such pedagogic intervention will be overviewed and the main findings of relevant empirical investigations will be summarized. The last part will zoom in on the scant empirical evidence concerning the role of IDs in FFI, highlighting areas that are in need of inquiry and considering the methodological issues involved.

2 Theoretical Justifications for Form-Focused Instruction and Existing Controversies

As Gass (2003) explains, the process of second language acquisition cannot take place without access to linguistic data and, therefore, success in this endeavor hinges upon both the quantity and quality of exposure to the target language that one is trying to master. This means that, on the one hand, learners need to have adequate access to the samples of the TL, which may often not be the case, particularly in foreign language contexts, and, on the other, that such data should represent the right kind of model, at least such that is not fraught with different types of errors, whether they are related to form, meaning, use, or all of these. This exposure can encompass *positive evidence* in the form of authentic or modified (i.e., simplified or elaborated) TL samples or *negative evidence* (i.e., information concerning what is possible or permissible in the TL) (cf. Long & Robinson, 1998). While claims were advanced at some point that ample positive evidence is sufficient to enable successful language acquisition, connected in particular with Krashen's (1981) non-interface position, there is currently a broad consensus that negative evidence is facilitative of second language development and may perhaps even be indispensable in certain contexts (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2010, 2015; Loewen, 2011, 2015; Pawlak 2006, 2013a, 2014). The provision of such evidence involves form-focused instruction, which can take the form of giving rules and practicing these rules, but also offering corrective feedback (CF) on errors committed by learners, not only those occurring in the performance of controlled exercises but also such that are made in negotiated interaction.

Even though, as mentioned above, the need for grammar instruction has been called into question on both theoretical, empirical or pedagogical grounds (e.g., Krashen, 1981; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999), FFI finds support in a number of theoretical positions, representing both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives. Since a detailed discussion of the case that these theories and hypotheses make for pedagogical intervention is beyond the scope of this paper and can be found in other publications (e.g., Loewen, 2015; Pawlak, 2006, 2014), only the most important issues will be highlighted here, sometimes at the risk of oversimplification. The noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 2001), for example, posits that successful language acquisition is not possible without attention, which allows learners to notice gaps between their output and the TL form, and such attention can only be triggered through some variant of FFI. The necessity of attention and noticing also lies at the core of the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996) and the output hypothesis (Swain, 1995, 2000), with the former stressing the role of negotiated interaction in enhancing the salience of TL forms, encouraging CF and bringing about output modifications, and the latter additionally emphasizing its importance in syntactic language processing and creating opportunities for pushed output (i.e., such that is accurate, coherent, precise and appropriate). The positive contribution of FFI is also manifested in skill-learning theory (DeKeyser, 1998, 2007), as practice, especially such that is meaningful, as well as corrective feedback are viewed as instrumental to gradual automatization of rules and the conversion of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. Even when FFI is not seen as a crucial element of the learning process and its positive contribution is perceived as somewhat constrained, specialists admit its facilitative role. This is visible, for example, in processability theory (Pienemann, 2007), which states that pedagogic intervention should be matched to the current level of a learner's interlanguage development, and connectionist theories (e.g., Ellis, 2005a, b), which question the very existence of rules but assume that FFI can draw learners' attention to less salient features in the input. According to sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2014), self-regulation in second language acquisition happens through social interaction in the zone of proximal development, which can be achieved through carefully tailored FFI, particularly the provision of CF. The case for the facilitative role of pedagogical intervention can also be made on the grounds of relevance theory, since correction ensures the relevance of information about formal aspects of the TL and not just the communicative intent (Niżegorodcew, 2007), as well as dynamic systems theories (cf. Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008), where feedback is seen as an important tool in triggering system change (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

On the whole, the findings of the research projects conducted to date demonstrate quite unequivocally that form-focused instruction works, it is beneficial to the development of not only explicit knowledge but also implicit knowledge, and its effects are often permanent, as evident in treatment gains being carried over from immediate to delayed posttests (e.g., Ellis, 2008a; Larsen-Freeman, 2010, 2015; Loewen, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Pawlak, 2006, 2013a; Spada, 2011). Obviously, FFI can be implemented in a variety of ways and its efficacy depends on the specific instructional options employed or constellations of these options, an

issue that will be elaborated upon in the following section. In addition, despite the general consensus concerning the role of FFI, a number of controversies remain, which are reflective to a large extent of the contribution that different forms of negative evidence are accorded in various theoretical positions. Controversies of this kind are related to such issues as the selection of structures to be taught (i.e., all of them or those selected on the basis of some adopted criteria), the timing of the pedagogic intervention (e.g., reliance on FFI from the very outset or its initiation at a later time), the intensity of the intervention (i.e., a focus on a specific feature in the course of a class or a variety of such features), the design of grammar-based lesson (e.g., the presentation—practice—production sequence or turning this sequence on its head; this is also related to whether FFI integrates form and meaning or rather separates the two), the place of grammar in the curriculum (e.g., reliance on a structural or a task-based syllabus), the choice of specific instructional techniques and procedures (e.g., deduction vs. induction, input-based vs. output-oriented teaching, controlled exercises vs. communicative tasks, different CF options), as well as provisions made for the mediating influence of a wide array of individual, linguistic and contextual factors (e.g., aptitude, difficulty of the structure taught, the presence of prior instruction) (Ellis, 2006a; Larsen-Freeman, 2010; Loewen, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Pawlak, 2013a, 2014). It is the last of these issues that will be considered in more detail in the remainder of this paper.

3 A Framework for Researching Form-Focused Instruction

Although such issues are very often ignored in empirical investigations of FFI, in most cases because including even some of them in the design of particular studies would be exceedingly difficult, the effects of the pedagogic intervention hinge on a number of factors. Pawlak (2009a) divided these factors into the following five categories:

(1) *linguistic factors*, related to the difficulty involved in learning specific TL features for explicit and implicit knowledge, with the former comprising, for example, formal and functional complexity, reliability, scope or the need for metalanguage, and the latter being related to frequency and salience in the input (cf. DeKeyser, 2005; Ellis, 2006b, 2008b; Pawlak, 2006, 2012b);
(2) *psycholinguistic factors*, which are related to the existence of orders and sequences of acquisition with respect to a number of aspects of morphology and syntax as well as learners' developmental readiness to acquire them; a crucial distinction can be made, for example, between developmental features, which are constrained by processing operations, and variational features, which are not subject to constraints of this kind (cf. Pienemann, 1998; Pienemann & Johnston, 1986);

(3) *teacher-related factors*, which are connected with the choice of instructional options (i.e., specific teaching techniques and procedures, preferred lesson designs, syllabus type followed; see e.g., Ellis, 2006a; Loewen, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Pawlak, 2006, 2013a) as well as individual variation among instructors, an issue that is given very little attention by researchers;
(4) *learner-related factors,* which pertain to the mediating role of an array of individual difference variables, which can be cognitive (e.g., aptitude, working memory), affective (e.g., anxiety, motivation) or social (e.g., attitudes, belief) in nature (cf. Dörnyei, 2005; Pawlak, 2012a; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) and which will be considered at greater length in the following section;
(5) *contextual factors*, which are reflective of the amount of in- and out-of-class exposure, an issue that is closely tied to whether FFI is provided in foreign or second language contexts, the overall educational policy in a particular setting, which determines the nature of classroom instruction by, for example, specifying examination requirements, or the nature of classroom discourse, which concerns opportunities for engagement in negotiated interaction, the employment the forms taught in meaning and message conveyance, or simply regular use of the target language as such (cf. e.g., Pawlak, 2004, 2006).

Two important points need to be made at this juncture: first, while some of these factors, such as the choice of particular instructional techniques and procedures, can be manipulated by teachers, others, such as the inherent difficulty of a given form or learners' developmental readiness, are beyond their control; second, the different factors interact with each other in unpredictable ways, both across the different categories (e.g., teachers' beliefs, preferences or their own learning styles may impinge on their predilection for specific instructional options) as well as within them (e.g., the overall characteristics of the context do not always have to translate into what happens in a given classroom).

All of these factors are acknowledged in the framework for investigating FFI, presented diagrammatically in Fig. 1, that was initially proposed by Ellis (2010) and later modified by Pawlak (2014) with respect to the provision of corrective feedback. An argument can be made, however, that the scheme is equally

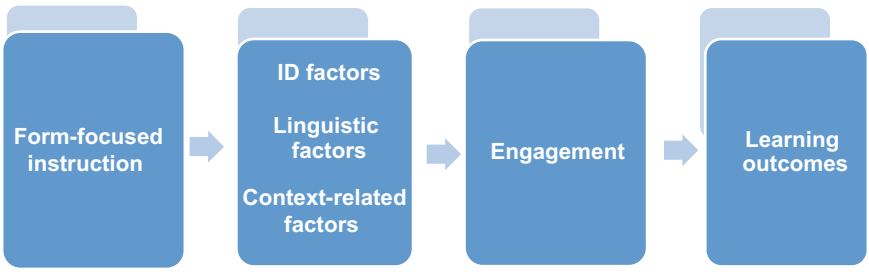

Fig. 1 A framework for the study of form-focused instruction (adapted from Ellis, 2010; Pawlak, 2014)

applicable to other forms of form-focused instruction for the simple reason that, as the present author has pointed out elsewhere (Pawlak, 2014, p. ix), error correction "(…) is an integral part of the process of teaching language forms". As can be seen from the figure, the first issue is the provision of form-focused instruction as such, which can have different goals and involve the application of different techniques and procedures. Without going into much detail in the interest of space, suffice it to say, following Ellis (1997) and Pawlak (2006), that FFI can be divided into *learner-performance options*, in which various techniques are employed to elicit the use of the TL from students, and *feedback options*, which comprise corrective moves used to inform learners that their output is not accurate.[1] When it comes to learner-performance options, they can be subdivided into *focused communication tasks*, in which the targeted feature has to be used more or less spontaneously in production or comprehension, and *feature-focused tasks*, which can entail the development of explicit knowledge through deduction and induction or implicit knowledge by means of different types of practice. Such practice can, yet again, be receptive or productive, with the latter type placed on a continuum from text-manipulation activities (e.g., providing the correct form of a verb in parentheses) to text-creation tasks (e.g., generating one's own sentences with the help of the TL feature). As for feedback options, they can differ at least along two dimensions, that is their *explicitness* (i.e., related to learners' cognizance that they are being corrected) and the *requirement for modifying the erroneous output* and thereby engaging in self-correction (e.g., while recasts are mainly input-providing and do not place the onus on the learner to attempt self-repair, different types of prompts require a response to a corrective move).

It is some of these instructional techniques, by no means all of them, that have garnered the attention of specialists, but a detailed overview of the findings does not fall within the scope of this paper and can be found in several recent publications (e.g., Ellis 2008a; Larsen-Freeman, 2010, 2015; Loewen, 2015; Nassaji 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Pawlak, 2006, 2013a, 2014). Suffice it to say at this juncture that there are conflicting results when it comes to the benefits of deduction and induction (cf. Ellis 2008; Erlam, 2003; Loewen, 2015) as well as the role of output-oriented and input-based grammar instruction (cf. Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012, 2016; Shintani, Li, & Ellis, 2013), with evidence accumulating that some kind of combination of various options might be the optimal solution. There is a paucity of research that would have compared the effects of controlled activities and communicative tasks, or, somewhat more generally, focus on forms and focus on form (cf. Long & Robinson, 1998) in the teaching of specific grammar features. The results, however, are inconclusive as well, with some empirical evidence suggesting that the two types of intervention are equally effective (Pawlak, 2007, 2012c) while others indicating that the latter are more conducive to the

[1]Obviously, this is just one possible way in which different options in FFI can be categorized. Other divisions can be found, for example, in Ellis (1998, 2005), Loewen (2015) or Nassaji and Fotos (2011).

development of implicit knowledge (e.g., Broszkiewicz, 2011). There is more consistency when it comes to research into the benefits of different options in error correction, since the existing empirical evidence demonstrates rather convincingly that explicit, output-oriented corrective feedback (i.e., such of whose function learners are cognizant and which includes a requirement for attempting self-correction) works better than implicit, input-oriented CF (i.e., such which can be interpreted as positive evidence and does not require output modification) which, it should be noted, is also effective, but to a considerably lesser degree (cf. Ellis, 2010; Loewen, 2014; Li, 2010; Nassaji, 2015; Pawlak, 2014). What should also be emphasized is that the sometimes conflicting and equivocal results can be attributed to the methodology of this kind of research, which has taken the form of descriptive, quasi-experimental or experimental studies, and at times has been augmented with the use of questionnaires. The problems which such studies suffer from are related to varied operationalizations of key constructs (e.g., focus on forms, focus on form, deduction, induction), disparities in the duration and intensity of the pedagogical intervention, with the treatments typically being limited to just a few classes or segments of these classes, and differences in the complexity and nature of the targeted forms. They also involve failure to measure both explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge or a questionable status of the tasks employed to tap the latter, as well as marked prevalence of studies that seek to determine only short- rather than long-term benefits of the pedagogic intervention (cf. Pawlak, 2006, 2014).

When it comes to the impact of *mediating variables*, they are connected with *individual differences factors*, which will be the focus of the following section, *linguistic considerations*, understood in terms of the difficulty of the targeted feature, as well as *contextual factors*. As elucidated above, linguistic and psycholinguistic factors are connected with the difficulty of a particular TL form, often operationalized in terms of explicit and implicit knowledge. Without going into much detail, the meta-analysis undertaken by Spada and Tomita (2010) showed that explicit instruction, as defined by Norris and Ortega (2000), was more efficacious in bringing about more accurate use of simple and complex forms on measures of controlled and spontaneous target language production. As for contextual influences, they can be interpreted in terms of *macro factors*, as designated by the overall characteristics of a given educational setting (e.g., foreign, second or immersion), and *micro factors*, reflective of what transpires in the course of language lessons (e.g., the activities used, the nature of classroom interaction, access to prior instruction in a given area). Within this line of inquiry, Lyster and Mori (2006), for example, found that prompts were more effective in French immersion and recasts in Japanese immersion, a result that was ascribed to the nature of instruction in both contexts, whereas Oliver and Mackey (2003) provided evidence that the occurrence of CF and learners' response to negative evidence of this kind is a function of a situation in which a given exchange takes place (e.g., a focus on language-related, content-related, or managerial issues). All in all, the available empirical evidence is scarce and further empirical investigations of the effect of

different types of linguistic and contextual variables is needed to determine their impact on the utility of specific instructional options (cf. Pawlak, 2014).

The last two elements of the research framework depicted in Fig. 1 are *engagement* and *learning outcomes*. As regards the first of these, Ellis (2010) explains that it can be of three types, that is (1) *behavioral*, which is tied to whether a learner incorporates a correction into his or her output or modifies this output in response to a corrective move, (2) *cognitive*, which is related to the extent to which students in fact notice, pay attention to, understand and process the negative feedback that they are supplied with, and (3) *affective*, which is concerned with learners' positive or negative emotional reactions to the fact that they are being corrected and the ways in which this happens. It is obvious that engagement at different levels is of vital significance and may at the end of the day trump all the other influences since when learners do not attend to pedagogic intervention or are negatively disposed towards it, its contribution is bound to be severely limited. While empirical investigations of behavioral response can be easily related to descriptive studies of learner response to different types of CF (e.g., Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2006), cognitive engagement is much more difficult to explore for the simple reason that it is not readily observable and entails the application of different forms of introspection and retrospection. Egi (2010), for instance, showed with the help of stimulated recall that uptake was more likely to take place when learners interpreted recasts as negative evidence and were aware of a gap in their interlanguage knowledge, whereas Yoshida (2010) showed that uptake did not necessarily indicate learners' noticing and understanding of the corrective move and that teachers manifested a tendency to overrate their students' ability in this respect. There is a marked paucity of studies examining learners' affective response to FFI, a notable exception being the research project by Storch and Wigglesworth (2010), which demonstrated that the effect of written CF is a function of attitudes, beliefs and goals. As to learning outcomes, although a number of possibilities are available, a major distinction has to be drawn between measures of explicit and implicit knowledge, or at least highly automatized explicit knowledge that can be easily employed in spontaneous communication. What has always constituted a considerable challenge is the inclusion in research designs of true tests of the latter type of linguistic knowledge, both in the short and long run, let alone such that would be sensitive enough to register progress through orders and sequences of acquisition over time. It is indisputable that without suitable, valid and reliable measures of this kind, it is extremely difficult to appraise the real value of diverse instructional options.

4 Individual Factors as Mediating Influences on the Efficacy of FFI

Even though the effectiveness of different options in FFI is moderated by individual, linguistic and contextual factors, which may enter into complex interactions with each other, and clearly hinges upon the presence or absence of appropriate type of engagement, it is fair to say that it is individual variation that plays a key

role, not least because it may translate into learners' behavioral, cognitive and affective response, together with their willingness to take advantage of the negative evidence with which they are provided. In fact, the clearly inconclusive findings of studies investigating the utility of different instructional techniques and procedures may stem from the fact that ID variables have not been given proper consideration by researchers, although they may have considerably affected the impact of instruction on the development of both explicit and implicit TL knowledge. As Ellis (2008, p. 895) aptly comments "(…) it would seem likely that learners differ in the kind of instruction they are best equipped to benefit from", while Loewen (2015, p. 182) writes that "although the cognitive processes are the same for all learners, there are individual differences that factor into the success or failure of the L2 learning enterprise". Larsen-Freeman (2015, p. 271) adds to this that "(…) as all teachers and researchers know, there are differences between students, too. In fact, the efficacy of certain practices may be determined by a host of factors, such as learners' literacy (Tarone & Bigelow, 2005), their proficiency (Ammar & Spada, 2006), or their goals (Larsen-Freeman, 2006)". In light of these assessments, it may come as a major surprise that there is a paucity of empirical investigations dealing with such issues. Referring to this situation, Spada (2011, p. 232) makes the point that "(…) while there has been extensive research on individual differences and SLA (…), and considerable research on the effects of instruction on SLA (…), there has been little research on the interaction between individual and instructional variables and their combined effects on learning". Focusing more narrowly on research into the effectiveness of corrective feedback, which constitutes part and parcel of pedagogic interventions, Ellis (2010, p. 339), in turn, concedes that "[t]he vast bulk of CF studies has ignored learner factors, focusing instead on the relationship and the effect of specific CF strategies and learning outcomes".

Such a state of affairs is highly disconcerting because it blurs the picture of how specific FFI options or combinations of such options contribute to the mastery of the targeted feature, also influencing along the way a learner's engagement with the instructional procedures used by the teacher. As indicated above, the contribution of FFI can be mediated by at least three groups of IDs, namely cognitive factors (e.g., aptitude, working memory, age, learning styles and learning strategies, but also developmental readiness which can be seen as a property of the learner), affective variables (e.g., motivation, anxiety, willingness to communicate) and social factors (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, goals, identity). It should also be emphasized that not only may such variables form various complexes, but they also may interact with each other in intricate and highly unpredictable ways, thereby translating into learners' engagement with FFI. For example, it stands to reason that working memory (WM) capacity can determine the extent to which students are capable of attending to and noticing typographically or acoustically enhanced grammar forms in the input or the degree to which they are able to pay attention to a clarification request supplied by a teacher and then attempt to carry out self-correction, particularly one that is successful. Learning styles, on the other hand, can make students more or less receptive to specific types of intervention since while field-dependent students might benefit more from inductive ways of introducing grammar structures,

field-independent ones are more likely to accrue more gains from the provision of rules, although a golden means is perhaps combining the two options in both cases. As regards affect, it is obvious that learners who are motivated can be expected to appreciate pedagogic intervention, irrespective of its form, and those who are highly anxious may fail to be receptive to all kinds of instructional techniques and procedures. With respect to social IDs, beliefs about the role of grammar teaching, for example, may supersede the importance of the ways in which TL structures are introduced or practiced, since negative attitudes in this regard may be of more consequence than efforts on the part of the teacher. On some occasions, constellations of ID factors may come into play and compete with each other, as when the impact of a particular learning style or learning strategy may be trumped by more general perceptions of specific instructional practices, and the situation can be further confounded by learners' feelings of anxiety or their personality profiles.

When it comes to the methodology of research into the mediating effects of ID variables in FFI, it can take the form of descriptive, correlational and experimental studies. For example, the role of anxiety can be investigated with respect to its influence on students' ability to attend to corrective feedback in a particular class and undertake self-correction, the levels of anxiety can be correlated with scores on different tests or examinations, and this factor can also be included as an independent variable when comparing the benefits of different instructional options. It is possible to combine various designs in a single study, as when the investigation of the effects of FFI in several experimental groups is augmented by data on learners' levels of motivation, operationalized as interest and involvement, in the course of the classes during which the treatment took place. The role of IDs can be explored in relation to the effects of different instructional techniques, employed in isolation or in combination with each other, and disparate decisions can be made about the setting (e.g., different types of schools or educational levels), the participants (e.g., different ages, various goals in learning the TL), the number of groups (e.g., a single class but also several experimental and control groups), the type and character of the treatment (e.g., differences in length and operationalization of FFI options), the data gathered (e.g., test scores, records of classroom interaction, the extent of students' awareness), the outcome measures (e.g., different ways of tapping into explicit and implicit knowledge), as well as types of analysis (e.g., more or less complex inferential statistics procedures). The most consequential decision, however, pertains to the manner in which data about the ID factor under investigation are collected, with different forms of introspection and retrospection being applied, and the employment of specific tools often being determined by the nature of this factor. For instance, whereas motivation can be tapped by means of surveys, which can be quite freely modified by researchers, such constructs as working memory or personality require the application of highly specialized tests that should not be tampered with and whose administration may require the presence of a trained psychologist. The main problem, though, is that the same ID variable can be investigated by means of very different instruments, often as a consequence of adopting competing theoretical models, as is the case of motivation, which can be examined, for example, within the framework of integrativeness (e.g., Gardner, 2001), self-determination theory

(e.g., Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) or L2 motivational self-system (e.g., Dörnyei, 2009), and additionally be regarded as a stable attribute or a dynamic, situated construct. What complicates the situation even further is the application of complex dynamics systems theory (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) to the study of IDS, particularly motivation (see Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry, 2014), which has brought with it claims that large-scale investigations of cause-and-effect relationships are not very revealing and should be replaced with more context-sensitive, mixed-methods studies.

In a situation in which ID factors are frequently defined, operationalized and measured in disparate ways, it is perhaps not surprising that the scant body of research on the mediating role of such factors in FFI has failed to produce consistent results. Since it is not possible here to discuss at length the findings of specific studies, it makes sense to at least mention the main lines of inquiry and to offer a critical evaluation of such research. The following IDs have been investigated in relation to their role in mediating the effects of different FFI options:

- attitudes (e.g., Sheen, 2007);
- beliefs (e.g., Pawlak, 2011, 2013b; Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Bielak, 2015);
- developmental readiness (e.g., Ammar, 2008; Dabaghi, 2008);
- proficiency (e.g., Li, 2014);
- age (e.g., Lyster & Saito, 2010);
- field-independence and field-dependence (e.g., Ressaei, 2015);
- working memory and its subcomponents (e.g., Mackey et al., 2010; Nielson, 2014; Stefanou & Révész, 2015; Shintani, 2015);
- grammar learning strategies (e.g., Pawlak, 2009a, b; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, in press; Trendak, 2015);
- anxiety (e.g., Sheen, 2008);
- motivation (e.g., DeKeyser, 1993);
- learner investment (e.g., Tomita & Spada, 2013);
- willingness to communicate (e.g., Pawlak, 2014; Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2016).

As can be seen from the list, researchers have focused on a mixed bag of ID variables and the available empirical evidence is extremely fragmented, often being confined to single studies, which makes it impossible to arrive at, even tentative, conclusions. In addition, the studies are difficult to compare not only because of different operationalizations of variables and the use of diverse tools but also because they have pursued different goals, ranging from establishing a relationship between a specific ID and attainment, through looking into the effects of IDs on the occurrence of self-correction, to incorporating these variables into the designs of quasi-experimental and experimental studies. Finally, the empirical evidence is the most abundant as well as the most consistent in the case of working memory, and various facets of WM have attracted by far the most attention from researchers. There are questions however, about the importance and relevance of such research:

first, it is somewhat predictable that greater working memory capacity is likely to enhance the efficacy of some FFI options, such as recasts; second, it is difficult to think of feasible ways in which teachers could capitalize on this kind of research in their classrooms, not least because they lack the necessary expertise to measure WM capacity.

5 The Future of Research on ID Factors in Relation to FFI

As has been demonstrated in the forgoing discussion, researchers have only begun to scratch the surface when it comes to the mediating role of ID factors in form-focused instruction, with the available empirical evidence being scarce, patchy and inconclusive. Therefore, there is an urgent need for more studies in this domain that would investigate the role of various social, cognitive and affective ID variables, as well as combinations of these variables with respect to the efficacy of different instructional options and clusters of such options. In particular, it is necessary to focus on IDs that are potentially most relevant to practitioners, such as learning styles, learning strategies, anxiety, willingness to communicate or motivation, since such areas have been somewhat surprisingly neglected by specialists. While research on working memory, which is currently the most robust, is certainly not without its merits, it could be argued that its results are not only to some extent predictable but also somewhat disconnected from the reality of the language classroom. Perhaps then the time has come to move on to issues which can have a greater bearing on the effectiveness of instructional options on an everyday basis. It also stands to reason that much more attention should be given to the role of ID variables among teachers because they can impact the efficacy of specific FFI options as well (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 2015). When it comes to research methodology, it would make sense, for example, to rely more upon classroom-based rather than laboratory research, as such empirical investigations have more ecological validity and their findings are more likely to resonate with practitioners and relate to what transpires in language classrooms. Attempts should also be made to resolve problems with terminology and the operationalization of crucial constructs, appropriate measures of explicit and implicit knowledge should be applied, more longitudinal studies should be conducted, and more consideration should be given to combining different research paradigms. It is necessary as well to confront the challenges generated by the inroads that complex dynamic systems theories have made into ID research, but, rather than entirely abandoning large-scale studies, it would be much more prudent to enrich them with situated, context-dependent, dynamic dimensions. While such guidelines can enhance the quality of research into the link between FFI and ID factors, there are two important issues that have to be emphasized. First, specialists investigating different instructional options can only employ research methods and tools that are developed by researchers in the field of IDs which is beset with its own share of debates, controversies and problems (cf. Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Second, the study of the

mediating impact of ID factors cannot be art for art's sake and responsibility rests with researchers to show how the findings of such research can translate into what happens in the classroom and enhance the efficacy of instructional practices. As Biedroń and Pawlak (2016) have suggested, this is by no means an easy feat, particularly if scholars continue to focus their attention on ID factors that have limited relevance to everyday concerns of foreign language teachers.

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Extraverts and Introverts in the FL Classroom Setting

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Abstract Out of many challenges in foreign language learning, L2 use and sustained communication in a given language could be considered as the most vital. MacIntyre et al. (1998) noted that sometimes, despite excellent communicative competence, spontaneous and continuous L2 use is not ensured. Some students who are proficient in linguistic competence avoid, while others, with minimal linguistic knowledge, seek possibilities to communicate in the foreign language. It was also acknowledged that individuals' personality profile could determine their willingness to communicate and frequency of such communication in the foreign language (MacIntyre et al., 1998). The present study investigates the possible link between personality traits of extraversion/introversion and preferences towards acquisition of certain skills, attitudes towards using a foreign language as well as school grades. The study involves data collected from 115 high school English language learners from Poland. Statistical analyses revealed that some aspects of the L2 use as well as the overall grade were related to personality trait of extraversion/introversion. However, extraversion was linked to the EFL grades only when speaking skills were focused on during the EFL classes. This suggested that links between extraversion scores and linguistic variables depend largely on the type of linguistic material used and analysed as well as the specific EFL classroom dynamics. The results of this study show the complexity of the relationship between personality traits and foreign language learning. Research outcomes also indicate that studies of different aspects of individual differences and personality traits should be incorporated into further research on second language acquisition.

Keywords Personality · Extraversion · Introversion · L2 use · Speaking in the L2

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1 Introduction

While discussing challenges in foreign language learning Dewaele (2009, p. 623) noted that:

> While many individual differences (IDs) are highly visible, others can only be inferred through systematic observation of behavior. One common observation is that some people seem to be better at learning and using second languages than others. The intriguing question is why? Traditional ID researchers tried to pin down internal characteristics of a person as the cause of the observed differences. A more dynamic perspective is emerging that acknowledges the complexity of second language acquisition (SLA)?

In the search for scientifically viable constructs or categories that will characterize what is variant and invariant in the acquisition and use of language (Dewaele, 2009, p. 624), personality seems to play an important role as it was distinguished among three types of learner-internal factors influencing L2 proficiency (Johnson 2001). Many psychologists and linguists (Dewaele & Furnham, 2000; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Moody, 1988; Ożańska-Ponikwia, 2016; Van Deale et al., 2006) have studied the influence of personality traits on language learning aiming to explain the great individual variability that exists in the rate and final outcome of L2 acquisition and L2 use (Gass, 1988). The present study focuses on the extraversion/introversion variable, regarded by the psychological community as one of the most basic concepts of personality (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999), and its possible relation to attitudes towards speaking in the L2 as well as students' final EFL grades. First, however, it is important to present a short overview of the personality construct itself.

2 Personality Traits

While professional literature indicates the development of many approaches to studying psychological traits, it seems that 'The Big Five Factor Model' is currently the most accepted framework for this research. 'The Big Five Factor Model' primarily uses a lexical analysis of trait adjectives in natural languages and the classification of all the major sources of individual differences in personality (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1988, 1992; Digman, 1989, 1990; Goldberg, 1981, 1990, 1992; John et al., 1988; cf. Ożańska-Ponikwia, 2013, 2015). The 'Big Five' personality model measures the following 10 personality factors: Extraversion versus Introversion, Agreeableness versus Antagonism, Conscientiousness versus Undirectedness, Neuroticism versus Emotional Stability and Openness to Experience versus Not Open to Experience. Each of the 'Big Five' personality traits has its counterpart presented on the linear scale. The pairing of these factors allows for a high score of only one of the two elements. For example, a high score for one

of the pair, e.g. Extraversion, means a low score for its counterpart, in this case, Introversion. Between the extremes, there is a place for the so-called 'ambi' scores which characterize scores of neither extreme (cf. Ożańska-Ponikwia, 2013, 2015). These individuals will share characteristics of both extraverts and introverts (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). Eysenck and Eysenck (1985, cited in Dewaele & Furnham, 1999, p. 513) offered a portrait of an extravert as someone who is:

> sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to, and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment, and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes change; he is carefree, easy-going, optimistic, and likes to 'laugh and be marry'. He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and lose temper quickly; altogether his feelings are not kept under tight control, and he is not always a reliable person.

Accordingly, extraversion implies an energetic approach to the social and material world and involves traits such as assertiveness and positive emotionality. In Costa and McCrae's NEO-PI-R (NEO Personality Inventory—Revised) (1992), the six facets of Activity Level which define extraversion include assertiveness, excitement seeking, positive emotions, gregariousness, and warmth.

On the other hand, introverts' views are governed by intuition and imagination; they are people who hesitate before making decisions and who can be defined as serious, shy and self-sufficient. Introverts tend to avoid meeting other people and prefer their own company. Their domain is more of thought than of activity. Introversion is understood as "the tendency to be quiet and reserved with other people, to shun crowds and excitement, and to act on thoughtful consideration rather than impulse" (Plotnik & Mollenauer, 1986, p. 647). Eysenck and Eysenck (1985, p. 8) described an introvert as:

> a quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people. He is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, "looks before he leaps", and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness and likes a well-ordered mode of life. He keeps his feelings under close control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner, and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable, somewhat pessimistic, and places great value on ethical standards.

Consequently, this quote proposes that introverted individuals are withdrawn and concerned mostly with their own thoughts, feelings, enjoying bookish and conceptual pursuits. They are quiet, unassertive, have a few, but nevertheless close friends and usually avoid excitement. The intensity of these emotions is weaker, however, they are recognizable to introverts (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Another important difference between introverts and extraverts concerns cortical arousal levels that vary during specific actions. Extraverts who have a lower level of cortical arousal and could be described as underaroused seek for an external stimuli

to level it out. On the other hand, introverts, who are usually overaroused, try to avoid situations in which their level of arousal may raise (Eysenck, 1981). Dewaele and Furnham (1999, p. 537) hypothesized that:

> (…) the stress of the formal situation could cause an excessive degree of arousal in the brain of the introverts, which would reduce their short term memory and affect efficient incremental processing, hence precipitating a breakdown of fluency.

Extraverted people were also reported to have different cortical blood flow patterns (Stenberg et al., 1993), which might result in a greater relative activation of the left-hemisphere (Berenbaum & Williams, 1994). This, in turn, may have its consequences in language learning because the left-hemisphere is usually more connected with and responsible for learning languages than the right one (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999, p. 518).

Additionally, several psychological studies have indicated that extraverts are superior to introverts in short-term memory (Dewaele & Furnham, 2000). Eysenck (1981, cited in Dewaele & Furnham, 2000, p. 357) found that introverts take longer than extraverts to retrieve information from long-term or permanent storage. One possible reason for this difference, according to Eysenck (1981), could be the overarousal of the introverts which would affect their parallel processing. Matthews (1992), using a free recall experiment, confirmed earlier findings on the extraverts' superior short-term memory. The results provide fairly direct evidence for extraverts storing more information in the verbal input register' (Matthews & Dorn, 1995, cited in Dewaele & Furnham, 2000, p. 357). Moreover, Dewaele and Furnham (1999, p. 518) claimed that there is a:

> (…) clear evidence of a link between physiological characteristics of introverts and extraverts and differences in social behavior. The extraverts' superior short term memory, their lower social anxiety, their lower language anxiety, and their better resistance to stress in environments with high information flows (particularly of verbal stimuli) and time pressure may not necessarily affect the process of language learning, but these factors certainly influence extraverts' speech production.

The next section presents an overview of literature concerning personality trait of extraversion/introversion and speaking in a foreign language.

3 Extraversion/Introversion and Speaking in a Foreign Language

Applied linguists have frequently focused their attention on the possible effect of extraversion on success in L2 learning. Often, the more talkative, extravert learners were expected to have a natural advantage in the acquisition of the L2, when compared to their more introverted peers (Dewaele, 2013, p. 3). Van Deale (2005, pp. 96–97) also noted that extraverts, who tend to be sociable, are more likely to join groups, more inclined to engage in conversations both inside (Cook, 1991) and

outside the classroom (Swain, 1985). As such, they take full advantage of language-use opportunities. The putative superiority of extraverts as L2 learners, then, centers around the assumed positive impact of input and output on L2 learning, extraverts being higher input and output generators than introverts (Brown, 1987; Krashen, 1985; Swain, 1993, cited in van Deale, 2005, p. 97). Literature overview on effects of extraversion on second language acquisition identified two main hypotheses (Ellis, 1994, p. 520). The first hypothesis states that extraverted learners, due to their sociability, will be more willing to engage in group work, more inclined to talk, more likely to seek out and take advantage of practice opportunities both inside and outside the classroom, and, as a result, will outperform introverts in acquiring basic interpersonal communication skills (Bielska, 2006, p. 26). The second hypothesis maintains that: introverted learners will do better at developing cognitive academic language ability (van Deale, 2005, p. 97). However, it is important to remember that links between extraversion scores and linguistic variables depend on the type of linguistic material used. Whenever extraversion scores were correlated with results from written tests, no significant link appeared. Other studies where extraversion scores were correlated against speech or language variables revealed inconsistent results (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). The next part presents the results of studies focusing on the possible relationship between extraversion and speaking in a foreign language.

Hassan (2001) found that extraversion/introversion positively correlated with English pronunciation accuracy. In his study (Hassan, 2001), personality traits of extraversion and introversion were tested with regard to speaking proficiency among 45 Arabic speaking Egyptian college students. Extraverted students were more accurate in their English language pronunciation than the introverted ones and extraversion was found to be a significant predictor of pronunciation accuracy in English. Dewaele and Furnham (2000) researched French oral interlanguage of 25 Flemish university students and related this to their Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) scores. Correlational analyses between extraversion scores and 6 linguistic variables reflecting fluency and accuracy revealed that extravert bilinguals are more fluent than introvert bilinguals, especially in interpersonal stressful situations. The Authors suggested that the formality of the situation, or rather the interpersonal stress that it provoked, had the strongest effect on the speech production process of the introverts. Ockey (2011, p. 987) reported that several facets of extraversion such as assertiveness, warmth, activity and excitement seeking were significant explanatory variables of English L2 fluency ratings of Japanese learners. In the study by MacIntyre and Charos (1996) that researched correlation between personality traits and self-reported frequency of second language use, extraversion was negatively correlated with second language anxiety. It suggested that extraverts are more willing to undertake conversations in their second language and, in general, use the second language more often than introverted people. Wakamoto (2000) studied the relationship between extraversion/introversion and language learning strategies among 222 female students. He found that extraversion significantly correlated with functional practice strategies and social-affective strategies where

the focus of practice is on actual language use, not on the forms of the language. Functional practice strategies such as starting conversations in English or asking questions in English are the practices taking place in real and naturalistic settings. Extraversion is also positively correlated with social-affective strategies, those that mediate the relationships between people or control one's affective domain. Research linking extraversion with functional practice strategies in real communicative L2 situations has shown that extraverts tend to prefer social strategies, comprising cooperation with others or asking for clarification, and also use more functional practice strategies such as seeking opportunities to use a foreign language outside the class environment (Wakamoto, 2009). The extraverts' inclination to take risks seems to extend to their linguistic behavior, including the use of more stigmatized language and a willingness to engage in potentially more dangerous emotion-laden topics (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002, cited in Dewaele, 2013, p. 3). Studies (Ożańska-Ponikwia, 2013; Ożańska-Ponikwia & Dewaele, 2012) that looked at possible relationship between extraversion and L2 use in an immigrant context showed that Extraversion was significantly linked to the frequency of the self-perceived L2 use measured among 102 Polish–English bilinguals living in the United Kingdom and Ireland. Personality trait of extraversion was also linked to self-perceived changes in behavior and body language that occurred while a foreign language was used (Ożańska-Ponikwia, 2012).

4 Method

This study investigates possible relationships between extraversion/introversion factors and students' self-reports concerning L2 learning and L2 use. It addresses three research questions:

1. Is there any correlation between extraversion and self-reported attitudes and preferences concerning L2 learning and the L2 use? It is hypothesized that extraverts will report preferences for practicing speaking skills more than writing and other receptive skills. It is further predicted that extroverts will indicate preferences for positive attitudes towards using L2 in various linguistic situations both inside and outside the classroom setting.
2. Is there any difference in the self-reports concerning L2 learning preferences and attitudes towards the L2 use between extraverts and introverts? It is hypothesized that introverts will have different attitudes and preferences related to the process of L2 acquisition and L2 use.
3. Is there any difference in the overall grades of extraverts and introverts? It is hypothesized that there might be some differences in EFL grades between introverts and extraverts depending on the skills that were highlighted during the EFL classes.

4.1 Participants

The participants of the research included 115 High school students, aged 17–18 (n = 115, mean = 17.43; SD = 0.43); 51 of them were females and 64 were males. The informants of the study were at the upper intermediate level, and had been studying English for at least 10 years (n = 115; mean = 10.76; SD = 0.35). After the administration of the psychological test additional two research groups of extraverts (n = 22) and introverts (n = 21) were created.

The group of extraverts consisted of 22 informants; 9 were males and 13 were females. They were 17–18 years old (n = 22; mean = 17.72; SD = 0.45). All of them were at the upper intermediate level of L2 proficiency.

The group of introverts consisted of 21 informants, including 14 males and 7 females. They were 17–18 years old (n = 21; mean = 17.33; SD = 0.48). All of them were the upper intermediate level of L2 proficiency.

4.2 Instruments

In the present study two questionnaires were implemented and analysed: Preferences and attitudes questionnaire as well as 'The Big Five' personality test. All instruments were distributed in Polish in order to avoid any problems with understanding the questionnaire and personality test items. A detailed description of all enumerated questionnaires is presented next.

4.2.1 Preferences and Attitudes Questionnaire

Preferences and attitudes questionnaire was introduced in order to gather data concerning attitudes, preferences towards acquisition of different skills as well as personal information. The questionnaire was composed of 27 questions further divided into several parts measuring different aspects of L2 learning. It includes questions pertaining to the following information: biodata and the previous and current years' final grades, attitudes towards English language, preferences concerning acquisition of certain skills (pronunciation, grammar, spelling, vocabulary, speaking, writing, listening, reading). The next cluster of questions focuses on L2 speaking practices, both inside and outside the classroom setting (Do you feel comfortable while conversing in English?; Do you often start conversation in English? Do you feel anxious while using a foreign language? Do you actively participate in the L2 lessons? Do you e-mail your friends in English? Do you think that English might be helpful in everyday life? Do you like speaking in English? What is your attitude towards English?). All questionnaire items were presented either on a three point or five point Likert scale. The Cronbach's α for the whole questionnaire was 0.768.

4.2.2 The Big-Five Personality Test

The 'Big-Five' broad domains personality test (Goldberg, 1992), obtained from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP), measured personality traits as Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability/Neuroticism and Openness. Subjects responded to each item on a five-point Likert scale indicating, "never or almost never true of me", "usually not true of me", "somewhat true of me", "usually true of me", "always or almost always true of me". These categories were assigned values of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, respectively. The correlation of the IPIP Big-Five broad domains Personality Test with the Costa and McCrae (1992) Big-Five factor structure ranged from 0.66 to 0.90, with an overall correlation reported 0.81 (Goldberg, 1992). The Cronbach's α for the Big-Five broad domains personality test was 0.84.

5 Results

One of the research questions concerned the relationship between the personality trait of extraversion and self-reported attitudes and preferences concerning L2 learning and L2 use. Table 1 presents outcomes of the correlation analysis performed on the whole group (n = 115) of informants.

Data analysis showed low but statistically significant correlation of extraversion and preferences towards acquisition and practising of pronunciation as well as speaking skills. It was also linked to the ability to start a conversation in a foreign language as well as positive attitudes towards L2 use both inside and outside the classroom setting. Another interesting finding was that extraversion was related not only to active participation in EFL classes, which would be understandable based on the personality characteristics of the extraverted learners, but also to the final EFL grade.

An additional analysis was performed in order to analyse possible differences in scores between extraverts and introverts. Detailed t-test results are presented in Table 2.

Table 1 Correlation analysis results for the extraversion and preferences and attitudes questionnaire items (Pearson's r)

	Extraversion	
Speaking	0.167*	$p < 0.047$
Pronunciation	0.184*	$p < 0.045$
Starting conversation in the L2	0.411**	$p < 0.000$
L2 use	0.290**	$p < 0.002$
Active participation in EFL classes	0.252**	$p < 0.006$
Final EFL grade	0.226*	$p < 0.015$

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 2 Results of the t-test analysis

Variable		Mean	SD	t	df	p-value
Pronunciation	Introverts	2.95	0.86	3.64	41	0.001
	Extraverts	3.86	0.77			
Starting conversation in the L2	Introverts	1.66	0.96	4.74	41	0.000
	Extraverts	2.81	0.58			
L2 use	Introverts	2.23	0.99	3.50	41	0.001
	Extraverts	3.00	0.00			
Active participation in EFL classes	Introverts	1.38	0.80	2.87	41	0.006
	Extraverts	2.18	1.00			
Final EFL grade	Introverts	3.85	0.96	2.45	41	0.019
	Extraverts	4.47	0.71			

The results of this comparison suggest that introverts scored significantly lower in the following areas of investigation: positive attitudes and preferences towards acquisition and practicing pronunciation, starting conversation in a foreign language, positive attitudes towards L2 use inside and outside the classroom setting, and active participation in the EFL classes. Notably, the introverts' overall EFL grades were also lower in comparison to extroverted informants researched in this study.

6 Discussion

The present study addressed three research questions and hypotheses. The first one considered a possible correlation between extraversion and self-reported attitudes and preferences related to the L2 learning and the L2 use. The results of the study confirmed the hypothesis that extraverts would demonstrate preferences for practicing speaking skills more than writing and other receptive skills. The research outcomes also supported the postulation that the extroverted learners would show more positive attitudes towards using L2 in various linguistic situations, both inside and outside the classroom, than their introverted counterparts. These results are in line with Van Deale's (2005) findings stating that extraverts, who tend to be sociable, are more likely to join groups, are more inclined to engage in conversations both inside (Cook, 1991) and outside the classroom (Swain, 1985), taking full advantage of language-use opportunities. The results of the present study also support MacIntyre and Charos's (1996) study that researched a correlation between personality traits and self-reported frequency of second language use, proposing that extraversion was negatively correlated with second language anxiety. They suggested that extraverts are more willing to undertake conversations in their second language and, in general, use the second language more often than introverted people. Similar observations were made in the present study as extraversion was significantly correlated with the L2 use in various linguistic situations as well

as with active participation in EFL classes. The outcomes of the correlation analysis were also in line with the results of Wakamoto's studies (2000, 2009) where extraverts were reported to score significantly higher on the functional practice strategies such as starting conversation in English or asking questions in English. The informants of the current study, who scored high on a extroversion/introversion scale, also reported frequently using a foreign language or frequently starting a conversation in the L2. Both of these reported items could be classified as the functional practice strategies.

The second research question pertained to possible differences in the self-reports concerning L2 learning preferences and attitudes towards the L2 use among extraverts and introverts. It was hypothesized that introverts would demonstrate different attitudes and preferences related to the process of L2 acquisition and L2 use than the extroverts. As predicted, the results of T-test analysis showed significant differences in the scores of extraverts and introverts concerning L2 production. A statistically significant difference was determined in all items researching L2 use and speaking. These findings could be explained by the different preferences concerning L2 learning among extraverts and introverts. Extraverts, according to Ellis (1994), will be more willing to engage in group work, more inclined to talk, more likely to seek out and take advantage of practice opportunities, both inside and outside the classroom. Dewaele and Furnham (1999) also noted that the extraverts' superior short term memory, their lower social and language anxiety and their better resistance to stress, particularly of verbal stimuli, might affect their speech production and, as a result, their preferences and positive attitudes towards the L2 use. They also mentioned that, even though all these physiological and psychological predispositions could influence extraverts' speech production, they might not necessarily affect the process of language learning. It is further suggested that the discussed variables influenced the process of L2 learning as the extroverts in the current study achieved higher grades in EFL than their introverted peers.

Due to inconsistency in reported findings concerning the influence of the extraversion on the L2 learning process (Dewaele, 2013; Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; van Deale, 2005; van Deale et al., 2006) the third research question investigated differences in EFL grades of introverts and extraverts in relation to the skills highlighted during the EFL classes. The results of the t-test revealed a significant difference in EFL grades of extraverts and introverts but pertaining only to the current year's grades. No such differences were found between the final EFL grades in the previous school year. A closer analysis of the curriculum, followed by interviews with teachers provided some explanations for this surprising finding. Accordingly, during that time of study, speaking skills were intensively practiced for the final high school EFL oral exams. The focus on developing specific language skills could explain inconsistency and differences in EFL grades reported in the same group of informants in different years. These results also support the view already highlighted in the literature stating that links between extraversion scores and linguistic variables depend on the type of linguistic material used (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). Dewaele and Furnham (1999) found that whenever extraversion scores were correlated with results from written tests, no significant link appeared.

Other studies where extraversion scores were correlated against speech or language variables revealed inconsistent results. Based on the results of the current study, it is proposed that the inconsistency in the reported results may be attributed to the differences in the amount of the lesson time allocated to the introduction and practice of specific language skills.

7 Conclusions

The present study researched the relationship between extraversion/introversion and various aspects of the L2 learning and the L2 use. The results of the study showed that extroversion was linked to variables that favor L2 speaking both inside the classroom (speaking skills, pronunciation skills, active participation in the EFL classes) as well as outside of it (L2 use, starting conversation in the L2). Notably, extraversion was linked to the EFL grades only when speaking skills were focused on during the EFL classes. This suggests that links between extraversion scores and linguistic variables depend on the type of linguistic material used and analysed as well as the specific FL classroom dynamics.

Presented findings might also have some didactic implications for the FL classroom. Teachers should be aware that extraverted and introverted students behave differently in the FL classroom setting. Extrovert students tend to participate more in classroom interactions and have a tendency to take risks while speaking, all of which seems to be an advantage when it comes to development of oral skills and communicative oral competence. Introversion, on the other hand, may be of even more significance for the independent language learner, given its positive correlation with mega-cognitive skills and their link with autonomy (Hurd, 2002). Therefore, all of the above mentioned aspects should be taken into consideration while lesson planning and assessment of FL students.

The results of the current study support previous research findings linking extroversion to the L2 use and speaking in a foreign language (Dewaele & Furnham, 2000; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Wakamoto, 2000, 2009). They also demonstrate a complex and nuanced nature of the relationship between personality trait of extraversion/introversion and L2 learning, with various mediating variables that need to be taken into account while researching personality, second language acquisition and L2 use.

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FL Pronunciation Anxiety and Motivation: Results of a Mixed-Method Study

Małgorzata Baran-Łucarz

Abstract The chapter reports on a mixed-method study, conducted among 78 English majors, examining the relationship between a language-skill-specific type of anxiety—pronunciation anxiety (PA)—and motivation. Pronunciation anxiety is presented as a multifaceted construct referring to the feeling of apprehension and worry deriving from negative self-perceptions, and beliefs and the fears related specifically to pronunciation (Baran-Łucarz, 2014). When motivation is concerned, it has been conceptualized on the basis of the L2 Motivational Self System Model (Dörnyei, 2005), as the desire to reach highest communication proficiency levels and/or nativelike target language accent, represented by the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. The quantitative data (results of correlation analyses and t-tests) supported by information gathered via semi-structured interviews have suggested motivation to reach a nativelike accent and become highly proficient in speaking to be negatively linked with moderate strength to PA, particularly to subcomponents of PA such as self-image, self-efficacy/self-assessment and beliefs about the sound of the TL and its importance for communication. The statistically significant correlation was found only in the case of the ideal L2 self. The ought-to L2 self revealed no link to PA.

Keywords Pronunciation anxiety · Pronunciation self-perceptions · Beliefs · Ideal L2 self · Ought-to L2 self · Nativelike accent · Communicative proficiency

1 Introduction

Language anxiety (LA) is the most frequently examined emotion in the field of SLA (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). Although some researchers (e.g., Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999) have observed a positive relationship between anxiety and

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language learning, most studies have shown a debilitative effect of LA on the learning process of L2 and its performance (e.g., Horwitz, 2001; Phillips, 1992; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008; Price, 1991; Saito & Samimy, 1996). Some (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p. 96) even consider anxiety "one of the best predictors of success" in foreign language (FL) learning. Defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128), anxiety has been found to reveal destructive effects on all the stages of information processing involved in language acquisition, i.e. on taking in (input stage), retention (processing stage) and production (output stage) (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). Thus, a ground understanding of the construct, its correlates and causes, seems to be of utmost importance. Thanks to the observations of several researchers, this matter has become more clear. Young (1991, p. 427) identified "six potential sources of language anxiety," with personal and interpersonal anxieties, learner beliefs about FL learning, and teacher beliefs about FL teaching placed at the top of the ranking. More contemporary studies have suggested LA to be linked with tolerance of ambiguity (Dewaele & Tsiu, 2013), personality (Dewaele, 2013; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002), gender (Campbell, 1999), emotional intelligence (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008), and motivation (e.g., Clement, 1980; Yan & Horwitz, 2008).

Interest in anxiety has resulted in identifying its several language-skill-specific types, such as listening (comprehension) anxiety (Kim, 2005), writing anxiety/apprehension (Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999), reading anxiety (Saito, Garza & Horwitz, 1999), speaking anxiety (Woodrow, 2006), grammar anxiety (VanPatten & Glass, 1999), pronunciation anxiety (Baran-Łucarz, 2014). Despite the fact that they all belong to the class of anxiety related to L2 learning, each of them has its own unique nature. This implies that although they may be shaped to some extent by determinants of LA, they may also be triggered by some constellation of language-skill-specific factors. This chapter focuses exclusively on pronunciation anxiety (PA) and its relation to motivation, a variable whose interrelation with anxiety is highly captivating and, at the same time, seems to be calling for further investigation (e.g., Yan & Horwitz, 2008). Before presenting the methodology and outcomes of the research, the construct of PA is introduced and the L2 Motivational Self System Model (Dörnyei, 2005) is briefly presented. The chapter closes with a discussion of the results, suggestions for further research and concluding remarks.

2 The Concept of Pronunciation Anxiety

Many experienced foreign language teachers, phonetics instructors, and learners themselves share the view that the depth of emotion expressed with pronunciation practice is greater than feelings associated with the learning of other aspects and/or skills in the FL (see e.g., Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2015). Among the explanations for the

high emotional load related to pronunciation learning is the direct association of pronunciation with one's identity. Already several decades ago, Guiora (1972, p. 144) underlined the importance of the role of pronunciation, positing that "one of the basic modes of identification by the self and others" is "the way we sound." This claim is supported by many contemporary researchers (e.g., Lamb, 2004; Setter, 2010; Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2015). Walker (2011, p. 14) explains, "whatever accent we have, native speaker or non-native speaker, standard or regional, it is part of our identity (…)" Therefore, it can be assumed that how successful we are in learning a FL will depend on the extent to which we are willing to modify our identity and take up a new one, shaped by the FL we are attempting to master (e.g., Grazia Busa, 2010; Piller, 2002; Rindall, 2010).

What undoubtedly triggers a range of emotions in FL learners, although they may not necessarily be conscious of this, is the sound of the target language (TL) (see e.g., Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2015). While the pronunciation of a language may evoke positive feelings in some students (who may perceive it as melodious, pleasant, charming, prestigious or sexy), the very same language may cause negative associations in others (who may consider it unpleasant, unnatural, sounding snobbish, or even annoying). It has been speculated (Baran-Łucarz, 2014) that people who show negative attitudes towards the sound of a TL will have difficulties accepting their FL image, i.e. the way they sound and look when speaking with a particular accent. Based on results of earlier studies on the link between LA and self-evaluation (e.g., Bailey, 1983; Baran-Łucarz, 2011, 2013), it is hypothesized that the views learners hold about their level of pronunciation and their ability to achieve an accent that they perceive as satisfactory might be important components of pronunciation-specific anxiety. This apprehension is assumed to be shaped by students' tendency to compare their self-concepts to those of others and by the fear of being negatively evaluated by them. This seems to be in line with Gregersen's (2006) observation, who argues that LA will appear when learners perceive their particular skill(s) as representing a lower level than that of their classmates, and at the same time consider this skill an important one. All these arguments have been the basis for conceptualizing PA, which can be defined as:

> a multidimensional construct referring to the feeling of apprehension and worry experienced by non-native speakers in oral communicative situations, when learning and using a FL in the classroom and/or natural contexts, deriving from their negative/low self-perceptions, beliefs and fears related specifically to pronunciation (based on Baran-Łucarz, 2014, p. 453).

It is assumed that the occurrence of PA is accompanied by typical cognitive, physiological/somatic and behavioural symptoms of anxiety (e.g., Vasa & Pine, 2004). As the brief discussion above suggests, PA has been proposed to consist of several interrelated components, which can be briefly described in the following manner (based on Baran-Łucarz, 2014, p. 453):

(1) Pronunciation self-efficacy and self-assessment—learners' perceptions about their inborn predisposition to acquire or learn a FL phonological system and about the level of the TL pronunciation they represent, which is usually formed

by the students by them comparing themselves to classmates or other speakers of the TL;
(2) Pronunciation self-image—FL learners' self-perceptions of the way they sound and look when speaking a FL, and their acceptance of the perceived self-image;
(3) Fear of negative evaluation—learners' projection of being negatively assessed by their interlocutors/listeners (their classmates, teacher, native speakers or other non-native speakers), on the basis of their pronunciation;
(4) A set of beliefs held by learners related to pronunciation, i.e. beliefs about its importance for successful communication, its level of difficulty for learners with a particular L1, and about the sound of the TL and attitudes towards it.

This model of PA was verified in a study using a pilot version of an instrument —the *Measure of Pronunciation Anxiety in the FL Classroom*, designed to diagnose this type of LA among students learning a FL in a formal setting. Although satisfactory results were found with regard to the test's internal and test-retest reliability and validity (Baran-Łucarz, 2016), there are still aspects of the construct that need further exploration. Finally, it is important to add that PA was found to be strongly related to LA, with Pearson r reaching 0.72; ($df = 35$; $p < 0.0005$), which implies a shared variance of 52.8%. Since both of the concepts address oral skills, such a score is not surprising. At the same time, however, the result suggests that PA has its own specific and unique nature, different from LA. Results of a study (Baran-Łucarz, 2014) showing that PA is negatively related to students' L2 willingness to communicate—"the most immediate determinant of L2 use" (Clément, Baker & MacIntyre, 2003, p. 191)—imply that apprehension related to pronunciation is worth further investigation. The study reported in this chapter has aimed to explain whether motivation can be one of its significant correlates.

3 L2 Motivation Self System

Research on motivation in the field of SLA has a tradition dating back more than 50 years. Interest in the concept, initiated by the early work on integrative and instrumental orientations (Gardner & Lambert, 1959), has led to numerous theories and models. As Dörnyei (2005) explains, three periods of research on motivation can be recognized, i.e. the social-psychological period, cognitive period, and process-oriented period. The agreement on the dynamic nature of motivation has resulted in many papers on how motivation of FL learners changes over longer periods of time—months or years (Kozumi & Matsuo, 1993; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004). Still, there is a call for more studies that would examine motivation fluctuations from an ecological perspective, i.e. within one lesson or over a series of lessons.

At present, one the most widely accepted and researched theories of motivation in SLA is the *L2 Motivational Self System*, expounded by Dörnyei (2005). Drawing on the Possible Selves Theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and Self-Discrepancy

Theory (Higgins, 1987), Dörnyei (2005) puts forward the Motivational L2 Self System, which has three components: (1) the ideal L2 self (what one would like to become) and the desire to reduce the discrepancy between it and the actual L2 self, (2) the ought-to L2 self (social pressure), typically identified with the wish to avoid experiencing the negative outcomes of having not fulfilled the expectations of others, and (3) the previous L2 learning experience and motives deriving from it (e.g., taking pleasure from the course, the positive influence of experiencing smaller and bigger successes in learning). As explained further by Dörnyei (2005), the model is a revised version of the concept of integrativeness and integrative motivation, which can with success be used in reference to a FL formal setting—the most common context of L2 learning. This time integrativeness does not denote one's wish to assimilate with the TL community, but rather the desire to reach the highest levels of proficiency of the TL.

Additionally, it has been hypothesized (Dörnyei, 2005) and established (e.g., Dörnyei & Chan, 2013) that "the more vivid and elaborate the possible self, the more motivationally effective it is expected to be" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 100). It has been also hypothesized that the ought-to L2 self can be an effective motivator provided it is internalized by the learner, i.e. when it is "in harmony—or at least does not clash" with the personal future self-guide, which is part of the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 32). Results of some studies lend support to this view (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009).

4 Motivation and Anxiety—Previous Studies

Although a link between anxiety and motivation has always been assumed to exist (e,g., Clément, 1980), it has not been fully clarified. As Yan and Horwitz (2008, p. 176) claim, "further attention should be directed to understanding the relationship between motivation and anxiety in language learning". Most studies (e.g. Clément et al., 1994; Khodadady & Khajavy, 2013) point to a reciprocal relationship between these two concepts. Lack of anxiety is typically viewed as a predictor of high L2 self-confidence, which is said to characterize motivated learners (Clement, 1980). As Khodadady and Khajavy (2013, p. 269) research results have shown, "amotivation and less self-determined types of external motivation are positively related to anxiety", while "intrinsic and identified regulation are negatively related to anxiety".

More contemporary research aimed at examining the connection between the two variables has shown that the ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience lead to lower levels of anxiety, while a high ought-to L2 self results in higher levels of anxiety (Papi, 2010). Indeed, low levels of anxiety can be assumed among highly motivated students, particularly if they are successful and have positive self-perceptions, while conversely, unsuccessful experience is likely to lead to stress, discouragement and a lower motivation to learn. In Yan and Horwitz's study (2008, p. 172) it was also the learners themselves who believed that "interest and

motivation to learn English lessened pressure and decreased anxiety." However, there are studies whose results show no connection between anxiety and motivation (e.g., Tóth, 2007) or suggest just the opposite type of relationship (e.g., Jackson, 2002; Kitano, 2001). After all, as Horwitz (1996) and Tóth (2007) explain, and many researchers and FL teachers intuitively feel, it seems logical that high motivation, which results in exertion of effort and systematic work, may lead some individuals to experience high levels of anxiety, particularly if the outcomes do not meet their expectations.

In this chapter an attempt is made to shed light on the link between motivation and anxiety related specifically to FL pronunciation, by examining quantitative data and complementing them with information gathered via interviews with high and low PA students. To understand better the nature of the relationship, a differentiation has been made between (a) motivation to become nativelike in pronunciation and (b) motivation to reach a high level of communicative competence in the TL. In both cases, the construct of motivation is represented by the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. A better understanding of the relationship is also ensured by looking at the link between particular components of PA and motivation.

5 Method

5.1 Research Questions

To find out whether motivation is related to pronunciation anxiety, a study was conducted in spring 2015, which addressed the following research questions:

Questions addressing the link between PA and motivation to reach a TL nativelike accent:

(Ia) Is there a link between the level of pronunciation anxiety and motivation to speak with a nativelike TL accent?

(IIa) Which component of the motivational possible selves referring to the TL nativelike accent—the ideal L2 self or the ought-to L2 self—is more strongly related to PA, and to which particular components of PA?

(IIIa) Is there a significant difference between the level of motivation to reach a TL nativelike accent, represented by the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self, of high and low PA students?

Questions addressing the link between PA and motivation to reach a high level of communicative competence:

(Ib) Is there a link between the level of pronunciation anxiety and motivation to become communicative in the TL?

(IIb) Which component of the motivational possible selves referring to oral communicative proficiency—the ideal L2 self or the ought-to L2 self—is more strongly related to PA, and to which particular components of PA?

(IIIb) Is there a significant difference between the level of motivation to become communicative in the TL, represented by the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self, of high and low PA students?

Answering these questions is possible thanks to the application of appropriate statistical tools. The quantitative outcomes will be further complemented with qualitative data, shedding yet more light on the matter of relationship between motivation and pronunciation anxiety.

5.2 Participants of the Quantitative Study

The study was conducted among English majors who were just finishing their first semester at the Institute of English Studies, University of Wrocław (Poland). The complete set of data was provided by 78 students (45%—day students; 55%—extramural students), all of whom were Poles, ranging in age from 20 to 24 years, with a sex ratio—70% females and 30% males. According to the final credits the participants achieved for the course of practical English at the end of the first semester, their level of English ranged from B2+ to C2 (according to the Common European Framework of Reference, Council of Europe, 2001), with the higher level found more frequently among day students. Having taken part in approximately 50 hours of practical phonetics, the pronunciation of about 60% of the students improved considerably in the following aspects: pronunciation of segments difficult for Poles, weak forms, rhythm, word pronunciation and consistency in using one of the accents—RP (Received Pronunciation) or GA (General American). The remaining participants progressed slowly and were found to still have difficulties with selected aspects. It seems worth adding that although 66% of the respondents had never been to an English-speaking country, most of them (78%) had paid short visits to other countries, where they tried to use English to communicate with other non-native speakers of English.

5.3 Instruments of the Quantitative Study

Two questionnaires—the *Measure of Pronunciation Anxiety (MPA)* and the *Pronunciation Motivation Questionnaire (PMQ)*—were used to gather the data necessary to answer the research questions. Both of them were written in the participants' L1, to reduce the risk of the items being misunderstood by the respondents. They were filled out anonymously during one of the classes of phonetics in two stages—the MPA at the beginning and the PMQ at the end of the class, so as to eliminate the danger of the participants being tired of filling out both questionnaires at once. Each phase lasted approximately 10 min. The MPA and PMQ were preceded with a few open questions inquiring about the students'

gender, years of learning English, visits and stays in English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries, other FLs studied and their grade from an oral pronunciation test taken at the end of semester one.

To ascertain the level of PA, the *Measure of Pronunciation Anxiety* (see Appendix 1) was applied. The MPA was a self-report questionnaire consisting of 50 statements with a 6-point Likert scale (agree/disagree). It constituted a modified version of an earlier instrument—the *Measure of Pronunciation Anxiety in the FL Classroom* (Baran-Łucarz, 2014; Baran-Łucarz, 2016) and was addressed to average learners rather than those majoring in FLs. The most important modification consisted in adding statements addressing symptoms of anxious behavior caused by the concern about pronunciation experienced when talking to native and non-native speakers of English. Moreover, so as to eliminate the problems with the low internal consistency of the beliefs subscale (see Baran-Łucarz, 2016) of the instrument, the questionnaire was enriched with a few statements concerning each of the three types of beliefs, so as to be able to treat them as separate 3-item subscales rather than one subscale with beliefs concerning different aspects of pronunciation. Consequently, the resulting scale entailed 9 subcomponents, all of which revealed satisfactory internal reliability (Cronbach alpha) levels (see Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), which were as follows: general FL oral performance apprehension (8 items—from 1 to 8 on the MPA; $\alpha = 0.89$), pronunciation self-efficacy and self-assessment, (7 items—from 9 to 15; $\alpha = 0.83$), pronunciation self-image (8 items—from 16 to 20 and 22 to 24; $\alpha = 0.66$), fear of negative evaluation (8 items, i.e. 25, 27, 28, 33, 34, 37-39; $\alpha = 0.86$), beliefs about the nature/sound of the TL (3 items, i.e. 26, 30, 31; $\alpha = 0.80$), beliefs about the importance of pronunciation for communication (3 items, i.e. 21, 32, 35; $\alpha = 0.70$), beliefs about difficulties with learning TL pronunciation by learners representing a particular L1 (PA 3 items, 29, 36, 40; $\alpha = 0.72$), PA when talking to native and non-native speakers outside the FL classroom (10 items—from 41 to 50; $\alpha = 0.93$). The internal consistency value of the entire scale reached the level of 0.95 ($df = 76$; $p < 0.0005$). The subjects could achieve a minimum of 50 points and a maximum of 300 points. The higher the individuals scored, the more anxious they were considered to be. Among the statements there were some (items 4, 10, 12–14, 17–20, 31, 35, 40, 46) denoting lack of anxiety, in the case of which a reversed scoring key was applied.

To learn about the students' level of motivation to achieve high levels in pronunciation, a 29-item *Pronunciation Motivation Questionnaire* was designed (see Appendix 2), which had a similar format to the MPA, i.e. the respondents were to agree to various extent with the statements provided. The basis for operationalizing the construct was the L2 Motivational Self System proposed by Dörnyei (2005). The subscales of the instrument and their internal reliability values were as follows:

(1) The criterion measure, which entailed the strength of desire to achieve TL native-like pronunciation, free from L1 influences (4 items—1, 2, 5, 6), and the actual and planned effort put into pronunciation practice (5 items—from 7 to 11). The Cronbach alpha for this subscale was $\alpha = 0.74$.

(2) Ideal L2 self—pronunciation—6 items (12, 16, 17, 20, 21, 25), most of which referred to visualizing/imagining oneself as a successful TL speaker characterized by native-like accent ($\alpha = 0.63$).
(3) Ought-to self—pronunciation, (3 items—23, 26, 28), referring to the assumption that it is generally expected or that the testees believe that significant others want them to speak the target language with a near-native-like accent ($\alpha = 0.68$).
(4) Ideal L2 self—communicative competence (8 items—3, 4, 13–15, 18, 19, 22), denoting the proneness of the participants to picture themselves being highly proficient speakers of English, able to communicate fluently and effortlessly on any topic ($\alpha = 0.73$).
(5) Ought-to self—communicative competence (3 items—24, 27, 29), referring to the belief that high proficiency in the TL is generally a must for all the English majors or that it is considered to be necessary from the perspective of the participants' significant others ($\alpha = 0.61$).

The internal consistency of the scale entailing subscales 1–3, all of which address directly the matter of motivation to reach a nativelike accent reached a satisfactory level of 0.88. It is these scores that will be called total scores in the further parts of the paper. Although the scale taking all the 5 components into account also revealed a high Cronbach alpha (0.85), it is important to clarify that components 4 and 5 were used only as extra scales and items that would take the mind of the respondents off the matter of pronunciation, giving those who are not highly motivated to speak with the TL native-like accent an opportunity to score higher on chosen items. Since, however, the results seem interesting, the data gathered with these scales will also be provided. The higher the students scored on the scale, the more motivated they were considered to be. As in the case of the earlier instrument, in the case of some of the items (2, 19, 21, 23), a reversed scoring key was used.

6 Findings

6.1 Presentation of Quantitative Data

The first step in the analysis of the quantitative data consisted in computing the descriptive statistics for the outcomes on the two questionnaires. The results are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Although the participants of the study were English majors and there was a risk that their anxiety level would be mostly low, while their motivation by definition high, this appeared not to be the case. The achieved values displayed in the above tables show that the levels of both PA and pronunciation motivation (PM) varied among the students, implying that in each case the scores were normally distributed, which the descriptive statistics indeed reveal. Since none of the remaining

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for results of the Pronunciation Motivation Questionnaire, N = 78

PMQ	Mean	Median	Low-high	SD
PM total	81.50	80.50	10.07	51–105
Criter. Meas.	42.30	43.00	5.55	30–54
IS-pr	27.90	29.00	4.19	5–36
OS-pr	12.31	12.00	2.86	3–18
IS-com	40.13	41.00	5.12	28–48
OS-com	11.25	11.00	2.54	4–17

PMQ Total total score, entailing desire and effort (criterion measures), *IS-pr* Ideal self—pronunciation; *OS-pr* ought-to self—pronunciation; *IS-com* ideal self—communicative competence; *OS-com* ought-to self—communicative competence

Table 2 Descriptive statistics for results on the Measure of Pronunciation Anxiety, N = 78

MPA	Mean	Median	Low-high	SD
PA total	147.64	148.00	67–237	35.15
SE/SA	21.67	22.50	8–32	6.86
SI	23.68	24.00	10–31	6.24
FNE-cl	26.09	26.00	8–44	8.23
B-sound	13.02	13.00	3–17	2.70
B-com	12.32	12.50	4–18	2.90
B-diff	10.08	11.00	4–17	3.05
PA-outcl	27.68	27.00	10–49	10.77

MPA Total MPA total score; *SE* self-efficacy; *SA* self-assessment; *SI* self-image; *FNE-cl* fear of negative evaluation in the FL classroom; *PA-outcl* pronunciation anxiety outside the FL classroom; *B-sound* beliefs about the sound of the TL; *B-com* beliefs about the importance of pronunciation for effective communication; *B-diff* beliefs about difficulty of TL pronunciation learning

assumptions underlying Pearson correlation (the scales, linearity, and independence assumptions) were violated, the strength of relationship between the two variables could be computed. Table 3 shows the results of these calculations.

As the table shows, in many cases the correlation coefficients between scores on the MPA and PMQ are statistically significant. The total scores on the two measures were found to be linked with each other negatively with moderate strength (−0.33), which implies that the lower the level of motivation to reach nativelike accent the students had, the higher levels of pronunciation anxiety they revealed. The correlation is presented graphically by Fig. 1.

When the correlation coefficients achieved between the total score for PMQ and subscales of MPA are concerned, they are the highest in the case of pronunciation self-assessment/self-efficacy and self-image, which suggests that the lower (more negative) the pronunciation self perceptions the participants revealed, the less motivated to speak with the TL accent and to become highly communicative they were. Statistically significant scores were also achieved in the case of beliefs

Table 3 Matrix of Pearson product-moment correlations between the subcomponents of MPA and MPQ

MPA/PMQ	PMQ total	Criter. Meas.	IS-pr	OS-pr	IS-com	OS-com
MPA total	−0.33**	−0.32**	−0.29*	−0.13	−0.28*	0.20
SE/SA	−0.45***	−0.32**	−0.47***	0.07	−0.31**	0.07
SI	−0.43***	−0.46***	−0.37**	0.21	−0.27*	0.21
FNE-cl	−0.14	−0.17	−0.08	−0.12	−0.10	0.19
B-nat	−0.26*	−0.28*	−0.24*	0.17	−0.20	0.05
B-com	0.27*	0.25*	0.21	0.04	0.15	0.22
B-diff	0.21	0.20	−0.18	−0.08	−0.10	0.08
PA-outcl	−0.19	−0.19	−0.19	−0.09	−0.40***	0.17

df = 76; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; two-tailed test

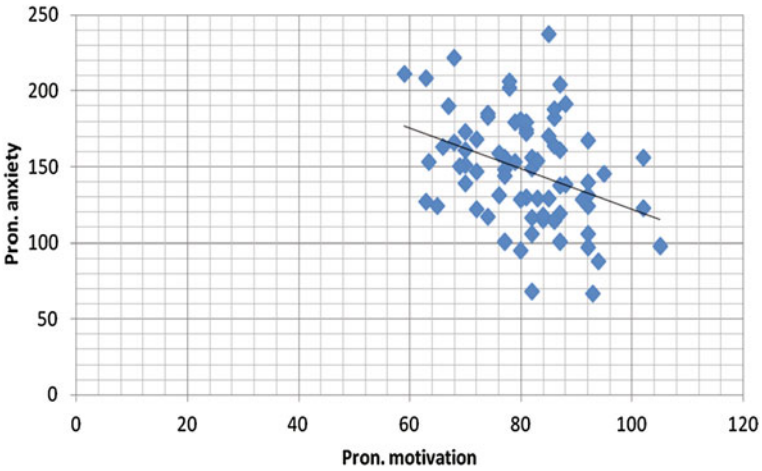

Fig. 1 The Pearson correlation between the total scores on MPA and PMQ

students held about the sound of the TL, implying that the less strange, funny or unnatural the learners believed the TL sounds and words were, the more motivation to achieve nativelike perfection in pronunciation, represented by the ideal pronunciation L2 self, they had. When beliefs about the importance of pronunciation for communication are concerned, a positive correlation was found with the total PMQ score and the criterion measure, indicating that this belief of the participants went hand in hand with their desire to reach highest levels in pronunciation and actual and intended effort put into improving pronunciation. However, the third type of belief, namely concerning the matter of how difficult according to the respondents the TL (in this case—English) pronunciation is to master by (in this case) Polish learners, proved to be a nonsignificant correlate of pronunciation motivation, though the coefficients approached closely the r critical value. Moreover, it is interesting to observe that neither the fear of negative evaluation

experienced specifically in the FL classroom nor pronunciation anxiety felt outside the FL classroom when talking to native or non-native speakers were found to correlate at a statistically significant level with pronunciation motivation. There is, however, an exception to this rule, i.e. PA outside the FL classroom correlated negatively with the motivation represented by the communicative ideal L2 self ($r = -0.40$), suggesting that higher apprehension in this context might lead to less frequent/vivid visualizations of oneself speaking freely in the TL, or vice versa. Finally, the correlation values clearly show that while the ideal L2 self, whether concerning pronunciation specifically or general communicative skills, is moderately linked with PA, the ought-to L2 self is not; it was found not to correlate significantly with any of the PA subscales.

What followed the correlational statistics were t-tests, aimed at providing answers to research questions IIIa and IIIb. To examine whether the level of motivation of high and low PA participants differed significantly, all the respondents were classified into either high or low PA students. While those who scored above the mean in the total of the MPA were considered highly anxious, those who scored below the mean were classified as individuals with low PA. The mean, standard deviation and results of the t-test are displayed in Table 4.

As the table shows, the differences between the means of the Total MPQ, the pronunciation ideal self and communication ideal self were significantly higher for the low PA students. As in the case of the correlation results, the differences in the case of pronunciation ought-to self and communication ought-to self were nonsignificant.

Table 4 Basic statistics and results of independent t-tests computed for motivation of high and low PA students, N = 78

Pronunciation	Motivation	Mean	SD	t	*p* level
PMQ total	High PA	77.77	8.8	−2.68	$p < 0.05$
	Low PA	83.65	10.59		
IS-pr	High PA	26.93	4.12	−2.33	$p < 0.01$
	Low PA	29.08	4.03		
OS-pr	High PA	12.24	2.76	−0.21	n.s.
	Low PA	12.38	2.99		
IS-com	High PA	38.49	5.14	−3.14	$p < 0.01$
	Low PA	41.94	4.5		
OS-com	High PA	8.65	1.73	1.06	n.s.
	Low PA	8.25	1.48		

PMQ Total total score of the Pronunciation Motivation Questionnaire, entailing desire and effort (criterion measures), *IS-pr* ideal self—pronunciation and *OS-pr*: ought-to self—pronunciation; *IS-com* ideal self—communicative competence; *OS-com* ought-to self—communicative competence; *n.s.* nonsignificant

6.2 Presentation of Qualitative Data

To shed more light on, among many others, the nature of the potential link between pronunciation anxiety and motivation, a few participants who obtained either the highest or the lowest scores on the MPA were emailed with a request to take part in face-to-face interviews. Eventually 4 students with a high level of PA (Students A–D) and 4 with a low PA level of PA (E–H) were selected and agreed to come to the individual meetings.

The semi-structured interviews took from 15 to 20 min with each participant. They were conducted in the participants' first language. Consequently, most of the quoted answers are translations of the original responses provided by the interviewees. The open questions directed to the participants touched several matters related to pronunciation anxiety, from among which some addressed directly the matter of motivation to master English pronunciation, referring to the L2 ideal self and ought-to self, e.g.,

- *What level of English would you like to achieve and why?*
- *Is it important for you to have a native-like pronunciation? Why (not)?*
- *Do you like the pronunciation of English? Do you sometimes dream/imagine yourself speaking like a native speaker?*
- *What level do you think a graduate of English philology should represent? Why?*
- *Is there anybody for whom the level of English you reach is important? Is his/her opinion important for you?*

To understand better which particular components of anxiety might be connected to high or low motivation, an attempt was also made to elicit from the interviewees information about and emotions connected with their self-perceptions, fear of negative evaluation in and outside the FL classroom and beliefs related to the pronunciation of English and its mastery. Finally, the individual sessions ended with handing over a two-part *Test of Attitudes towards English Sounds (TAES) to each interviewee.* In Part One the participants were asked to provide as many adjectives, expressions, or associations as they could relating to sounds Poles have problems with and which native speakers of English find irritating, i.e. interdentals and post-alveolars (see Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2015). In Part Two the learners' task was to draw pictures or images that best represented the feelings these sounds evoked in them.

6.2.1 Motivation and Emotions of High PA Interviewees

Student D is a female who scored over 1.5 SDs above the mean on the MPA. Interestingly, she is motivated not only to become communicative but also to strive for native-like pronunciation, which is shown by the student's PMQ scores and verified by her during the interview. *'Accent is something absolutely exceptional! I would like to eliminate Polish features in my speech,'* she claimed. When asked

about the norm she favours, she points to British English, which she says she likes a lot. Encouraged to talk about her ideal L2 self, she says: *'Actually, I frequently think of myself speaking with a good accent. That's how I imagine myself in the future—with native-like pronunciation.'*

As far as the motivation of the other three highly anxious participants is concerned, some common features clearly emerge. Although the learners claim to be concerned about their pronunciation, they do not necessarily wish to speak with a native-like accent. Student B states:

> *I don't like the fact that people are trying to become British or American. In that way they are anonymous, 'universal', and lose their real identity. [...] I prefer when it is visible from one's pronunciation who one really is, where one is from, what one's real identity is. [...] I definitely wouldn't like to sound like a native speaker of English. It would be like changing my identity or feeling shy about being a Pole.*

The reason why Student A is not so much concerned about her accent is more practical. *'It's not really accent that is so important, but rather correct pronunciation, particularly at word level. ... I wouldn't like anybody to hear that I am pronouncing something incorrectly*. That would make me stressed.' As she further explains, she fears that trying to approximate RP could make her a less intelligible speaker, due to many of its less comprehensible features, such as rhoticity. By contrast, Student C believes improving pronunciation could make her more communicative, although she aims not at a native-like but rather a *'near native-like accent'*, which she characterizes as one that lacks L1 features. *'I would like to acknowledge to being a Pole for myself when I wish to, rather than have a label 'She's Polish' attached,'* she says. Consequently, in their ideal L2 selves, though represented by vivid images, these participants perceive themselves as correct and intelligible rather than native-like speakers of English.

On the other hand, the ought-to self of all these anxious participants appears to be very high. Not only do they all believe it is necessary for English majors to speak with a native-like, or at least correct, pronunciation (*'I remember a teacher whose pronunciation was simply not English. I find that completely irresponsible and absolutely unacceptable,'* explains Student C), but also assume their relatives want them to have a good accent *('I am the first person in my family studying at the university. I think they would like me to speak like a native speaker, and I wouldn't like to disappoint them!'* says the most anxious student).

At the same time, all of the anxious students consider their pronunciation and ability to improve it lower than that of other learners in their groups. The most anxious student explains,

> *I clearly have no talent for pronunciation. I can see others making amazing progress in such a short period of time. At the beginning, the pronunciation of many learners was poor. Now it's much better. I'm really surprised at the achievements of my classmates and a bit disappointed seeing very little, if any, progress in my own pronunciation.*

It is important to add that Students A, B, and C believe their TL learning goals are different from those of their classmates and that they stand out from the group. Student B states, *'Unlike my classmates and teachers, I never wanted to*

speak with perfection. It's simply against me,' while Student C claims, '*The whole group is more concerned about pronunciation than me. That's why I find it difficult. I'm sure they're thinking "How on earth did she make it here. She's taken somebody else's place!" I have thoughts of this kind very frequently.'*

Some common trends can also be found in these students' attitudes towards the sound of the TL. Although at the first glance all of them find native English pronunciation *'pleasant'*, *'nice to listen to'*, or *'careful'*, Student B believes *'Not everybody sounds good speaking British English,'* and the associations the anxious learners suggest with reference to particular sounds are evidently negative. Among the adjectives and expressions provided by these high PA participants relating to interdentals and/or post-alveolars in the TAES, complemented with further explanations provided during the interviews, are the following: *'heavy', 'strange', 'stupid', 'very unnatural', 'difficult', 'terrible', 'nobody speaks like that', 'crippled', 'as if I was spitting all over', 'childish', 'funny', 'reserved for elderly women', 'I have never come to terms with the sound, I've always hated it.'* Below are images drawn by the most anxious student, expressing her emotions associated with interdentals (Fig. 2).

Although the images were not that drastic in the case of the two other high PA participants (one student did not draw anything, claiming that she *'simply cannot draw'*), they did not present any positive associations either (e.g., the tongue spitting the saliva while producing the 'th' sound, or an old woman without teeth).

As expected, these negative associations are not to be indifferent to the high PA students' pronunciation self-images, e.g., *'I'm sure I look unnatural pronouncing the 'th' sound,'* says Student A. When asked about emotions accompanying speaking English in class, Student B gives the following explanations: *'The reaction of others is very crucial to me. My group speaks better than me, so when I*

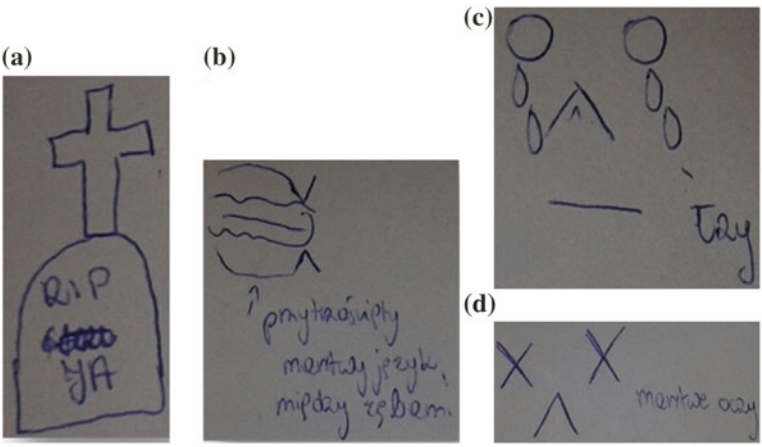

Fig. 2 Associations connected with interdentals of the most anxious participant (Student A): **a** a gravestone with the label 'RIP Me', **b** a tongue 'trapped between the teeth', 'a dead tongue', **c** a crying face and explanation 'tears', **d** a sad face and the explanation 'dead eyes'

make a mistake, I'm sure they think it's funny.' Highly negative emotions also accompany the most anxious student who says:

> *If only possible, I try to stay silent. When I make a mistake, I burn with shame. I can't understand myself, since I am not a shy person and have absolutely no problems speaking Polish. I don't believe anybody would think or say something bad about me, but I cannot accept myself making mistakes. I simply feel bad when I'm not sure if I'm pronouncing something correctly.*

Similar feelings are experienced by Participant D who states,

> *I feel strange during the classes because I know others are looking at me. Probably they think I am weird because I can't manage to pronounce some sound properly. It's very stressful…. I remember an exercise in which we were to try to say Polish words, e.g., 'tata', with the English /t/ - I felt like a complete idiot. Yes, indeed, I am very tense. It's interesting how I cannot overcome my inhibitions in the classroom.*

In response to the question about emotions accompanying conversations out of class, most high PA subjects agree with Student D who explains, *'In the case of conversations which take place in natural surroundings, it's normal that errors occur […] and they are differently perceived than in the classroom. It's definitely more stressful when I make a mistake in class.'* However, the most anxious student (A) confesses that her stress is not much lower when talking in English to other non-native speakers outside the classroom. Although she had a very good contact with a Spanish Erasmus student via email and wanted to speak to her, it was only at the very end of the semester that she finally found enough courage to talk to her face to face, despite having seen her almost every day on campus. It seems that one of the reasons for her high PA is her being a perfectionist, who is unable to accept failures. Student C draws attention to the fact that the stress she experiences is very visible both to her and others, and that it is beyond her control, despite good classroom dynamics. *'I have a very nice group, but still, kind of subconsciously, I can't stop thinking how others might be perceiving me, and worrying that they probably think I'm stupid,'* she claims.

6.2.2 Motivation and Emotions of Low PA Interviewees

The first feature that distinguishes the participants with low levels of PA is their authentic fascination with the target language pronunciation. As Student F exclaims, *'British English pronunciation is super! I love it! I believe achieving native-like pronunciation is the pinnacle of success in FL learning; it means reaching the highest possible levels.'* His strong desire is supported by effort (systematic well-planned work) and revealed by a clear and vivid ideal L2 self. Among his responses is the following, *'I frequently imagine myself passing for a British native speaker.'* It is also supported by a high and internalized ought-to self. More specifically, not only does this student consider it necessary for English philology graduates to have a native-like accent, but he also believes the highest expectations in this area are set by his significant others. The same pattern is

followed in the case of all the other low PA participants. Student G, for example, explains, *'I'm sure my parents would like me to reach the highest levels in FL, including the achievement of native-like pronunciation. I hope I manage to fulfill their expectations.'*

The high motivation to achieve nativelike accent seems understandable when seeing the highly positive attitudes of the low PA students towards the sound of English and emotions evoked by them. While Student H describes British English as *'elegant, noble and aristocratic,'* Student E explains:

> *This accent [British English] is simply beautiful. Some say that British speakers sound as if they had a hot potato in their mouths. But that's exactly what I love about it! […] I want to completely get rid of all my L1 influences. […] When I listen to Prof. X [a British native speaker having classes with the subjects], I wish he'd never stop talking.*

It is also particular sounds that these subjects are '*in love with'*. While Student F is fascinated with [o:], [a:], [t], [d], post-alveolars and interdentals, Learner G acknowledges, *'I love all the British sounds.'* Fig. 3 shows the responses provided in the *Test of Attitudes towards English Sounds* of Participants E and H, respectively. The former uses such expressions as *'delicate'*, *'subtle'*, *'refined'* and *'warm'* with reference to interdentals, and draws the image of puff-balls. The latter associates post-alveolars with the experience of flying with a parachute and with adjectives such as *'fluffy'*, *'soft'*, *'funny'*, *'cushiony'*.

Although not all of the low PA participants were found to have a very high pronunciation level, they themselves perceived it as better than that of the others in the group. However, they acknowledged the need to further improve their pronunciation. Moreover, they clearly liked their pronunciation self-image, felt confident and considered themselves to have a gift for the acquisition of FL pronunciation. What, however, seems the most crucial is their feeling of security in the classroom, illustrated by their not being concerned about making mistakes in front of others. Student H clarifies*, 'I might blush if I make a pronunciation mistake, but I treat it as a lesson, accepting the fact that nobody's perfect and I have the right to make errors at this stage. I am not angry at myself nor at others.'* An analogous opinion is held by Student F who says *'I never feel uncomfortable.*

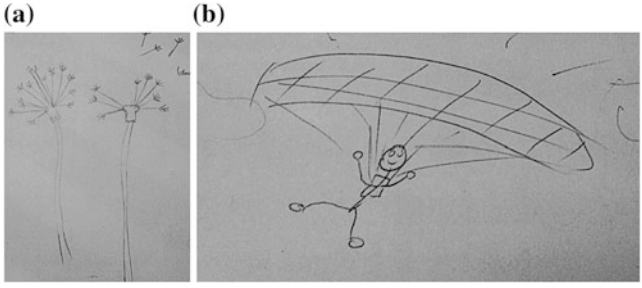

Fig. 3 Associations connected with **a** interdentals and **b** post-alveolars of low PA participants (Students E and H)

Knowing that others are listening to me, motivates me to be more careful. I am glad and grateful if somebody fishes out some mistakes in my speech. I can then learn something new.'

Finally, with regard to emotions evoked by speaking outside the classroom, some low PA learners claimed to feel relaxed, irrespective of who the interlocutor is, while others believed they would probably feel more anxious when speaking to NSs.

7 Discussion of Results

Let us try to put the qualitative and quantitative data together to draw a more comprehensive picture of the link between PA and motivation. First of all, both the outcomes of the statistical tests and the information provided by the participants in the interviews suggest that high motivation to speak with a TL nativelike accent is positively related to positive attitudes towards/beliefs about the sound of the TL pronunciation and high/positive pronunciation self perceptions (pronunciation self-image, self-efficacy and self-assessment). The low PA interviewees were found to be *'in love'* with the pronunciation of English and considered being able to speak like a native speaker their dream and their most important goal. On the other hand, the highly anxious learners (3 out of 4) turned out to aim at high levels of communicative proficiency rather than nativelike pronunciation, which in fact they had negative attitudes towards, believing that at times it sounds unnatural, strange or ridiculous. It is important to add that these learners perfectly realized that they differed in their ultimate goals from their classmates, which they evidently felt uncomfortable with. Following Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014), we may assume that their worrying about being marginalized by other members of the community (other English majors), may have led them to frustration and demotivation both to participate in pronunciation tasks and to achieve highest levels in this aspect.

In the case of high PA interviewees, what appeared to go hand in hand with their low pronunciation motivation was also their difficulty with or even objection to accepting their new potential identity as a Pole speaking English with a TL accent. This lends support to pronunciation being intrinsically tied to identity. Pavlenko and Norton (2007) explain that one's motivation and resistance to L2 learning can be positively influenced by the so-called *imagined communities*, which Kanno and Norton, (2003, p. 241) define as "groups of people with whom we connect through the power of imagination." Norton (2010, p. 355) further clarifies that these communities offer "possibilities for an enhanced range of identity options in the future." It seems, however, that in the case of these high PA participants, there is no wish to connect strongly with the TL group nor to take advantage of the opportunity to verify their identities.

Despite the fact that the quantitative data of this study evidently show a negative correlation between motivation and anxiety, it cannot be ignored that indeed, as Yan and Horwitz (2008) hypothesized, it is possible to trace highest levels of

anxiety among individuals revealing at the same time highest levels of motivation, as in the case of highly anxious Student D, who claimed she wanted to achieve a nativelike accent. As, however, the information provided by this student in the interview has shown, her high apprehension seems to be caused by a constellation of many related and intertwined factors, motivation being just one of them.

The second most visible trend observed from the quantitative results is the lack of relationship of PA and its subcomponents with L2 ought-to self. Nonetheless, the feelings of the high and low PA students revealed in the individual meetings suggest that the apprehension may be expected to appear when the ought-to self has not been internalized by the individual, i.e. is not in harmony but instead clashes with the ideal L2 self.

Let us focus briefly on motivation related to fear of negative evaluation—a subcomponent of pronunciation anxiety. Although the high PA students confessed fearing the reaction of others when making pronunciation mistakes at segmental or word level, while the low PA individuals were not concerned about leaving a negative impression on their classmates, the quantitative data imply that this subcomponent itself is not a significant correlate of motivation to achieve a nativelike accent or high speaking proficiency.

Finally, it seems worth reminding that a negative correlation of moderate strength was identified between pronunciation anxiety experienced outside the FL classroom in real-life settings when talking to native and non-native speakers and motivation to reach high communicative competence, represented by a clearly visualized ideal L2 self as a highly proficient TL speaker. The relevance of the relationship between these two variables seems to be supported by the highly anxious Student A, who aimed at high communicative skills rather than nativelike accent and had serious problems with approaching her Erasmus friend, due to her anxiety.

8 Concluding Remarks

It must be made clear that the study reported in this chapter has several weaknesses, just to mention the small number of students involved in the project or the instruments, which need further amendments (especially the measure of pronunciation motivation). Despite the fact that the outcomes need to be viewed with caution, the study seems to have shed some light on the relationship between the PA and motivation to achieve nativelike pronunciation and high levels of oral communicative competence. The outcomes suggest that anxiety and motivation related to pronunciation indeed work in tandem, and that modifying one of them will most probably result in changes in the other. Among the most important conclusions deriving from this study is that low motivation, represented in particular by a negative ideal L2 self, has been found to be systematically more common among students with high PA, represented by low/negative pronunciation self perceptions (pronunciation level and learning skills considered low, and negative

pronunciation self-image). On the basis of this observation we might hypothesize that in order to sustain or raise FL students' motivation to achieve high levels in pronunciation, the teacher should try to keep their learners' self-perceptions high. This may be achieved by helping them see their regular progress, by providing them with opportunities to self-reflect on their pronunciation, offering exercises that would help them come to terms with their new FL self-images, and by giving them systematic positive feedback on specific improvements. To foster students' motivation to work on their pronunciation, it also seems necessary to make sure that they understand its importance for communication and that their attitudes towards this FL aspect are positive. It is also worth reminding that although no systematic relationship between pronunciation motivation and fear of negative evaluation was found, the apprehension was revealed as particularly high in the case of those interviewees who showed a low level of motivation to improve their pronunciation. Thus, building a positive classroom atmosphere and helping students understand that making mistakes is an evitable and natural part of FL learning experienced by every student might be another way of keeping students' motivation at a higher level.

Following the contemporary trend to treat motivation as a dynamic and fluctuating concept, it would be worth examining its relationship with PA from an ecological perspective, focusing on whether and how the link between the two variables changes after different treatment, e.g., after applying various approaches and techniques in pronunciation teaching, raising students' phonological awareness through formal instruction or relying only on the students' intuition and auditory skills.

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Appendix 1: Measure of Pronunciation Anxiety

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the statements below by writing a digit next to each of them. The statements refer to your learning and using of English as a foreign language.

6—strongly agree (completely true about me)
5—agree
4—slightly agree
3—slightly disagree
2—disagree
1—strongly disagree (definitely not true about me)

0. *Example: I get nervous every time I am asked to answer a question in the foreign language.*	2
1. During speaking tasks in the class of English, I tend to have difficulties with concentration.	
2. When I speak English during the lesson, my performance is usually at a lower level than when I try (rehearse) speaking at home.	
3. I can feel my heart pounding, have a dry mouth, or clammy hands (or have other symptoms of being stressed) when I am asked to respond in English at the whole class forum.	
4. I frequently volunteer to answer questions in English.	
5. I feel shy when I am asked to read aloud in English.	
6. I feel more comfortable during classes that involve less talking and more writing (e.g., grammar or lexical exercises).	
7. Usually I feel embarrassed when asked to repeat after the teacher	
8. I avoid eye contact with the teacher looking for a learner to answer his/her question in English.	
9. I find it more difficult to improve my English pronunciation than grammar or vocabulary.	
10. I remember the pronunciation of new words easily.	
11. My pronunciation is at a lower level than that of my classmates.	
12. I believe that after a 2- or 3-year course of English with a native speaker, my accent could become target language nativelike.	
13. I am satisfied (happy) with my present level of English pronunciation.	
14. I have a talent to pick up the pronunciation of foreign languages.	
15. My pronunciation of English is far from that of native speakers.	
16. I look funny pronouncing the ‘th’ sound.	
17. I like singing and/or speaking to myself in English.	
18. I do/would not mind pronouncing English sounds and/or words with my native language accent.	
19. I like imitating English actors/singers.	
20. I look natural speaking English.	
21. The comprehensibility of a speaker depends on his/her level of pronunciation.	
22. I (would) feel uneasy pronouncing English sounds and/or words as they should be pronounced.	
23. I do not like listening to myself reading in English aloud.	
24. I think I sound unnatural speaking English.	
25. I would rather my classmates did not hear me making pronunciation mistakes.	
26. Some words in English sound awkward and/or funny.	
27. I feel stressed when the teacher corrects my pronunciation mistakes at the class forum.	
28. I fear my classmates might find my pronunciation of English strange or funny.	
29. The pronunciation of English is difficult for speakers of my first language.	
30. Some sounds of English seem silly and/or strange.	
31. English is like music to me.	
32. The level of pronunciation affects the ability to understand spoken language.	

(continued)

(continued)

33. I am worried what others might think of me when they hear my English pronunciation.	
34. Usually it bothers me when I mispronounce a word in English during a lesson.	
35. A speaker that mispronounces many sounds can still be understood by his interlocutor quite easily.	
36. There are several aspects of English pronunciation that are difficult for speakers of my mother tongue.	
37. I get nervous and feel shy of the teacher when making a pronunciation mistake.	
38. I feel stressed knowing that other students are listening to me.	
39. I feel more embarrassed making a pronunciation mistake than any other type of mistake (grammatical or lexical).	
40. Mastering correct word stress of English is not particularly difficult for speakers of my native language.	
41. I (would) worry about what other non-native speakers of English could think of me hearing my pronunciation of English.	
42. I can feel my heart pounding, have a dry mouth, or clammy hands (or have other symptoms of being stressed) when I have to join a conversation in English with other non-native speakers of English.	
43. Talking to another non-native speaker of English, I would fear that he could consider my English pronunciation funny or awkward.	
44. Usually I am embarrassed when talking to other non-native speakers of English.	
45. When talking to a non-native speaker of English, I worry that I might not be understood.	
46. I (would) feel comfortable and relaxed talking in English to native speakers.	
47. I (would) worry about what my native speaking interlocutors could think of me on the basis of my pronunciation of English.	
48. When I have to join a conversation with native speakers of English, I can feel my heart pounding, have a dry mouth, or clammy hands (or have other symptoms of being stressed).	
49. When talking to a native speaker of English, I worry that I might not be understood.	
50. Talking to a native speaker of English, I would fear that he could consider my English pronunciation funny or awkward.	

Appendix 2: Pronunciation Motivation Questionnaire

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the statements below by writing a digit next to each of them. The statements refer to your learning and using of English as a foreign language.

6—strongly agree (completely true about me)
5—agree
4—slightly agree
3—slightly disagree

2—disagree
1—strongly disagree (definitely not true about me)

0. *Example: I get nervous every time I am asked to answer a question in the foreign language.*	2
1. It is important for me to improve my pronunciation of English.	
2. I would like my interlocutors to be able to tell easily where I am from on the basis of my pronunciation of English.	
3. When I think about my future career, I imagine myself as an employee who is a highly proficient user of English.	
4. I frequently picture myself communicating easily with other non-native speakers on various matters.	
5. I would like to speak with an English nativelike accent.	
6. It is crucial for me to pronounce English vocabulary correctly.	
7. If I had the opportunity, I would attend a pronunciation course more frequently.	
8. Being given advice on which aspects of pronunciation to practise and how, I would eagerly and systematically do (keep doing) such exercises at home.	
9. I systematically practise pronunciation on my own.	
10. I try to look for opportunities to exercise pronunciation after class.	
11. I think I have been putting a lot of effort into pronunciation practice.	
12. When I think about the future, I see myself speaking with a nativelike English accent.	
13. I frequently visualize myself communicating successfully and effortlessly with native speakers of English.	
14. In a few years' time, I will have no problems with communicating effectively and effortlessly in English.	
15. I can picture myself living in another country, communicating with others only in English.	
16. When I think about the future, I see myself speaking English without an L1 accent.	
17. I sometimes imagine other speakers of English being surprised to find out that I am not a native speaker of English.	
18. I think that in my future job it will be necessary for me to be a highly proficient speaker of English.	
19. I cannot remember imagining or dreaming about myself communicating in English successfully and effortlessly.	
20. Sometimes I envy other non-native speakers of English who have a near-nativelike pronunciation of English.	
21. I have never imagined myself speaking a near-nativelike pronunciation of English.	
22. Not reaching a highly proficient level of English would have a negative effect on my future life (career, relationships, life opportunities).	
23. It is not necessary for a graduate of English philology to have a near-nativelike English accent.	
24. If I did not reach a highly proficient level in English, I would disappoint those I care about.	
25. If I had a strong L1 accent, it would probably have a negative influence on my life (career, relationships, life opportunities).	

(continued)

(continued)

26. If my pronunciation of English is far from nativelike, I will disappoint those I care about.	
27. A graduate of English philology should be highly proficient and fluent in English.	
28. A graduate of English philology should not have an L1 accent.	
29. It would be a shame for a graduate of English philology not to be highly proficient in English.	

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L2 Motivational Strategies that Do not Work: Students' Evaluations and Suggestions

Tim S.O. Lee

Abstract Motivation has received a high priority in discussion of second language (L2) teaching and learning, as successful L2 learners are often observed to have motivation (Ushioda, 2008). Connected to this, L2 teachers in various educational contexts are expected to employ motivational strategies to promote students' goal-related behaviour and bring about enduring positive effects. Prior research on L2 motivational strategies tends to be primarily quantitative and teacher-oriented, so little has been done to explain why some students' L2 motivation stays stagnant and their learning remains less than successful, despite their teachers' regular motivational interventions. There also appears to be limited research which gathers students' suggestions for better strategy implementation. To address these research gaps, this chapter reports on a qualitative study on students' negative reactions to some L2 motivational strategies and their suggested remedies. Throughout a semester in a Hong Kong tertiary institution, 32 regularly adopted L2 motivational strategies were recorded in nine English classes, and 26 students' feedback on the strategies was collected with reflective journals and individual interviews. About a quarter of the student comments were unfavourable, whereas boredom and inappropriate materials emerged as the most frequent complaints. Some students did not appear to be motivated by strategies which aroused interest or ensured better future L2 performance, which contradicts the common conceptualization of motivation as an intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy. The students also provided insightful suggestions related to teacher intervention, workload for learners, frequency of strategy use, difficulty level, and variety.

Keywords L2 motivational strategies · L2 motivation · Hong Kong

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1 Introduction

Motivation, which can be succinctly defined as a driving force that pushes people to engage in action, exert effort, and persist in doing so, has long been viewed as a crucial determinant of success in second language (L2) learning. Although L2 learners can be self-motivated or motivated by parents, friends, classmates, and other significant others, a deep-seated assumption is that teachers play the most prominent role in maintaining and strengthening L2 learners' motivation. Studies such as Kikuchi (2009) and Yeung, Lau, and Nie (2011) indeed show that teachers exert considerable to great influence on students' L2 motivation. Given this substantial responsibility, L2 teachers are likely to be keen on acquiring skills and techniques to motivate learners in diverse educational and ethnolinguistic settings. This has fuelled research on L2 motivational strategies, which are purposeful instructional interventions to arouse, enhance, and maintain students' L2 motivation, and to protect it from distractions and detriments (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Guilloteaux, 2013).

The use of L2 motivational strategies should not be based on speculation, intuition, or even retrospection. Instead, recommended L2 motivational strategies should be theoretically sound and proven to be effective in actual classrooms (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). One of the earlier studies to validate L2 motivational strategies in classroom settings was Dörnyei and Csizer (1998). It examined, using questionnaires, how frequently 51 L2 motivational strategies were employed and how much importance was attached to them by Hungarian teachers of English. The results were then converted to a list of 10 recommended macrostrategies, named *Ten Commandments for motivating learners*. Building on the findings, Dörnyei (2001) compiled perhaps the most comprehensive framework to date, comprising over 100 L2 motivational strategies. It echoes Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process-oriented model and covers four motivational stages: creating the basic motivational conditions, generating motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive self-evaluation.

These early efforts sparked a considerable amount of quantitative research on L2 motivational strategies worldwide, often adopting similar procedures and questionnaires. Studies such as Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan, Alrabai (2011) in Saudi Arabia, Weng (2012) in Japan and Taiwan, and Guilloteaux (2013) in South Korea focused exclusively on teachers' use and perceptions of strategies. Their results indicate that certain L2 motivational strategies appear to be universally endorsed, so they are transferable across different contexts. Also, strategies which are deemed important tend to be used frequently. At the same time, a number of studies investigated not only teachers but also students to compare their perceptions and gauge the effectiveness of the adopted strategies. Examples include Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) in South Korea, Bernaus and Gardner (2008) in Spain, Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) in Japan, Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2011) in Iran, Ruesch, Bown, and Dewey (2012) in the US, and Wong (2014) in Hong Kong. In general, teachers' use of L2 motivational strategies can raise students' L2 motivation and

attainment, yet teachers and students may not agree on the value and effectiveness of the examined strategies.

In comparison, qualitative research on L2 motivational strategies has remained scarce. One attempt to fill this research gap was Cowie and Sakui (2011), which investigated Japanese English teachers' perceptions of L2 motivation and its influence on their strategy use. It was found that the teachers' perceptions were largely based on the motivated behaviour they witnessed, which then shaped their strategy use. Also, their relatively global view of English caused them to underuse strategies which refer to any particular L2 target community. Hapsari (2013) conducted a similar study with Indonesian teachers of English to ascertain how their characteristics and preferences affected their strategy use. They generally considered themselves enthusiastic teachers who readily embraced the responsibility to motivate their students. The strategies they preferred most were tasks which involve movement and interaction. Maeng and Lee (2015), analysing videos of English teaching, found that teachers of English in South Korea most preferred attention-related strategies. Their strategy use was diverse and appropriate in the beginning phase or their classes but less so in the during and closing phases.

While the above inquiries into teachers' use of L2 motivational strategies have yielded some insightful findings, little progress has been made to qualitatively examine students' perspectives, such as their reasons for favouring or disfavouring certain strategies, their new learning decisions or behaviour elicited by the strategies, or their suggestions for heightening the effectiveness of the strategies. A rare example is Astuti (2013), which explored both teachers' and students' perceptions of L2 motivational strategies in Indonesia. However, the findings were presented in relation to the aforementioned four stages of Dörnyei's (2001) framework rather than any individual strategies in it, so they were far from specific. The lack of elaborative and explanatory data from students leaves teachers uninformed of the less conducive characteristics of the unwelcomed L2 motivational strategies. In some cases, the inappropriately adopted L2 motivational strategies may be not only unhelpful but also demotivating, that is, they may extend "forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 139). This, coupled with the fact that students are the most direct consumers of L2 motivational strategies, calls for research which meticulously gathers students' voices and transforms them into guidelines on effective strategy implementation. To this end, the present study addresses the following three research questions:

1. What L2 motivational strategies do students find ineffective?
2. What are the ineffective characteristics of these strategies?
3. What suggestions do students have for better strategy implementation?

Table 1 Information of courses and student participants

Course title	Student participant	
	Year 1	Year 2
1. English for Academic Studies	3	0
2. English for Academic Studies	3	0
3. English for Academic Studies	4	0
4. English for Academic Studies	1	0
5. Practical English for College Students	3	0
6. Practical English for College Students	3	0
7. English for Workplace Communication	1	2
8. English for Workplace Communication	2	1
9. Analysis of English Grammar	0	3

2 Method

The study was conducted in a tertiary institution in Hong Kong which offers a range of 2-year associate degree and higher diploma programmes. Students there are believed to have intermediate or upper-intermediate mastery of English, and the typical sizes of the English classes range from 20 to 25 students. The participants were 20 Year-1 and 6 Year-2 students, from nine English classes. Table 1 summarizes the details of the nine classes and the number of student participants from each class.

The design of the study drew on qualitative research methods, and data were collected with journals and interviews over a semester. There were two rounds of data collection, one in Week 5 and the other in Week 10. In each round, the nine teachers reported, by email, two or three L2 motivational strategies which they had regularly employed. After that, the student participants were given a journal guide which listed the strategies used by their corresponding teachers and asked for feedback and suggestions (see Appendix). They were given a week to write a journal of 200–300 words in English. Each of the participants submitted two journals as intended, so a total of 52 journals were collected for analysis. At the end of the semester, 10 of the students were invited for individual interviews in Cantonese Chinese, as their journal data required more explanation. The data were coded into common topics and then categories, and the frequency of each category was also recorded.

3 Results and Discussion

Table 2 presents the 32 L2 motivational strategies which were reported by the teacher participants to be regularly used, together with the numbers of student participants who described the strategies as effective or ineffective in the journals. The results show that these strategies were considered fairly motivating. In

Table 2 Reported L2 motivational strategies and students' evaluation

Strategy reported by teachers		Students' evaluation	
		Effective	Ineffective
A	*Draw students' attention to unique and difficult aspects of English*	*11*	*8*
A1	Show students' in-class work on the visualizer and invite others to comment on it	2	2
A2	Compare Chinese and English features like nominalization, finite/non-finite verbs, and tenses	2	1
A3	Use lyrics to introduce English structures like prepositional phrases	1	2
A4	Use both effective and ineffective advertisements to raise students' awareness of language mistakes and differences	3	0
A5	Raise students' awareness of pronunciation issues and encourage students to practice	2	3
A6	Show students videos of sample presentations and let students discuss the strengths and weaknesses	1	0
B	*Use group work, games, competitions, and other interactive activities*	*17*	*5*
B1	Use small games and quizzes in class and reward the winners	1	1
B2	Use in-class competition	4	0
B3	Let students learn writing skills through interaction	1	0
B4	Regularly use small-group discussions where students can mix	3	1
B5	Offer students opportunities to discuss in groups before or after various reading and listening tasks	3	2
B6	Use pair and group work	5	1
C	*Enhance the authenticity of English teaching and learning*	*9*	*5*
C1	Share own English learning experience with students	1	1
C2	Use examples from daily life to illustrate English features	1	1
C3	Teach presentation skills with videos of previous students' performance	1	0
C4	Explain the purpose and utility of a task or an assignment	2	2
C5	Incorporate authentic materials into the course, such as news reports, blogposts, advertisements, etc.	4	1
D	*Build students' confidence*	*14*	*0*
D1	Recognize students' attempts to speak English, show understanding, and provide encouragement	2	0
D2	Adjust assessment guidelines to ensure success and boost students' confidence	2	0
D3	Use encouraging words in class	4	0
D4	Help students understand obstacles, correction, and revision of assignments are a normal and natural part of English learning	6	0
E	*Prepare students for assignments and assessments*	*9*	*2*
E1	Show students a sample test paper and stress that all the tested topics have been taught in class	1	1

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Strategy reported by teachers		Students' evaluation	
		Effective	Ineffective
E2	Discuss previous students' assignments as exemplars	3	1
E3	Use the step-by-step guide for research essay writing	1	0
E4	Provide appropriate strategies to carry out the assignments	4	0
F	*Promote learner autonomy*	*8*	*1*
F1	Share with students useful online English learning resources for self-study	2	0
F2	Introduce methods for improving English after school	3	0
F3	Provide opportunities for students to make discoveries	3	1
G	*Stress the instrumental values of learning English*	*7*	*1*
G1	Tell students the usefulness and importance of the knowledge taught in daily life, further studies, employment, etc.	1	1
G2	Stress the instrumental value of English	6	0
H	*Provide students with positive feedback*	*4*	*0*
H1	Provide feedback on students' performance in assignments	2	0
H2	Provide mainly positive feedback on oral presentations and other assignments, and show confidence in students' abilities	2	0
Total		*79*	*22*

particular, the macrostrategies of building students' confidence (Strategy D) and providing students with positive feedback (Strategy H) received unanimous endorsement from the students.

Despite the generally favourable evaluation of the regularly used L2 motivational strategies, exactly half of the strategies were reported to possess some ineffective characteristics. Among all, the most problematic macrostrategies appeared to be drawing students' attention to unique and difficult aspects of English (Strategy A), and enhancing the authenticity of English teaching and learning (Strategy C). Table 3 lists the reasons why the students found some strategies ineffective.

3.1 Boredom or Disinterest

Boredom and disinterest were a pronounced ineffective characteristic of some of the examined L2 motivational strategies. Even though the students acknowledged the intended and desirable outcomes of the strategies, the dullness of the strategies rendered them unmotivating. Activities which were regarded as boring or uninteresting included watching presentation videos, reading classmates' work, and practising pronunciation:

Table 3 Characteristics of ineffective L2 motivational strategies

Ineffective characteristic	Count
1. Boredom or disinterest	5
2. Inappropriate materials	5
3. Better performance as a nonfactor in L2 motivation	4
4. Dissimilar preferred use of activities or materials	3
5. Interest as a nonfactor in L2 motivation	2
6. Known facts or knowledge	2
7. Indolent or uncooperative classmates in group work	2
8. Sloppy strategy implementation	2
9. Others	4

> This method could only help me distinguish the better presentations from the others. It did not raise my learning interest or motivation [Student 3A].

> This method helped me learn about the strengths and weaknesses of my classmates, but did not enhance my drive to learn English. All I did afterwards was solving my English problems with what I observed in my classmates' works…I did not find it interesting, so it did not make me learn more English after school [Student 5B].

These results underscore the demotivating effect of uninspiring or unstimulating activities, which has been documented by Chamber (1993) and Sakai and Kikuchi (2009). In this study, the majority of the strategies that were reported to induce boredom and disinterest addressed specific language skills such as oral presentation and grammar, so they were in essence teaching strategies that were hoped to be also motivational. An implication is that while ordinary English teaching strategies may simultaneously serve the purpose of motivating students, as reported by Bernaus and Gardner (2008), some students may require more than proper instructional practices to stay motivated.

3.2 Inappropriate Materials

Inappropriate materials, alongside boredom and disinterest, were a noticeable complaint made by the student participants. The materials involved in certain examined strategies were found to be difficult, unfamiliar, or boring. Examples including songs, presentation videos, and textbook content were cited:

> Sometimes I could not follow the content of the presentations, so this method could hardly enhance my English learning motivation [Student 2C].

> It was not that meaningful to discuss with classmates after reading or listening to some textbook content, because the content was identical for us. There was little difference between what we were going to say [Student 6B].

> The method did not noticeably raise my motivation because most of the songs were unknown to me [Student 9A].

The extracts above point to the need to consider students' habits, favourite pastimes, personalities, proficiency levels, and other relevant information in the selection of teaching and learning materials. Certain L2 motivational strategies in Dörnyei's (2001) framework that can help teachers in this regard, such as accepting and caring about students, indicating physical and mental availability, and paying attention and listening to each student. These strategies are particularly worth employing because they are not only motivating but also capable of augmenting the effectiveness of other L2 motivational strategies which entail careful material selection.

3.3 Better Performance as a Nonfactor in L2 Motivation

Several students agreed that strategies such as explaining the purposes of an assignment, going through sample test papers, and showing students' classwork on a visualizer could improve their performance. Nevertheless, these strategies were dismissed as unmotivating because the improved performance pertained only to the compulsory course components and seldom engendered continuous or in-depth learning, particularly after class. To these students, better performance at school appeared to be merely a minor motive:

> It did not make me acquire any out-of-class knowledge beyond the scope of the exam. Even though I read some sample and mock papers, it did not arouse my motivation to learn English [Student 1C].

> As a student, after knowing the value of an assignment, I will only focus on the grading criteria to get a better result. I will not take a further step to explore the knowledge elicited in the assignment, so I don't think it is an effective method [Student 8B].

This phenomenon can be accounted for with the two contrasting goal orientations: mastery and performance orientations. These students were likely to value mastery goals more than performance goals. Since improved performance might constitute only an insignificant portion of their L2 motivation, strategies whose primary aim was to boost performance might not be motivating to them. It should hence be acknowledged that some students may value mastery and autonomous learning more than performance and prospects.

3.4 Dissimilar Preferred Use of Activities or Materials

Several strategies were deemed ineffective because the students felt somewhat uneasy to conduct the activities or use the materials in the ways intended by their teachers. Strategies that fall into this category include using authentic English materials, song lyrics, and group work. While the activities and materials might be

inherently enjoyable, they were rarely associated with English learning by the students:

> For me group work is only an opportunity for chitchats, which I am not against. I just don't feel any urge to improve my English [Student 4A].

> This method was not that effective to me. To me, songs are for appreciation, not for English learning. Frankly speaking, when listening to English songs I don't care what structures or phrasal verbs are used, even if the teacher decides to discuss them [Student 9B].

Two possible reasons why the students were reluctant to learn or practice English in the planned activities were that they were unclear about the intended goals and outcomes, or the activities were, to their mind, solely for pleasure. Some intuitive ways to lower the agitation are to explicitly state the instructional and motivational purposes of each learning activity, and use a wider variety of activities and materials to accommodate diverse expectations. These two ways were indeed suggested by some student participants, which will be discussed in Sect. 4.

3.5 Interest as a Nonfactor in L2 Motivation

Raised interest, similar to better performance, was appreciated but not considered to be an effective motive by some students. Two strategies that managed to arouse interest only but not L2 motivation were sharing L2 learning experiences and using daily-life L2 examples. A student rated these two strategies as interesting but unmotivating because they did not cause decision or behaviour pertinent to English learning. It implies that actions were a more reliable indicator than perceptions of some student participants' L2 motivation:

> I feel that experience sharing and everyday examples could only add more interest and fun to the class, but not raise my motivation. It did not result in any decision, change, or behaviour [Student 1C].

While almost all frameworks of motivation include interest as a main component, it may not be as crucial or influential as goals, relevance, expectancy of success, achievements, and other factors in some students' L2 motivation. If L2 motivation is viewed as a process, as in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model, the value of interest to arouse desires and hopes is evident in the preactional phase, yet it is constant teacher intervention that makes learners commit themselves to action and persist in the subsequent phases. The findings here and in Sect. 3.3 caution against a simplistic view of L2 motivation as an interest-usefulness duality.

3.6 Known Facts or Knowledge

The strategies of revisiting English pronunciation features and stressing the usefulness of English were not satisfactorily effective because some students did not find the conveyed message or knowledge new. A student would rather be informed about practicable ways to improve English than the value of English; another student who considered herself adequately skilled at English pronunciation found the teaching of pronunciation rules and symbols baffling and unnecessary:

> The pronunciations skills taught were very complicated. As a result, I totally forgot them after class. For me, pronunciation is not a problem…and I could pronounce them right anyway. Thus, I felt tired and bored with the terrible pronunciation symbols [Student 3A].

> Actually most students are aware of the importance of English in the society. Their biggest hindrance is that they have not found effective ways to learn English, ways that suit them. I feel that teaching effective English learning methods is more important than stressing the importance [Student 8B].

What reduced these strategies' effectiveness was not obsolete or autocratic teaching methods, but stale knowledge that was well known to the students. This result is in line with Oxford's (1998) conclusion that demotivation can be the result of repetitive knowledge and redundant activities. Students who are anxious for improved performance and opportunities for further studies may be particularly impatient over the reiteration of old knowledge. The importance of analysing students' backgrounds and needs in the selection of appropriate L2 motivational strategies is again manifest.

3.7 Indolent or Uncooperative Classmates in Group Work

The low effectiveness of some L2 motivational strategies was caused by classmates instead of the teacher, the content, or the pedagogy. Two students reported how their classmates' scant participation and cooperation undermined the motivating power of group work:

> The fundamental problem is that group work requires close cooperation between members. While some stronger or more eager students desire to have discussion in English, others may not want to do so, and they either stay unresponsive or use Chinese instead. It causes other students to give up too in the end. So the time for discussion is wasted and it gives rise to gossips [Student 3D].

> It is not the teacher's fault. My classmates don't do the discussion seriously. They just have fun themselves, probably because they are uninterested anyway [Student 7C].

The two reported detriments to group work were classmates' limited English proficiency and low incentive to interact. One possible way to address the first is to teach students communication strategies which can overcome communication

difficulties, which is an existing L2 motivational strategy in Dörnyei's framework (2001). Earlier studies such as Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain, and Steiner's (1997) also acknowledge the need to teach modified- and social-interaction strategies for improved group communicative interaction. Low incentive and engagement can be partially addressed with another strategy endorsed by Dörnyei: explaining clearly the purpose and utility of the group work. The issues with group work shed further light on the paramount importance of teacher guidance and supervision, without which students may be prone to give up challenging tasks.

3.8 Sloppy Strategy Implementation

One teacher participant taught unfamiliar and difficult pronunciation features as a L2 motivational strategy. Specifically, he drew his students' attention to the features with examples, demonstrated the features, and provided his students with adequate practice opportunities afterwards. Two of his students, nevertheless, rated this strategy as ineffective because the examples and demonstration were limited and incomplete:

> When he used this method, all I could do was to try to pronounce the words he showed us with the pronunciation rules I understood. But the word examples he gave were not adequate, so I failed to fully understand and differentiate the rules [Student 3B].

> My teacher did not spend much time teaching us how to pronounce it right, or the important characteristics of a pronunciation. He finished his demonstration really fast, but he did not teach us how to do the same step by step, so there was no way I could practice it myself later or feel motivated [Student 3C].

This teacher apparently adopted the strategy of introducing problematic language features for the dual purpose of dispersing knowledge and motivating students. Several other teachers tended to use teaching strategies to achieve the same two goals, as Sect. 3.1 has uncovered, yet the goals were not always met. The result here illustrates how sloppy and disorganized teaching can further curtail the motivating effect of such a practice. Teachers ought to be wary of the detrimental effects of hasty teaching behaviour on students' motivation, since it is proven to be demotivating in various educational contexts (Chamber, 1993; Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Oxford, 1998).

4 Suggestions for Better Strategy Implementation

The student participants provided over 70 suggestions for enhancing the effectiveness of the L2 motivational strategies under examination. These suggestions are put into eight groups (Table 4) for further discussion. A wide array of issues such as

Table 4 Suggestions for enhancing strategy effectiveness

Type of suggestion	Count
1. More assistance or other input from the teacher	24
2. Adjustment in amount of work or frequency	13
3. Modification of the activity mode	8
4. More even and frequent student participation	7
5. Adjustment in difficulty	6
6. More variety	6
7. More familiar or recent materials	5
8. Others	6
Suggestions for effective strategies	*55*
Suggestions for ineffective strategies	*20*
Total	*75*

teacher intervention, frequency of strategy adoption, material selection, and student participation were discussed. A noteworthy pattern was that numerous suggestions were made for the strategies which were rated as effective, and in fact the suggestions for effective strategies far outnumbered those for ineffective strategies.

4.1 More Assistance or Other Input from the Teacher

Many student participants commented that the effectiveness of the strategies could be strengthened with more assistance or other helpful intervention from their teachers. Almost one-third of the students' suggestions in this study belong to this category. Some of the suggested intervention included recommending self-learning strategies and ways for improvement, demonstrating pronunciation and presentation skills, assisting students more frequently during group work, briefing students on the motivational and instructional purposes of a certain strategy, and simply teaching more knowledge:

> Only telling students how useful English is may not raise their motivation. Teachers should show us ways to improve English in practice at the same time [Student 2A].

> The lecturer does not need to prepare very complicated notes. He can simply read out the difficult sounds so that students can imitate the right pronunciation, then students will become less confused and more motivated [Student 3D].

> If some stronger groups keep winning, weaker groups may give up. The teacher can observe which groups are passive, let them answer more, and attend to their needs more often, so that they know the teacher does care about them [Student 6A].

> The teacher should stress that the main purpose of the strategy is to motivate us, so that we know in what way we can benefit [Student 7A].

> After offering encouragement, the teacher can teach the content again in more detail, so that we can use it more accurately and confidently [Student 7B].

In general, the students who provided the suggestions were likely to stay motivated as long as the English teaching was relevant, and some degree of future success was guaranteed. These two needs correspond to relevance and expectancy of success, which are important course-specific components of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 1994). These suggestions support the notion that seemingly ordinary L2 teaching techniques, if carried out thoughtfully and meticulously, can be motivational at the same time.

4.2 Adjustment in Amount of Work or Frequency

Some students focused on the frequency, length, and substance of the strategies more than their procedures. On the one hand, there were calls for more time for discussion, longer videos with more vocabulary input, and a higher frequency of group interaction; on the other hand, some students preferred less frequent uses or shortening of certain strategies which might feel childish, lead students to side-track, take up too much normal teaching time, or bring failures:

> Often times I could not get the right answer, which was frustrating, so I don't think she has to use the strategy of avoiding model answers too frequently. Not for every question definitely [Student 1C].

> The time spent on authentic, real-life English should be extended. The short videos, for example, are just one-minute long, covering a few new words. That is too shallow [Student 4A].

> Strategies that let students discuss in groups should be used more often. Many of us are too nervous to speak up in class, and the less we speak the worse it gets [Student 5B].

> Competition is fun, but it cannot be used too frequently. It feels childish and silly to tertiary students after all, and the more often it is used the more boring it gets [Student 6C].

> Maybe a bit less time should be spent on the strategy so that the teacher can cover the course content in more detail [Student 8A].

The first repercussion of the above suggestions is that increasing the frequency of strategy use or the amount of L2 work does not always cause higher L2 motivation. Quantitative research on the relationship between frequency of use and strategy effectiveness is unlikely to yield conclusive or unanimous findings, since frequency is apparently not the only decisive variable. The second repercussion is that it may be unrealistic to expect students to agree on an optimal frequency of strategy use or amount of work involved, as their preferences can be vastly dissimilar or even contrasting. English teachers should hence refrain from attempting to satisfy every student by dwelling on a specific frequency or amount.

4.3 Modification of Activity Mode

Suggestions in this category were concerned with the procedural details or formats of the stated strategies. One student preferred sample test papers that require demonstration of taught skills to those that resemble the real papers; two students would like group tasks and authentic materials that could be taken away and done in their spare time; and one student suggested turning discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of previous students' homework into competition:

> If all the content covered in the test has indeed been taught, why can the mock paper not focus on knowledge and skills rather than the format? If a student fails to apply some knowledge in it, he knows what he has to revise at home, and it raises motivation [Student 2A].

> The teacher can devise some similar group tasks for us to take away, so that we can keep learning in our spare time [Student 4C].

> I think that the teacher can give us authentic materials not only for in-class but also after-class use, so that we can learn autonomously [Student 6A].

> If we can have a competition instead of discussion of the strengths and weaknesses, I believe it can motivate us to learning English even more [Student 6B].

These students were likely to be cognizant of how the above modifications could amplify the effectiveness of some L2 motivational strategies. The findings here serve as a reminder that there are plentiful possibilities in the implementation for a single L2 motivational strategy. English teachers should not hesitate to explore the possibilities, experiment with them, and evaluate their effectiveness.

4.4 More Even and Frequent Student Participation

Some students had earlier imputed the ineffectiveness of some strategies that required group work to low participation of unengaged, distracted, and less proficient classmates. Expectedly, suggestions were made to ensure more even and frequent participation of every student. Methods such as changing group competition to individual, keeping groups compact, allocating a larger part of the final grade to in-class participation, and even overtly condemning students were brought up:

> I think occasionally individual competitions rather than group ones can be held to ensure that everyone contributes and engages into them [Student 1C].

> Four students in a group should suffice. Five or more will easily make the workload uneven or too light for some, so they cannot practice or contribute adequately [Student 2B].

> Invite us to answer more questions by giving some participation marks which are counted in the GPA [Student 7B].

> Teachers should reprimand students who do not do group tasks seriously [Student 7C].

While scolding students or changing the weightings of course components may be undesirable or infeasible, English teachers are advised to ensure that all students stay on task and support one another. Not even a democratic and participatory learning atmosphere, which is often assumed to be appropriate for and motivating to more mature students, can justify the absence of teacher monitoring and intervention during group tasks.

4.5 Adjustment in Difficulty

Inappropriate difficulty levels had been raised earlier as an ineffective characteristic by the students, so predictably they would provide suggestions to ameliorate it. Several student participants would like their teachers to lower the difficulty levels of the sample oral presentations and recommended self-learning activities; one student was specifically concerned about the difficulty level of in-class competition, commenting that teachers should pick similarly proficient students as opponents to make the competition winnable to both sides:

> If the speakers of the sample presentations are at ages and English levels similar to ours, the samples will feel more realistic, and I will genuinely believe that I can achieve the same [Student 3B].

> The learning experiences she shared with us might not be appropriate. Our English levels are much lower, so we can hardly imitate what she suggests…easier learning methods are better [Student 5A].

> In-class competitions should involve two students or groups with similar English proficiency, so that it feels challenging and both have a chance to win [Student 6A].

The difficulty levels of all components of a L2 course are a key determinant of L2 motivation as it can affect goal setting, self-efficacy, and expectancy of success. However, owing to individual differences, there can hardly be an optimal, one-fits-all difficulty level for all students. One possible solution is to use activities and materials of varying difficulty levels. In fact, injecting variety appears to be an indispensable means to clear different obstacles to L2 motivation. Evidence is presented in the next subsection.

4.6 More Variety

A number of student participants urged for more variety in the activities or materials introduced by the stated strategies. They could foresee deeper impression, increased chances for personalized learning, and more interest as benefits of enhanced variety.

They would like to be provided with more diverse advertisements, songs, and sample presentations, as well as self-learning materials other than online resources:

> I hope she will introduce books and magazines too apart from webpages. I like those more [Student 2C].
>
> If there are a wider range of presentation videos, we can pay attention to those that we can follow and comprehend. Sometimes my teacher showed us a really complicated and fast presentation, and it was hard to follow [Student 3A].
>
> In addition to TV advertisements, similar materials like merchandise information tags can be shown to us to help us understand translation principles better [Student 9B].
>
> More types of songs can increase our interest and learning motivation [Student 9C].

Even though the number of comments on variety does not appear to be large, variety can affect difficulty level, interest, length and depth of engagement, and other aspects of L2 motivation, as the suggestions uncovered. While variety in learning tasks and materials has not drawn much attention in existing frameworks of L2 motivation, it can possibly be the nexus of an array of motivational factors. Widening the variety of L2-learning-related matters may improve different aspects of students' L2 motivation simultaneously.

4.7 More Familiar or Recent Materials

In addition to considering the difficulty levels and widening the selection, another recurring suggestion pertinent to materials was using newer ones on topics familiar to the students. Comments of this type were made on advertisements, songs, news reports, and so on:

> Teachers can present videos and news reports about fashion and recent trends, so that students can learn with interest, be engaged, discuss more, and have deeper impression. All these add to English learning motivation [Student 5C].
>
> To raise our English learning motivation, teachers can find out advertisements well known to all of us and ask us to translate the punch lines [Student 9A].
>
> I believe my teacher can play more recent and stylish songs that we can identify with [Student 9C].

In institutional settings where English teachers frequently employ L2 motivational strategies which present materials for students to discuss or study, the incorporation of more appealing materials can greatly enhance the strategies' motivating effect. These materials may also promote autonomy as industrious students may study them beyond regular class time. Careful selection of teaching and learning materials, therefore, is essential in a motivational sense.

5 Conclusion

This study successfully elicited subtle and detailed opinions on a body of L2 motivational strategies, which can hardly be obtained by any purely quantitative study. Half of the investigated L2 motivational strategies were viewed by some student participants as unconducive, and the problems were often associated with the strategies that focus on specific English aspects and enrich authenticity. The most common concerns were boredom, disinterest, and inappropriate materials. At the same time, a substantial number of students were not motivated by the prospect of better performance, or the ways their teachers intended to present materials or conduct activities. These undesirable features, if left unheeded or unchecked, may significantly curb the growth of learners' L2 motivation and their L2 attainment over time. Moreover, a sizable portion of the complaints were about how certain English skills were taught with the strategies, such as pronunciation, oral presentation, and writing. It is hence not viable to maintain L2 learners' motivation with ordinary teaching strategies only. Other strategies such as offering encouragement and care, introducing novel and stimulating elements, helping students set goals, and monitoring students' progress should also be considered.

A wealth of insightful suggestions was given by the student participants for the improvement of the investigated strategies. Half of the suggestions concerned teacher intervention, workload for students, and frequency of strategy use. Suggestions that focused on difficulty level and variety were less numerous, yet they merit attention as they directly addressed previously mentioned ineffective strategy features. The student participants longed to see improvement in not only ineffective but also effective strategies, since the majority of the suggestions were for the latter group. This sounds a note of caution over the tendency of some previous studies to focus mainly on strategies with irregularities but leave endorsed ones unexamined. The large number of individual suggestions in this study is condensed into a set of marcosuggestions, which is similar to how Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) reduced numerous L2 motivational strategies into 10 recommendations. These categories of suggestions are of considerable value to teachers and researchers alike.

An important implication that numerous suggestions seem to point to is that there can hardly be a single ideal amount of work, frequency of use, or difficulty level for any L2 motivational strategy, as the students' comments were sometimes differing or even contradictory. A key to resolve this matter is variety, which deserves more attention in L2 motivation research. Another advisable measure is to allow more student involvement in the selection and evaluation of L2 motivational strategies.

Appendix

Guide for Student Reflective Journals

Name: _____
Email: _____

1. **Instruction**

Below is a list of second language motivational strategies your English teacher has used in the last few weeks, according to his/her self-report. Please evaluate each of the strategies used. Some prompts are provided to guide your writing. You are free to include other content that is relevant. Write in total 200–300 English words.

Second language motivational strategies reported by your English teacher:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

1. Do you remember your teacher using these second language motivational strategies?
2. Were the strategies effective? How?
3. What did they motivate you to do?
4. Why did you think they were effective/ ineffective?
5. Can they be modified so that they are more effective? If so, how?

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Part III
On Linguistic Challenges in Various Socio-cultural Contexts

Challenges of Interdisciplinary University Programs of Studies: The Case of English in Public Communication

Katarzyna Molek-Kozakowska

Abstract The aim of this study is to track students' self-assessed successes and failures after taking courses in English in Public Communication (EPC) at the University of Opole. This interdisciplinary BA program combines philological, sociological and public communication courses. Using the data from 204 surveys, the study compares the calculated mean scores for the achievement of "new knowledge," "new skills" and "new social competences" within two groups of subjects: core curriculum courses and practical English courses as declared by the first- and second-year students of EPC. Results show that there are clearer self-recognized knowledge gains, but consistently lower degrees of confidence when it comes to new skills or new social competences. In addition, students have higher sense of success with respect to their English proficiency, while they do not seem to profit too much from some of the core curriculum subjects. The findings of the study are discussed in the context of the current constructivist and critical paradigms in tertiary education in Poland and indicate that, to face the challenges inherent in interdisciplinary programs, the dominant metaphor of "learning as acquisition" must give way to competence-based instruction that follows from the model of "learning as participation in a community of practice" or "learning as knowledge-building."

Keywords Interdisciplinary study programs · Self-assessment · Social competences · Metaphors for learning

1 Introduction

Responding to the growing demand for employable graduates, the Faculty of Philology at University of Opole in south-western Poland has recently opened an interdisciplinary program of studies bringing the humanities and social sciences

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together. In 2013 it recruited the first fifty international students to study *English in Public Communication* (EPC) at the BA level. The program offers a range of courses to achieve a proficiency in English, communication skills and cultural sensitivity. The challenge in the program's design lies in reducing the number of classical philological subjects and replacing them with more current knowledge of public communication conventions and (media) genres, as well as more practical writing and speaking skills. And yet, in their final semester, students should also submit an extended diploma paper, which, instead of literature or linguistics, is to be devoted to an aspect of mediated or public communication.

To open the program, the faculty undertook a series of consultations with stakeholders and followed the necessary regulations. For example, The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001, henceforth CEFRL), a comprehensive document providing the basis for curriculum guidelines and syllabi, was consulted to specify which types of general and ESP knowledge, academic and non-academic skills and abilities the EPC students have to acquire or develop to be able to use the English language for effective public communication, according to European regulations. To match the program with the Polish Ministry of Science and Higher Education's requirements, a matrix of specific "educational effects" was constructed. These include effects related to *knowledge* within the field of humanities/social studies, *skills* and *social competences*. Following this, all course descriptions were done in accordance with the rules of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) implemented at the university. The legal, academic and administrative challenges for such a program were compounded by the fact that the philological and social contents of EPC were to be balanced in the spirit of interdisciplinarity.

Except for a few optional variable courses, the whole program is to be taken in English, which means to assure that students, recruited with the proficiency of English at A2/B1 level, can progress to B2 (second year) and C1 (third year) level. To this end, approximately 45% of EPC courses are practical English classes devoted to developing listening and reading skills, oral communication skills, grammar, style and writing techniques, including academic writing in the final semester. Another 45% of the courses are devoted to core curriculum subjects that introduce students to theories of communication, media and cultural studies, legal and economic aspects of public communication, journalism scholarship, sociolinguistics and intercultural communication, rhetoric and persuasion, critical discourse analysis, or public communication genres. The remaining 10% are elective courses and foreign languages classes selected by students.

Acknowledging the challenges inherent in the experimental design of EPC, its coordinators have initiated an internal procedure of monitoring students' attitudes, needs and reactions to the contents of the program and its multiple administrative aspects. Apart from being provided with intensive tutoring and administrative assistance (especially important in the case of foreigners), EPC students have been periodically surveyed. This gave them the opportunities to freely express their suggestions and complaints, which helped the coordinators to make informed decisions on some didactic and administrative aspects of the program.

This chapter reports on a portion of the survey results that concern EPC students' perceived levels of goal attainment as regards the projected "educational effects" yielded by EPC courses they took, particularly with respect to (1) new knowledge, (2) new skills, and (3) new social competences gained. The aim of the study is to track students' self-assessed successes and failures in the achievement of goals within these three areas to be able to respond to the challenges resulting from the interdisciplinary design of the program. Using the data from 204 surveys, I compare the calculated mean scores within each area with each other and show the distribution of scores within two groups of subjects: practical English courses and core curriculum courses. Additionally, despite the unequal and limited number of surveys I undertake a statistical analysis of the survey results with respect to significance (t-statistics), correlations, and ranges of results to confirm the interpretations that emerged from the analysis of mean scores.

The results are to confirm if there are any self-recognized knowledge gains, and how they compare to students' self-assessment of new skills or new social competences. In addition, students might have a higher sense of success with respect to either their English proficiency or some of the core curriculum subjects. The report is followed by a discussion explaining the possible causes of some students' self-reported "failures" and the recommendation for possible remedies to be introduced. It is claimed that without a gradual reorganization of classroom dynamics and the teaching process (away from knowledge-driven instruction/testing derived from the dominant metaphor of "learning as acquisition" towards competence-based instruction that follows from the model of "learning as participation in a community of practice" or "learning as knowledge-building"), the students will continue to assess higher their knowledge gains and feel less confident about their skills and competences.

2 Tertiary Education: Constructivist and Critical Paradigms

The current organization of tertiary education is Poland is a result of an interaction among a few dominant pedagogical paradigms. A traditional "top down" approach to teaching, according to which expert knowledge is imparted on students by professors—practicing scholars, research supervisors and instructors—is gradually being displaced (in some progressive academic faculties) by constructivist pedagogies, according to which knowledge is not *received* by students at institutions of higher education, but rather *produced* in specific institutional circumstances (cf. Marlow & Page, 2005). It is often claimed that the civilizational advancements in technology, science and communication will soon render much of our present knowledge obsolete or largely inapplicable, so it is important to stop teaching "what" and start teaching "how." The availability of large pools of data and information via the World Wide Web brought the need to instruct students how to

cope with too much knowledge that is around and how to select and use it productively. Also, the risk-ridden circumstances of globalizing social arrangements (Beck, 1992; Giddens, 1991) require from students more critical reflection and constant learning skills rather than ready-made recipes for solving problems. Some elements of the critical paradigm that originated with Freire (1970, 1974) and were re-assessed by Stanley (1992) to comply with the post-modern era have been embraced by many educational policy papers. However, the implementation of the critical paradigm is harder than envisioned in a society, such as Poland's, that is still undergoing a significant transformation from a centrally driven to more autonomous educational system (Molek-Kozakowska, 2010, 2013, 2015).

The convergence of traditional, constructivist and critical pedagogies in Polish tertiary education is additionally put under pressure by new managerial policies that require university graduates to be qualified (not only educated) and thus employable. The postindustrial transformation and the growing service sector has required students—future workers—to be flexible in an increasing number of non-routine and ill-defined roles and professions (Giddens, 1991). Thus, the concept of life-long learning (so useful for the neoliberal economy) was coined to "responsibilitize" people: to acknowledge as the educational norm the constant need for retraining, for being flexible and accommodating in learning of new skills and competences. As a result, in some university programs, knowledge-based education has been complemented by skills-based training that is much more practical and participatory and that leads to the students' gradual accommodation to the labour market. Such dual (academic and practical) programs, as well as other "interdisciplinary" solutions (e.g., EPC) have been offered as a way to confront the conflicting requirements of the transitory paradigms at Opole University as well.

When it comes to curricula and classroom practice, constructivist and critical pedagogies (Giroux, 1988; Giroux & Freire, 1987) stress the active role of the students in arriving at their understanding of the subjects of cognition, the social world included. These pedagogies have sought to shift the dominant teacher-centered classroom model to enable students' autonomy in reflecting upon and cognizing the reality. The role of the teacher has changed from a knowledge-provider to a facilitator, and the modes of memorization and recitation have been largely discredited. According to education methodologists, problem-solving, task-based activities, skill development and critical assessment were to enter the routine practice of the classroom (cf. Fairclough, 1992; Kanpol, 1994). Students' various learning styles and individual differences were acknowledged and humanistic teaching methods were combined with professional training (Marlowe & Page, 2005; Moskowitz, 1978). Most of them were eagerly embraced by language educators and practitioners in liberal arts, who, additionally integrated intercultural communicative competences and cultural identity concepts into their practice (Kurtes & Kopytowska, 2014). All these issues converge when the notion of *competence* is to be made applicable in actual pedagogical practice at the tertiary level.

3 The Notion of Competence: From Cognitive to Social Competences

According to CEFRL (2001, pp. 1–9), "competences are the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions." The document elaborates on the notion of competence by introducing the term *general competences* that can be described as "those not specific to language, but which are called upon for actions of all kinds, including language activities" and by distinguishing the following ingredients of general competences: declarative knowledge (savoir), (intercultural) skills (savoir-faire) and existential competence (savoir-être), as well as the general ability to learn (savoir apprendre). According to CEFRL, *knowledge*, as one of the key and perhaps the most complex general competences, is accumulated as a result of the learners' day-to-day experience of the world (empirical knowledge), as well as their formal learning activities (academic knowledge). More specifically, *empirical* knowledge, encompassing both universal concepts commonly known and shared by humankind, as well as culture-specific values and norms, characteristic of individual communities, groups, societies, etc., is an essential element in intercultural communicative events and an instrument in managing interactions in a foreign language.

The appreciation for empirical knowledge transcends the EPC curriculum, which is focused on authentic instances of English used in natural communicative situations, including those typical of the public contexts (media, political, academic, administrative). As mentioned above, the international profile of the program, as well as its displacement of classical philological subjects (e.g., literary studies and historical/descriptive linguistics), results in a relatively practical contents and empirical knowledge being spotlighted, as well as everyday communicative needs being foregrounded in the course of the classes. When it comes to academic knowledge, its importance becomes immediately obvious when using the language for professional and subject-specific purposes, projects, presentations, tests and reports, which have their part to play in the core curriculum of subjects offered to EPC students.

The CEFRL documentation further specifies a taxonomic list of thematically interrelated units "to handle the great complexity of human language by breaking language competence down into separate components." For example, communicative language competences, "empower the individual to act using specifically linguistic means" (2001, pp. 10–11). Communicative language competence is a notion comprising three main components: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic, each of which involves an integration of a range of skills, knowledge and abilities. They are instrumental in the performance of all language activities, such as reception, production, interaction and mediation (CEFRL, 2001, pp. 10–11). Kurtes and Kopytowska (2014) further discuss the implications of sociolinguistic and pragmatic components of communicative language competence stressing the role of "socio-cultural," "discursive," and "identity" factors in the development of sufficient levels of productive competences in various social contexts. In addition, in Molek-Kozakowska (2013, 2015) attention is paid to how to enhance the levels of

"reflectivity" or "criticality" when it comes to students' academic performance. These approaches attempt to approximate in practice what many educational theorists, regulators and administrators postulate in theory. The main problem, however, remains: how to accurately operationalize *social competences* and incorporate them more rigorously into curriculum design and teaching practice.

To try to overcome this problem, it might be useful to refer to the psychological literature on younger students' social competences as operationalized and assessed by educationalists that aim to prevent school failure. For them the umbrella term *social competences* may in fact include a range of cognitive, psychological, emotional, interpersonal and social abilities and skills that Moore, Lippman and Ryberg (2015) list as important predictors of young people's future academic and life success. They argue that in a life-long model of education (in the American context at least), school achievement (i.e., knowledge and qualifications) is not always an accurate predictor of success if students' social competences are not taken into consideration to give a fuller picture. The following is an excerpt and adaptation of Moore et al.'s (2015) grid of "non-academic" competences that, for me, apply to university students. It is possible to categorize them into four groups: cognitive, motivational, emotional/moral and social:

Cognitive competences:

Analysis, evaluative, and critical thinking,

Curiosity

Educational engagement (attentiveness, academic self-concept)

Executive functioning

Interactive use of technology

Lifelong learning skills

Motivational competences

Agency, control

Creativity

Goal setting, expectations, purpose, optimism, hope

Persistence, grit, tenacity, diligence, and reliability

Self-management (autonomy, self-regulation, self-efficacy)

Emotional/moral competences:

Bouncing back from challenges

Ethical standards, honesty, integrity

Externalizing strategies (anger, frustration)

Internalizing strategies (depressed, anxious)

Table 1 Survey questions analyzed in this study

The course gave me new knowledge (as specified in its syllabus), e.g., English vocabulary, information
The course gave me new skills (as specified in its syllabus), e.g., language skills, critical thinking, independent self-study
The course gave me new social competencies (as specified in its syllabus), e.g., team work, intercultural awareness

Life satisfaction

Social competences

Cooperation

Cross-cultural competence

Solving interpersonal problems (adapted from Moore et al., 2015, pp. 2–3)

Interestingly, it can be noticed that a student's skillful management of many social competences listed above goes hand in hand with their effective communication skills. It is apparent that in the case of a successful student (one entering a university) many social competences should have been developed much earlier. It could be concluded that university courses could only hone or perfect many of such competencies by providing opportunities for self-development, by offering stimulating and challenging contents, and by managing classrooms dynamics in such a way as to enable various dimensions of social interaction to occur.

4 Measuring EPC Students' Successes and Failures: Design of the Study

4.1 Method

As mentioned in the introduction, EPC students' reactions and needs are periodically surveyed. In this project, the data were excepted from 204 surveys[1] to track students' self-assessed successes and failures as regards the achievement of three projected goals: new knowledge, skills and social competences. That is why I have analyzed students' responses only in three out of 14 questions of the whole survey (see Appendix 1), as indicated in Table 1.

The range or responses provided basing on an adaptation of Likert-scale was the following: not at all (0); rather not (1); don't know (2); rather yes (3); yes, a lot. Taking into account averages, this means that each course could theoretically score between 0 (no student admitting any educational gains—total failure), and 4 (all students admitting maximum educational gains—total success). I was able to use 120 surveys administered to first-year EPC students and 84 surveys filled in by

[1]I acknowledge the help of my student Paweł Ścigała in processing some of the survey data.

second-year EPC students in 2013 and 2014. For each year I also compared three courses that belong to core curriculum modules (A) and three courses devoted to developing practical English skills (B).

4.2 Results and Discussion

Tables 2 and 3 present the calculated mean scores for the two subgroups of students, first-year (EPC 1) and second-year (EPC 2) respectively.

Despite the differences in how students assessed the courses generally (from 1.0 to 3.7) and that most courses scored considerably above 2.0 (that is *some* success acquiring all the educational effects can be attested), the results reveal a pattern: there are clearer self-recognized knowledge gains (first column) and perceived improvements in English skills (second column) than there are in the case of new social competences (third column). The consistently (relatively) lower scores for social competences (in a given course) might testify to a lesser degree of students' confidence when it comes to the self-assessment of newly acquired social competences. However, these differences are not statistically significant (see Appendix 2), either as regards the two *groups of students* (EPC 1 and EPC 2) or as regards the two *groups of courses* (A and B). More surveys that could be better-tuned to verify or falsify this trend are hence needed.

Tables 4, 5, 6 and 7 show the results of a statistical analysis of correlations of scores in the three areas (new knowledge, new skills, new social competences) broken down into four groups EPC 1, EPC 2, courses A, courses B. The level of significance that was assumed is appropriate for social research ($p < 0.05$). There were cases of strong positive correlations in all groups, however statistically

Table 2 Mean scores of self-assessed educational gains by first-year EPC students according to course with respect to knowledge, skills and social competences

EPC 1 courses n = 120	New knowledge (range 0–4)	New skills (range 0–4)	New social competences (range 0–4)
Legal, economic and ethical aspects of public communication (A) n = 22	2.4	2.3	2.3
Social communication (A) n = 22	3.7	2.7	2.7
Communication theory and semiotics (A) n = 24	3.5	3.1	2.2
Listening and reading skills 1(B) n = 19	3.6	3.4	3.1
Oral communication skills 1(B) n = 17	2.6	3.0	2.5
Grammar and style (B) n = 16	1.8	1.7	1.3

Table 3 Mean scores of self-assessed educational gains by second-year EPC students according to course with respect to knowledge, skills and social competences

EPC 2 courses n = 84	New knowledge (range 0–4)	New skills (range 0–4)	New social competences (range 0–4)
Critical discourse analysis (A) n = 25	2.5	2.4	2.4
Journalism studies (A) n = 7	1.7	1.7	1.0
Rhetoric and persuasion: theory (A) n = 7	3	3.1	2.7
Listening and reading skills 3 (B) n = 24	3.6	3.4	3.1
Oral communication skills 3 (B) n = 24	2.5	3.1	2.5
Writing skills (B) n = 7	1.8	2.5	2.1

Table 4 Correlation analysis for the first-year EPC students

	New knowledge	New skills	New competences
New knowledge	1.00		
New skills	0.81	1.00	
New competences	0.78	*0.85*	1.00

Table 5 Correlation analysis for the second-year EPC students

	New knowledge	New skills	New competences
New knowledge	1.00		
New skills	*0.85*	1.00	
New competences	*0.87*	*0.94*	1.00

Table 6 Correlation analysis for the core curriculum courses

	New knowledge	New skills	New competences
New knowledge	1.00		
New skills	*0.85*	1.00	
New competences	0.75	0.77	1.00

Table 7 Correlation analysis for the practical English courses

	New knowledge	New skills	New competences
New knowledge	1.00		
New skills	*0.86*	1.00	
New competences	*0.91*	*0.98*	1.00

significant correlation (see italics in Tables 4, 5, 6 and 7) was established only in the case of EPC 2 and in the case of practical English courses (B).

For EPC 1 (see Table 4), there is one significant correlation between new skills a new competences ($p < 0.05$). It is strongly positive. Other correlations are also strongly positive, although not statistically significant.

For EPC 2 (see Table 5), there are three statistically significant correlations. In the second year courses new knowledge coincides both with new skills and with new competences.

For core curriculum courses (see Table 6), marked as group A courses above, for both EPC 1 and EPC 2, there is one statistically significant correlation. It is between new knowledge and new skills, which implies that if the specialist course gave students new knowledge, it was also likely to give them new skills.

For practical English courses (see Table 7), marked as group B above, for both EPC 1 and EPC 2, there are three statistically significant positive correlations. These are between new knowledge and new skills, between new knowledge and new competences, and between new skills and new competences.

This, together with the analysis of mean scores, provides evidence for a claim that students, especially in the second year, have a slightly higher sense of success with respect to their English proficiency (B), particularly listening and reading skills, while they do not seem to profit that much from some of the core curriculum subjects (A) that offer specialized academic knowledge on specific phenomena of public communication (e.g., Legal, economic and ethical aspects of public communication or Journalism studies). This merits further detailed qualitative analysis via interviews or focus groups.

Generally, not too many significant differences can be traced between both years and both types of courses when the effects of knowledge and skills are concerned. It is rather understandable, for example, that the newcomers (EPC 1) give higher estimates when it comes to their new knowledge effects, as they are introduced to wholly new subjects of study, while the second-year students (EPC 2) rely on the knowledge gained in the previous year and revise and systematize it in some of the specialist courses. It is also expected that practical English classes are more oriented towards productive and receptive communicative skills rather than any specific "new" knowledge, perhaps with the exception of advanced grammar and style practice based on overt instruction. However, what is less predictable is the levels of gains in social competences for EPC 1 and EPC 2. Thus I have tried to compare ranges of assessments when the third aspect—new social competences—is concerned. Figures 1 and 2 are intended to visually represent the differences in terms of years and groups of subjects.

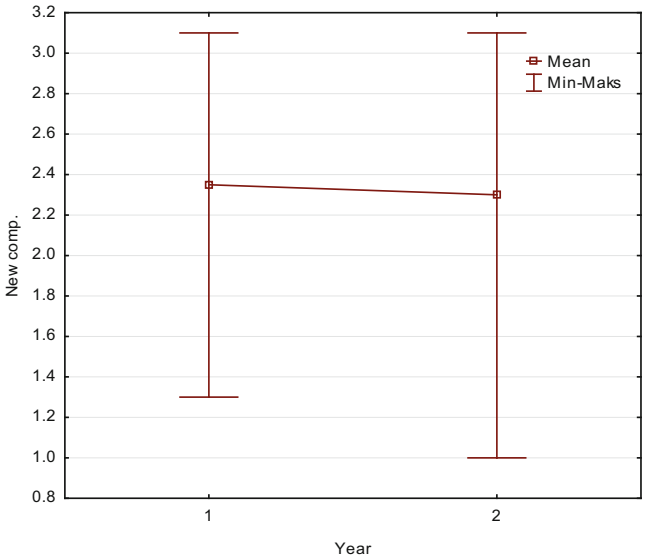

Fig. 1 The distribution of the results and means in the variable "new social competences" in EPC 1 and EPC 2

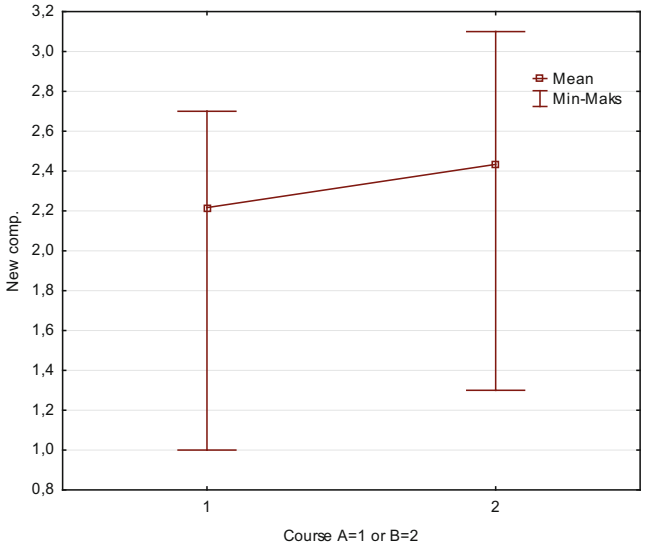

Fig. 2 The distribution of the results and means in the variable "new social competences" in courses A (core curriculum) and B (practical English)

According to Fig. 1, it seems that slightly fewer students in the second year see a gain in their social competences than in the case of the first year, when the students have to accommodate to new academic requirements or to new ways of functioning in the classroom community.

Figure 2 illustrates that the gains in new social competences are perceived as greater when students assess practical English courses. If we assume that such classes are less teacher-centered than specialist courses, we can explain the higher scores: in these courses students are likely to be co-operating in teams more often, solving tasks that require not only knowledge, but also more varied types of interaction and co-ordination, time management and intercultural sensitivity, especially when it comes to group-work and projects where international students are involved.

One explanation for the results presented above with respect to EPC students can be related to the insights from the pedagogical literature referred to above (cf. Moore et al., 2015). Namely, university students have already developed some of the necessary social competences earlier. They do not have to be explicitly instructed, for example, how to analyze information, use internet technology, manage their study-time effectively, set realistic goals and find determination to complete them, deal with frustration, act honestly and cooperate with (foreign) group-mates. Another explanation could be that most of introductory courses, especially in the first year, are constructed around the idea that students have little specialist knowledge at this point, and their primary need is to acquire as much new information on the subjects related to English in public communication as possible. It can be assumed that, with this assumption taken almost for granted, classroom practice in the first year tends to be mostly teacher-centered and focused on efficient knowledge transmission, exemplification and practice (mostly deductive), with rarer occasions for inductive reasoning and free production. Obviously, both explanations should be subjected to verification in the course of interviews or focus group discussions that could reveal both the students' and the instructors' ideas and motivations.

5 Some Recommendations: Three Metaphors for Learning

There are still some unaddressed aspects of the issue of how to more effectively integrate social competences into pedagogical practice, so that students can recognize that they are not treated as expandable containers for knowledge (which is bound to become obsolete anyway), but as individuals who are to gain sufficient skills and competences to be able to successfully confront the changeable job market and risk-laden social arrangements. One recommendation that can be made at this point is that of raising awareness of the dominant models of educational practice that both students and instructors operate within.

Table 8 The metaphorical mappings of acquisition and participation metaphors, adapted from Sfard (1998, p. 7)

	Acquisition metaphor	Participation metaphor
Goal of learning	Individual enrichment	Community building
Learning	Acquisition of something	Becoming a participant
Student	Recipient (consumer), (re-) constructor	Peripheral participant, apprentice
Teacher	Provider, facilitator, mediator	Expert participant, preserver of practice/discourse
Knowledge, concept	Property, possession, commodity	Aspect of practice/discourse/activity
Knowing	Having, possessing	Belonging, participating, communicating

According to Sfard (1998), there are two basic "metaphors for learning" that tend to be subconsciously subscribed to in formal education: the *acquisition metaphor* and the *participation metaphor*, which she characterizes in the following way (Table 8).

As Sfard (1998) notes, in the first case such terms as *knowledge acquisition* and *concept development* "make us think about the human mind as a container to be filled with certain materials and about the learner as becoming an owner of these materials" (p. 5). Such language prioritizes knowledge building over character shaping, factual over procedural knowledge, the *what* over the *how/why*. The second dominant metaphor or "folk theory" of learning, meant to displace the acquisition metaphor in progressive, humanistic or practice-based education, is the metaphor of "learning as participation". According to Sfard (1998), "in the image of learning" that emerges from this conception "the permanence of *having* gives way to the constant flux of *doing*" (p. 6). Within this perspective, learning is understood primarily as a process of becoming a member of a community of practice, which calls for such social competences as cooperation, symmetrical communication and sharing (rather than giving and receiving). It is a social view of education that can be traced back to Vygotsky (1978) who advocates context-embedded activities and social interaction with the surrounding culture as a starting point for the student's development. He also stresses the role of tools and signs used by communicators (expert community participants) that could be re-used for the purposes of learning. Under this view, student-centered, activity-based learning models emerged and were propagated in the late twentieth century.

The point here is not to advocate using either the acquisition or participation metaphor as the dominant schema for EPC classroom practice, but first for educators to become aware of the two conceptual frames, and then to see how using different approaches in various circumstances could facilitate a more balanced goal attainment when it comes to the educational effects within the area of social competences, which are far more likely to be developed (improved or perfected) in the classroom context when operating under the participation metaphor.

In addition, according to Paavola, Lipponen and Hakkarainen (2004), apart from the two above metaphors of learning, there is another possible model, namely the *knowledge-creation metaphor*. Although in their paper they focus on the epistemological foundations for learning, one could think how to apply this model to practical conditions of EPC as well. Indeed, the model of knowledge-creation is increasingly important in tertiary education, when knowledge should not only be replicated, but also built anew in new circumstances (cf. the tenets of the constructivist paradigm outlined above). To foster creativity and problem solving attitudes among EPC students, a classroom environment for "dynamic processes for transforming prevailing knowledge and practices" (2004, p. 557) should also be made available.

Thus, besides learning as knowledge acquisition (typical for example in EPC's introductory core curriculum courses), and participation in a social community of professional communicators (prevailing in skill-oriented practical English classes and advanced core curriculum courses), one could see a merit in what the scholars advocate as "learning (and intelligent activity in general) as knowledge creation" (Paavola et al., 2004, p. 557), which could be an ideal metaphor in the case of seminar courses and tutorials devoted to specialized problems and individual diploma projects. Strategies for knowledge creation as practiced in the classroom can then be internalized by students and later adapted in the work context, which is especially important in any knowledge-intensive society.

Unfortunately, closer reviews of educational contexts (cf. Bereiter, 2002) conclude that classroom practices do not provide students with an opportunity to engage in intentional efforts of knowledge-building or knowledge advancement. In both instruction and assessment, students are expected to repeat well-established patterns and reproduce known knowledge structures. Despite that, the metaphor is still valuable: although EPC students usually are not in a position to create knowledge in a demanding sense, there should still be a variety of opportunities for them to approach extant knowledge critically, transform it in innovative ways, as well as to explain and renegotiate the issues they work with (cf. Fairclough, 1992, on some solutions for enhancing critical language awareness in academic contexts).

6 Conclusion

Educational success (as well as failure) is a critical issue in a modern knowledge-intensive economies. Academic success (measured as acquired knowledge and skills) is often assessed by educators because it is widely assumed to predict future professional success. Less research has been done with respect to how social competences, indispensable in the context of professional communicators' working requirements, can be effectively introduced into the curricula and classroom practice.

This study of student's evaluations of courses within the EPC program at the Faculty of Philology of the University of Opole suggests that educators seem to focus more on the students' acquisition of knowledge and skills within public

communication in English, and, subsequently, students tend to rank "new knowledge" and "new skills" higher when it comes to their self-perception of attained educational goals than when they are to rank "new social competences." When asked if courses provided them with opportunities to develop or improve social competences, students tend to be hesitant (*don't know*), or dismissive (*rather not*), and admit failures (*not at all*) in attaining these goals. If this can be attributed to the instructors' choice of the dominant "pedagogical metaphor" of acquisition rather than participation or knowledge-building still needs to be determined. It can be claimed, however, that without a gradual reorganization of the classroom dynamics and the teaching process (away from knowledge-driven instruction/testing towards competence-based learning) the students will continue to assess their knowledge gains as higher and feel less confident about their social competences. It can be assumed though that the more progressive epistemological conceptions and alternative pedagogical metaphors, such as the participation model or the knowledge building model, are more challenging to implement and will need time to be accepted in practice.[2]

Appendix 1. The EPC Quality Survey Questions

1.	The course proceeded according to its description in the syllabus
2.	The effort needed to complete it matched the number of ECTS points
3.	The course was organized regularly, time-effectively, according to schedule
4.	The course was organized using varied methods, activities, tasks, technologies
5.	In-class activities helped me to understand, learn, remember information
6.	Access to materials was adequate, I knew how to prepare
7.	Materials were sufficient in number, scope, level of difficulty
8.	Instructions were clear, I knew what to do
9.	Grading was fair and according to clear criteria
10.	Feedback was sufficient, I knew how to improve
11.	The course gave me new knowledge (as specified in its syllabus), e.g., English vocabulary, information
12.	The course gave me new skills (as specified in its syllabus), e.g., language skills, critical thinking, independent self-study
13.	The course gave me new social competencies (as specified in its syllabus),e.g., team work, intercultural awareness
14.	The UO teaching facilities were adequate (classroom arrangement, teaching aids, Internet access)

[2]On problems in accepting critical reflection as a classroom practice see, e.g., Molek-Kozakowska (2015).

Appendix 2. Analysis of Significance

There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores for new knowledge, skills and competences in EPC 1 and EPC 2.

	t statistics	Level of significance
New knowledge	0.96	0.36
New skills	0.00	1.00
New competences	0.13	0.89

There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores for new knowledge, skills and competences in courses A and B.

	t statistics	Level of significance
New knowledge	0.33	0.75
New skills	−0.86	0.40
New competences	−0.57	0.58

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Assessing SLLs with SpLDs: Challenges and Opportunities for Equity in Education

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Abstract 'Literacy', defined as the ability to read and write (Oxford Dictionaries. 'Literacy'. Retrieved 3/12/2016 from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/literacy), is closely connected to educational contexts and fundamental for the acquisition of knowledge. Literacy is not only the key to a successful school career, but it also has an impact on the individual's future in a literate society (Kucer, 2001). Literacy is equally important for second/foreign language learners (SLL) too. However, specific learning differences (SpLD) among children have been identified as frequent causes for the impediment of literacy development in FLL which creates many challenges for educators when teaching and, particularly, when assessing SpLD students. The paper summarizes current discussions and research findings in the field of language assessment for SLLs with SpLDs, and identifies key stakeholders who are closely connected to successful assessment. The paper also identifies issues in external and classroom-based assessment that are in need of attention. Finally, a prospect of future research areas is provided for the improvement of assessment of SLLs with SpLDs.

Keywords Special learning differences · English language · High-stakes tests · Classroom-based assessment · Stakeholders

1 Introduction

One of the recent trends in the field of education is that the population of students is becoming increasingly diverse, both culturally and linguistically. Moreover, the numbers of children diagnosed with *Specific Learning Differences* (SpLD), e.g.,

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dyslexia, specific language impairment, attention deficits, as well as those with other disabilities, e.g., visual, hearing or physical impairments, are steadily growing, as is the number of students enrolled in special education. This situation, combined with greater awareness of individual human rights, has led to an increased demand for appropriate testing and assessment provision. This is of particular concern to second or foreign language test providers (Taylor, 2012) and teachers (Kormos & Smith, 2012), who are very often faced with the challenge of having to offer special arrangements (accommodations) to *second language learners* (SLLs) with difficulties.

Within this framework, the present chapter seeks to discuss the ethical, research and practical considerations involved in SLLs with difficulties. More specifically, this paper explores research findings that identify the special needs of SLLs with SpLD and other disabilities, and evaluates the effectiveness of accommodation practices employed. The chapter presents studies of both high-stakes tests and classroom-based assessments related to the SLLs with SpLDs by professionals and researchers working in the area of second/foreign language testing and assessment.

2 High-Stakes Standardized Language Tests

The development towards inclusive societies has been reflected in the field of language assessment research over the last decades. This was dictated primarily by ethics in the field, which have gained high interest (Taylor & Nordby Chen, 2016). As a result, language testing specific codes and guidelines have been introduced to guide the process of test development e.g., ALTE Code of Practice (1994), the ILTA Code of Ethics (2000), and the EALTA Guidelines for Good Practice (2006). The aim was to ensure "(…) test washback onto the learning curriculum and classroom practice (…)" (Taylor & Nordby Chen, 2016, p. 381) to be positive and beneficial. As a consequence, test developers have taken on social and ethical responsibility by introducing policies for accommodations suitable for SLLs with SpLD. Accommodations for this group of learners have been introduced to support foreign language learning and to establish equity in educational contexts (Taylor & Nordby Chen, 2016). Generally speaking, the aim of accommodations is to "minimise the impact of those test taker attributes that are irrelevant to the construct being measured" (Taylor & Nordby Chen, 2016, p. 378). Even though the term accommodation is often related to modification, these terms are now conceived as changes resulting in different impact on the assessment process. Fleurquin (2008) describes accommodations as tools and procedures that provide equity in the assessment for SLLs with SpLD. Modifications are changes in the test construct or the administration of the test. The concepts of accommodation and modification provide a sufficient, comprehensible and feasible approach when assessing SLLs with SpLD. Arras, Mueller-Karabil, and Zimmermann (2013) also stress that linguistic changes refer to simplification of language in the test, or changes in content which "have an impact on difficulty" (ibid, p. 276). These terms have a strong impact on decisions about changes in standardised tests (see also Li &

Suen, 2012; Schissel, 2010; Thurlow, Thompson, & Lazarus, 2006). Test modifications qualify as alteration in the construct being tested and are likely to put test validity under threat. Abedi (2010), AERA/APA/NCME (1999), Fulcher and Davidson (2007) and Taylor (2012) also provide helpful discussion of the ethics, principles and practice of accommodations in relation to both tests of content knowledge and tests of language proficiency.

In a historical review of test development for test takers with disabilities, Taylor and Khalifa (2013) note that in the early 1990s, test developers modified a test upon request. An overview of accommodations frequently used in high-stakes standardised tests in the United States is presented in Taylor and Nordby Chen (2016, p. 383). These accommodations have now become well-established practice, and are the first step towards beneficial support for SLLs with SpLD in various high-stakes exams, e.g., university entrance examinations (e.g., Georgakis & Hatzidakis, 2016; Tripolitakis, 2016) (Table 1).

These days a "more systematic policy of pre-modified tests" (Taylor & Khalifa, 2013, p. 239) is in place, which can be provided whenever applied for. Test developers, now, have gained substantial experience in test design; tests are available when needed, and applicable for larger groups of test takers. Thus, experience in test design seems to be an important key in the selection of appropriate accommodations and the actual modification of a test.

It is only in recent years that specific learning differences and perceptual and physical impairments have been focused on, and volume-length publications have been published (e.g., Kormos & Kontra, 2008; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Martin, 2009). However, Taylor and Khalifa (2013) highlight that there have been only a small number of research projects undertaken in the field of assessment of SLLs with SpLDs and that assessment decisions for high-stakes tests are not yet supported and validated by empirical research findings. Explanations for this apparent gap are "significant ethical, logistical and measurement challenges" in this field (ibid., p. 231). The authors explicitly express the need and suggestions for more empirical research.

Nevertheless, in the available research, studies of accommodation policy in high-stake tests for SLLs with SpLDs provide important information about the ways the rights of test takers are safeguarded. For example, Banerjee, Nordby Chen, and Dobson (2013) present a case study of the process by which *CaMLA*, a large-scale English language test provider, prepares modified test forms for test takers with special needs. The authors consider the production of Braille versions of two high-stakes language tests, and addresses the challenges of providing test takers with modified test forms to appropriately accommodate their difficulties.[1] However,

[1]For examples of accommodations that other English language exam providers undertake see:
Educational Testing System https://www.ets.org/disabilities/
Cambridge English Language Assessment http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/help/
Trinity College London http://www.trinitycollege.com/site/?id=9
Pearson Tests of English http://pearsonpte.com/faqs/
National Foreign Language Exam System (Greece) http://rcel.enl.uoa.gr/kpg/en_index.htm.

Table 1 Categories of special needs and typical accommodations

For test takers with	Presentation: text	Presentation: audio	Response conventions	Timing and scheduling	Setting
Visual impairments	• Large print • Colored paper • Magnifier		• Amanuensis or scribe • Enlarged score sheets	• Extended response time	• Larger desk surface • Special lighting
	• Braille • Graphics adapted to text • Reader • Screen reader		• Amanuensis • Keyboard (braille or other)	• Extended response time • Additional breaks	• Larger desk surface
Hearing impairments		• Amplification • Headphones • Face-to-face • Video mediated • Sign language interpreter for instructions	• Adjusted paired-speaking test format	• Extended response time • Additional breaks	• Seating near audio source
Learning difficulties (dyslexia; dysorthogra-phia; ADHD)	• Colored test books or overlays • Text marking device, such as a ruler		• Keyboard • Scribe	• Extended response time • Additional breaks	• Seating away from distraction
Physical challenges (paralysis; diabetes; broken arms)			• Amanuensis or scribe • Keyboard	• Extended response time • Additional breaks	• Special seating or furniture

Adapted from Taylor and Nordby Chen (2016, pp. 383–384)

the authors are also concerned with the validity of such modifications in "that the language construct measured by the test remains unaltered and that the interpretation of the test score is the same whether the test is delivered in the standard format or in a modified format" (ibid, p. 253).

Arras et al. (2013) also address accommodation practices used in the *Test of German as a Foreign Language* (TestDaF)[2] for blind test takers and discuss issues of validity and fairness of the test. The test incorporates generally accepted accommodations such as extended time and the provision of a separate room for the duration of the test. For the sake of equity of all test takers, the same marking principles are in place for learners with and without disabilities in the test. However, the authors object to the use of this modification as alteration in the construct being tested, as this is likely to put test validity under threat (see also Haug, 2012).

Finally, Taylor and Khalifa (2013) report on an impact-focused case study they conducted with four groups of stakeholders involved in accommodated tests: test takers, writers, administrators, and raters of one particular English language exam provider (*Cambridge English Language Assessment,* formerly known as *University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations*, or *Cambridge ESOL*). Through the voices of stakeholders directly involved in the assessment process, the study revealed a number of recurring themes, including the extent and nature of special arrangements information provided to stakeholders; the importance of sustained and comprehensive training; the complex logistics of implementation; the challenge of achieving a consistent and professional approach; and possible avenues for future research. The study shows that successful test development is based on, and supported by, the collaboration between influential stakeholders in the area of test development. Current issues which need to be resolved are the need for "sustained and comprehensive training" and "targeted guidance for assessing test takers with specific learning difficulties" (ibid., pp. 246–247). These examples indicate that equity in education is not solely a key aspect for the actual teaching at school, but it needs to be reflected in the development and implementation of formal regulations facilitated by examination boards, Ministries of Education and related authorities. Furthermore, research in the field is required to support practitioners with appropriate and feasible solutions.

Motivated by Khalifa and Weir (2009) who stress that the focus in assessment has shifted from a focus on the test instruments towards the test taker and his specific requirements in a test, Taylor and Nordby Chen (2016) also confirm that the test taker has become the "starting point" in the process of "test development and validation activity" (ibid, p. 382). The authors suggest the necessary exploration of a test taker's characteristics as a prerequisite to be able to develop adequate tests. The authors also refer to the fact that the use of accommodations and modifications in a specific test needs to be justified and withstand claims with regard to appropriateness. Khalifa and Weir emphasize the fact that a test and its results can be deemed appropriate if it reflects the test taker's specific requirements.

[2]See TestDaF http://www.goethe.de/lrn/prj/pba/bes/tdf/vor/enindex.htm.

For this purpose, the test taker's characteristics "need to be well described, understood and accounted for" (ibid, p. 382).

The above literature indicates that research in high-stake tests and SLLs with SpLDs is now incorporated in respective institutions. However a significant issue is how fairness in the assessment of the second-language competence of SLLs with SpLDs can be ensured. Also the needs of SLLs with SpLDs especially in the case of high-stakes exams, such as university admissions and job recruitment procedures, serve as gatekeepers. Even though the results of such assessment procedures affect the lives of so many students in Europe (Georgakis & Hatzidakis, 2016; Skoundi, 2016; Tripolitakis, 2016; Tsagari, 2016) and elsewhere, unfortunately, insufficient consideration has been given to such assessment contexts and little research has been conducted so far.

3 Classroom-Based Assessment

While the importance of validated high-stakes tests of learning differences is unquestionable, the assessment of learning differences for internally-set or classroom-based assessment procedures, such as progression to another grade or to the next stage of education, is equally important with serious consequences for learners. However, teachers face various assessment challenges, e.g., how to design language tests or grade the performance of SLLs with SpLDs or how to provide adequate accommodations given the complex nature of assessment accommodations and their consequences on test validity.

In terms of research at the school-based level, Erbeli and Pižorn (2013) examined the latent structures of Slovene EFL students with *Specific Reading Differences* (SRDs) and students with no SRDs. Their findings indicate that well-developed fluency and orthography skills in EFL are important for efficient EFL reading competence. The authors propose a range of assessment accommodations and modifications for the group of students with SRDs, e.g.,:

- Use more than one type of assessment.
- Maintain a close match between instructional and assessment accommodations.
- Ask students to produce short poetry presentations, dramatic performances, letter groups and words on lists for beginning readers.
- Assess students' fluency on the spot (every day) rather than at intervals (once a month).
- Modify the timing of assessment tasks: ask students with SRDs to show their effort at daily vocabulary quizzes.
- Allow students with SRDs to read only shorter texts with simplified written input, textual input enhancement, and glossing.
- When assessing grammar, students should be given exercises that support multi-sensory structured learning, such as modified grammatical exercises, including the use of drills.

- When assessing orthographic skills in class, assessment can include word searches, anagrams and peer proofreading. If spelling problems nevertheless remain, assessment modifications could include disregarding spelling errors, using mnemonic aids for spelling, or using spellcheckers.

Kormos and Smith (2012) also make similar suggestions for classroom-based assessment. In the same vein, Smith (2013) also considers the complexity of providing appropriate exam arrangements to SLLs in linguistically "super-diverse" communities. The author describes the process of developing and trialing task design, and considers practical constraints when assessing SLLs in contexts where resources and funding are limited.

In the available research studies in higher education, Brannen and Kozlowska (2013) address issues related to students with hearing and visual impairments; their aim is to increase awareness and help teachers adapt to the emerging L2 teaching context in ESL courses at the *Université du Québec à Montréal (UQAM)*. The study identifies common as well as divergent accommodations needed for SLLs with such impairments, examines current legislation and recommendations within the UQAM protocol, and suggests how they need to be adapted to the L2 context.

D'Este and Ludbrook (2013) also examine issues of validity arising from the assessment of the English language proficiency of students with SpLDs in the Italian university system. Their research focuses on a case study to describe measures that have been developed and adopted to allow dyslexic students at Venice University access to the CEFR B1 level English entrance test. The authors illustrate the different phases of the test administration to a student with severe SpLDs by pointing to all the difficulties involved. In light of this experience, the researchers discuss the issues of fairness and validity that emerge, and how these issues have been addressed.

It is evident so far that assessing students with SpLDs in multilingual and multicultural contexts is a very complex process, and one which needs to be handled very sensitively. There are many variables that need to be considered, and it is hard to ensure that the balance between reliability and validity is managed effectively. As children with SpLDs require a specific approach to foreign language learning (Kormos & Smith, 2012), adequate knowledge and training for effective instruction is a pre-requisite for teachers to promote literacy attainment for respective learners. This emphasizes the important role of supportive learning environments in schools and the effective training of teachers. However, pre-service and in-service teacher training of teachers in education is still not adequate. For example, Vellutino, Fletcher, and Snowling (2004) in their study about reading difficulties in native language experienced by children with dyslexia, stress that challenges in reading development do not solely arise from the fact that these children have dyslexia, but stems from inadequate instruction at school. The authors postulate the need of effective educational programs and training for language teachers to become experts in the field of reading strategies to provide their learners with dyslexia efficient and sustainable support.

In the area of second/foreign language learning, the situation is similar. Studies by Lemperou, Chostelidou, and Griva (2011) and Rontou (2012), show that many

teachers are not adequately trained, or lack the know-how in assessing SLLs with SpLDs. According to Gustavsson (2013), whose study investigated the practices of Swedish English language teachers in assessing learners with dyslexia, participating teachers were not able to carry out adequate assessment which adhered to the needs of their learners with dyslexia. The teachers used accommodations for their learners with dyslexia during instruction. Examples of accommodations used are adaption of reading comprehension tasks, extension of time, the use of various technical aids, or the provision of texts differing in length and style. The teachers, however, perceived assessment of learners as very difficult and they were "sometimes experiencing an uncertainty on how to approach the issue" (ibid., p. 25). This has also been shown in the research carried out by Nijakowska (2014), who found that pre- and in-service English language teachers display an apparent lack of enthusiasm and relative reluctance to incorporate research-based assessment methods and instruments into their teaching, and that teacher training is not yet regularly offered or easily accessible. Teachers, however, stated a clear and strong need for and eagerness in learning more about learners with SpLDs, e.g., dyslexia, and receiving training which is tailor-made for their specific classroom purposes (Nijakowska, 2014, pp. 147–149). This shows that teachers, by all means, are willing to take on the task to accommodate learners with dyslexia in their classrooms for teaching and assessment purposes. Nijakowska also underlines the responsibility authorities hold to implement training opportunities for pre-service and in-service teachers (ibid.).

Loumbourdi and Kracic (2013) confirm the same results. Their study is based on teacher trainees' interviews at the beginning and end of their studies exploring their knowledge of issues related to dyslexia and at-risk students in the EFL classroom, as well as their familiarity with various methods of assessment. The results showed that teachers close to the end of their studies expressed an inability to appropriately evaluate dyslexic and at-risk students in English; they also lacked adequate knowledge on how to choose assessment tasks and organise an evaluation system that would allow them to keep the balance among students of all levels in the same class. Finally, they believe that they would have to do research themselves and invest a lot of their personal time in order to feel more prepared to assess dyslexic and at-risk students. However, they would still be unsure as to what will be the final assessment criteria that would determine students' success in the classroom, or even university entrance. Another concern is whether or not the final assessment criteria should be the same with the rest of the students (ibid, pp. 145–146).

The constant rise of the number of children with SpLDs in mainstream education has changed educational requirements in the foreign language classroom (Taylor & Khalifa, 2013, pp. 229–230). Even though second/foreign language teachers play a crucial role, the access to adequate foreign language learning for SLLs with SpLDs requires the contribution of important stakeholders such as educational psychologists, authorities and researchers towards the implementation of appropriate measures. These stakeholders are ultimately connected to the field of education and disabilities, and have a strong impact on the successful work of an EFL teacher.

Additional factors need to be considered in offering equitable assessment of the performance of SLLs with SpLDs. A study carried out by Rontou (2012) found that diagnosis carried out by psychologists, and policies by the Ministries of Education can strongly influence teachers and schools' administration scope. Actually, psychologists, authorities and researchers are important stakeholders that serve as a foundation for the facilitation of children's assessment at various stages. These stakeholders provide schools and teachers with the necessary tools to maintain equity in education. Schools are also experiencing challenges in the execution of formal regulations (Rontou, 2012). Her investigations in the area of obstacles Greek EFL teachers experienced in the implementation of differentiated teaching and assessment showed that EFL teachers faced difficulties due to the "lack of clear guidelines on the examination process in EFL" (ibid., p. 100) even though they were interested in the application of accommodations e.g., oral examination in the place of a written exam. Research on best practices and causes of these challenges could contribute to the effective execution of regulations for schools.

The identification of key stakeholders and their influential role in the assessment of SLLs with SpLD are important considerations in the field of language testing and assessment. Language teachers of various school types often perceive themselves as being unprepared for professional assessment of their learners with dyslexia. Insufficient training in the nature of dyslexia and the actual teaching of these learners feeds into challenges in the development and administration of tests and other types of assessment in class. Diagnostic reports by educational psychologists often provide little or incomprehensive implications for educational staff. Formal regulations by authorities are challenging due to unclear guidelines, policies, and accommodations that cannot be considered during the assessment process.

Figure 1 presents on overview of key factors of the assessment of SLLs with SpLDs which present possible challenges for successful and sustainable assessment. These challenges may result from possibly insufficient collaboration between the key factors. Moreover, the illustration demonstrates that currently challenges

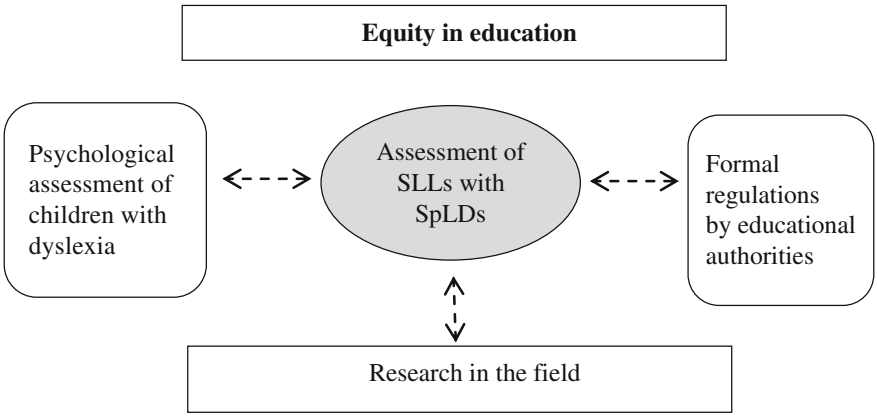

Fig. 1 Identification of key factors in the assessment of SLLs with SpLDs

between schools and *all key factors* arise. As a result, equity in education will be facilitated only to a limited extent.

4 Future Directions in the Field of Assessment of SLLs with SpLDs

The aim of this chapter was to review current research results, and to identify areas in need of research with regard to assessment for SLLs with SpLDs. The paper introduced key stakeholders that are influential on this group of learners, and investigated recurring obstacles in the area of assessment for SLLs with SpLDs. These obstacles seem to arise from insufficient collaboration among the key stakeholders, such as educational psychologists, educational authorities and researchers in the field. Glenny and Roaf (2008) highlight that research very often focuses only on one aspect of interaction between parties engaged in educational systems. Collaboration, however, is a prerequisite to implement a successful approach towards teaching and, thus, assessment of EFL learners with dyslexia. Hence, future research needs to broaden its scope to explore areas in need, causes of obstacles, outline solution strategies and identify the parties that need to be involved in respective assessment areas and stages.

The following suggestions are the result of reflection on current issues in the field of assessment of EFL learners with dyslexia. They may not be exhaustive, but they are indicative of several points for future research.

Research in the field feeds into the establishment of beneficial teaching and assessment practices for SLLs with SpLDs. The successful implementation of accommodations in high-stakes tests will provide valuable information for educational authorities in relation to test development at schools. Further empirical research is required to evaluate general assessment practices in schools and high-stake tests, to provide "targeted guidance" as stated by Taylor and Khalifa (2013, p. 247) for language teachers in test development and evaluation, and the impact of pre-service and in-service.

Furthermore, other than overcoming the various practicalities involved in meeting the assessment needs of this special group of SLLs, much more research is needed to provide the basis of clearer definitions, classifications and identification of SpLDs and other disabilities in the SLL population that expands on our current classification systems. Future researchers should replicate SpLD studies that have been conducted among monolingual students. Data from both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies should be used in order to develop a classification system that can provide developmental language and cognitive benchmarks and simplify the identification procedures of SpLD children. It is also important to develop identification strategies that can improve understanding of comorbid conditions such as attention deficits and intellectual disabilities.

Furthermore, assessment tools should be developed in order to accurately and validly measure student behaviors and interactions in the contexts of school, community, and home, and help teachers identify language, literacy, and academic competencies in SLLs with SpLDs. In tandem with designing appropriate accommodations for standardized accountability assessments, research should also provide empirical evidence that assessment practices for SLLs with learning and other disabilities are appropriate and work well (Abedi, Hofstetter, & Carol, 2004). Taylor and Norby Chen (2016) also suggest that research needs to be conducted on the effects of accommodations on the underlying construct being assessed, on the role of assistive technology in testing accommodations, in the interpretation of scores resulting from accommodated tests and in designing accurate and valid measures of SLLs with SpLDs. Finally, Kormos (2013) adds that research in the assessment of learning differences needs to take into account cognitive, behavioural and educational aspects, and present a comprehensive description of the nature of the difficulties a learner might experience. Evidence gained from studies that compare the performance of students with special needs to the performance of those who have not been identified as requiring assistance is indispensable for making decisions in high-stakes assessment situations. However, the field would also benefit from more qualitative research in students' test-preparation and test-taking experiences and strategies. Research that aims to present students' and other stakeholders' perspectives, and which adopts an insider's perspective, needs also to be conducted.

Additionally, investigations on the implementation and impact of the use of Action Research methods (Burns, 2009; Afantiti Lamprianou, Karagiorgi, Alexandrou, Karamanou, & Symeou, 2015) in classroom-based assessment for SLLs with SpLD will contribute to the enhancement of assessment literacy of teachers, and support research in the field.

Policies and guidelines by authorities need to reflect current research results to ensure equity in education and to implement feasible and comprehensible guidelines for schools. It is apparent that current guidelines and regulations are unclear und thus not feasible. Research in this area needs to explore the extent to which assessment policies and regulations for classroom-based assessment of EFL students with dyslexia refer to (current) key research findings and promote equity in education at the same time. Also, research needs to explore the comprehensibility and feasibility of policies and regulations for EFL teachers and school administration regarding the assessment of students with dyslexia, and the extent to which such policies and regulations support or hinder EFL teachers and school administration in the execution of classroom-based assessment.

Diagnostic reports provide essential information for schools; however, they may pose difficulties as they make little or unclear inferences towards teaching needs, or they may not be available for school teachers. Research should be carried out with regard to specific conditions that are necessary to promote collaboration between an educational advisor, psychologists, a given school and the authorities to enhance the process of adequate EFL instruction and assessment.

5 Conclusion

Equity in education is one of the prime goals schools strive to achieve for all their learners. At the same time, it needs to be the *foundation* for teaching and for the school environment to allow for every child to be taught according to her/his specific requirements. The key stakeholders introduced in this paper hold ethical and social responsibility to set the foundation for equitable assessment of learners with dyslexia. This paper shows important achievements in the field of high-stakes tests. Test developers and administrators strive for fairness in test taking with the test takers and their specific needs as the focus point. This concurs with the aim towards a different feedback culture in education: achievements of students are celebrated, areas of improvement are identified and support for further development is provided and combined with the endeavour to overcome the focus on areas of failure.

This paper also describes where need areas and gaps are located that impede teachers and schools in their work. Teachers require professional training and feasible tools to be able to deliver adequate and successful instruction and assessment for learners with dyslexia. At the same time, teachers should be supported in the development of a professional self-conception which incorporates an interest in research in their field and the application in their teaching. The current situation provokes questions for future research. Suggestions are provided towards the use of Action Research as a tool which enables teachers to undertake autonomous research in their EFL classroom. Thus practitioners may contribute to their own professional growth and to the future development of research in this field.

Furthermore, the paper highlights the importance of literacy attainment and equity in education for each individual in our literate societies. Adequate and professional assessment is an essential part of literacy acquisition in EFL. Those EFL teachers who are sufficiently trained to meet the needs of students with dyslexia and are supported by the authorities, psychologists and research in the field will be able to take on the responsibility and make strong contributions towards the achievement of this goal.

Overall, this paper raises important questions and demonstrates the beginning of a new era of conscious epistemological traffic between various disciplines. The authors remain hopeful that this paper will contribute to recent discussions about the assessment of SLL with learning and other disabilities, and will offer a springboard for discussion that can help meet the assessment needs of these special groups of SLLs in our increasingly globalised, multicultural world.

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The Formation of a Modern Translation Competence in Translator Training

Larysa Mosiyevych

Abstract The chapter examines the new paradigm in the formation of translation competence—pragmatic competence within the political discourse. It analyses the pragmatic effects caused by specific translation solution; studies the processes by which information is transferred via translation to another culture; identifies the linguistic means of parainforming and metainforming in translation process. Pragmatic competence formation is closely connected with the linguistic competence skills, in order to precisely identify and select such lexical units as euphemisms and dysphemisms. The outcomes imply that in translation the political events are mainly euphemized, while the subjects of politics are dysphemized. Euphemisms may perform concealing and manipulative functions through the cognitive mechanism of abstraction. Euphemisms act as a tool for political participants to hide scandals, disguise the truth, and to guide public opinion when discussing social issues or events. Dysphemisms perform pejorative and discreditable functions through the cognitive mechanism of highlighting. Pragmatic competence formation reveals double pragmatic orientation. On the one hand, it is realized within inner lingual communication. On the other hand, translation is a concrete speech act that is pragmatically oriented to a certain recipient. Present linguistic research aims to point out textually where and in what ways source and target language political texts were not equivalent. The new concept of translation competence, based on the pragmatics, can help orient translator training in times of rapid technological, globalization, political changes.

Keywords Pragmatics · Pragmatics of translation · Pragmatic competence · Translation strategies

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1 Introduction

The object of the study is the translation process within the political discourse, namely within the verbalization of the Ukrainian-Russian conflict in mass media. The Ukrainian-Russian conflict is being examined within different dimensions but this is the first attempt to study its verbalization from the linguistic point of view.

The subject is the pragmatic competence formation in the Ukrainian-English (English-Ukrainian) translation. The empirical material is based on the both Ukrainian and English versions of the periodicals such as *The Day, The Guardian, BBC News,* etc. Political discourse has been described as "a complex form of human activity" (Chilton, 1997, p. 207), based on the recognition that politics cannot be conducted without language. It is generally acknowledged that the mass media plays an important role in disseminating politics and in mediating between politicians and the public, also in a critical sense (Ekström, 2001). Political discourse in the media is a complex phenomenon: it is institutional discourse, media discourse, mediated political discourse (Fetzer, 2007), and ideological discourse (Baker & Ellece 2011; Van Dijk, 2002, 2004).

Translation competence is defined as the knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation, it encompasses TL (target language) knowledge, text-type knowledge, SL (source language) knowledge, subject area knowledge, contrastive knowledge, and decoding and encoding process skills summarized as "communicative competence including grammar, sociolinguistics and discourse" (Bell, 1997, p. 43), "knowledge of two languages, world and field knowledge, translation theories and methods" (Kautz, 2002, p. 20), "the ability to produce an acceptable text" (Kiraly, 2000, p. 13), and "intralingual and interlingual translation" (Pym, 2003, p. 490). The pragmatic competence is "the ability to communicate your intended message with all its nuances in any socio-cultural context and to interpret the message of your interlocutor as it was intended" (Fraser, 2010, p. 1), and "knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts" (Barron, 2003, p. 10). Pragmatic competence formation is being developed within the communicative competence (the communicators' ability to make a speech contact with a partner, not to insult his feelings, to avoid the categorical—explicit—statements).

The comparative method is used for revealing the pragmatic correspondences in the Ukrainian and English languages. The results prove that the pragmatics of political discourse translation differs in both languages. The English texts are distinguished by a great number of euphemisms which create some false reality due to the effect of blurring, ambiguity. This fact should be taken into consideration in the new paradigm of translation competence formation.

2 Pragmatics and Speech Acts

Proceeding from the definitions, pragmatic competence is based on the knowledge of pragmatics and speech acts. Pragmatics studies how language is used to express a meaning or attitude that may not be obvious from the actual words (MacMillan, 2008, p. 1162). Baker (2001) defines pragmatics as a branch of linguistics devoted to the study of meaning as conveyed and manipulated by participants in a communicative situation. It follows that a pragmatic translation will convey both the connotative meaning and the interpersonal aspects of communication such as implicature, tone, register, etc. If an original text states a fact, instructs or apologizes for some kind of mischief, the translated passage is expected to perform the same actions in a manner similar to the original. The illocutionary function of the text determines text progression and defines its coherence. It also predetermines a certain sequence of speech acts (Searle & Vanderveken, 1985; Searle, 1992).

It is important to note that many speech acts are culture-specific. That is polite in one country can be impolite in another. The cross-cultural variation of speech acts can deal with responses, compliments, directness and indirectness, etc. The conversationalization of political discourse that has been found to hold for the Anglo-American context, may not necessarily be found in other cultural contexts, such as the German, Finnish or Swedish ones (Fetzer, 2007). For example, the same illocutionary functions are conveyed differently in English and Ukrainian. Compare the following: *Дідька лисого я погоджусь*! (a strong disagreement) versus *Agree my Aunt Fanny*! The Ukrainian affirmative sentence is rendered by an imperative sentence in English. Pragmatically speaking, the representative speech act in Ukrainian is translated into English with the help of a directive. Translators often have to deal with explicit and implicit meanings. They have to decide whether or to what extent the implied information needs to be made explicit in the target text.

Any speech act may challenge the speaker's image of himself, which turns communication into a face-threatening activity. The term *face* refers to a speaker's sense of linguistic and social identity. When a speaker enters into a social relationship, he is expected to acknowledge his public image, his sense of self—his *face*. When viewed from the standpoints of Brown and Levinson's theory, politeness becomes a redressive action a speaker has to perform in order to counter-balance the disruptive effect of face-threatening acts (FTA's). Every individual is protective of his self-image or *face*. At the same time, every speech event carries a potential threat to the speaker's sense of self. To avoid or limit the effects of those dangers, speakers employ specific linguistic strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Another constituent of our self-image is the so-called *positive face*—an inherent desire to be loved and appreciated by others. Everybody wants to be accepted and liked by others and to be treated as a member of the group. Regardless of the language or culture, speakers are expected to respect each others' expectations regarding self-image. It is only natural for people to guard their own face, both positive and negative. Yet Brown and Levinson (1987) also argue that when people

communicate with each other, both orally and in writing, they tend to maintain one another's face by trying not to infringe on the other communicants' private territory. Being considerate involves taking other people's feelings into account and avoiding face threatening acts (FTA's). When a FTA cannot be avoided, the speaker can redress the threat with negative politeness that respects the hearer's negative face or with positive politeness that appeals to the hearer's positive face. As seen above, although speech acts can be understood outside cultural boundaries, there is a certain degree of cultural difference that affects the process of translation.

3 Pragmatics of Translation

The realm of pragmatics is extremely important for translation. Major strides have been made in research into the pragmatics of translation displayed by successful scholars, such as Chesterman (1997), Kautz (2002) and Barron (2003). It describes translation in its relation to the author and the context of the text. Semantically equivalent messages are not necessarily pragmatically equivalent. In some cases the source text pragmatics does not coincide with the pragmatics of the target text.

Pragmatics of translation is a broad concept which covers not only pragmatic meaning of a word, but also problems connected with various levels of understanding, depending on linguistic or paralinguistic factors (Wiezhbitska, 1988). Pragmatics of translation is the influence on the result of the translation process when a translator reproduces the pragmatic potential of the source text and makes a similar communicative effect in the target text. The pragmatic potential of the source text is defined by the communicative intention of its author.

Special attention should be drawn to the analysis of hedges as specific devices which can increase or decrease the illocutionary force of the text. Another important issue to consider is the perlocutionary effect of the source text and the target text. The relevance of the intention/effect duality is highlighted by Chilton and Schaffner (2002). For instance, the Ukrainian-English translations of the Donbass terrorist attacks seem to operate in the interest of the target culture and they substitute the word *terrorist* or *separatist* for *rebel*. In the context of cross-cultural variation of speech acts the English language demonstrates a willingness to resist the rhetorical effects associated with terrorists, bombing, etc., and hence to challenge attempts by other speakers to construe particular propositions as entirely unproblematic and universally agreed upon. Any text can evoke certain actions, feelings or thoughts in the reader. Therefore, a translator needs to decide what changes he may have to make so that the target text will appeal to the reader in the same way as the source text.

Generally speaking, pragmatic theories approach translation through the prism of the original author's communicative intention. Pragmatic studies may help scholars to understand how a translated text interprets the original in relation to the contextual conditions and the effect it has on the reader. If we return to the question of whether there is something in an original text that is carried over in its translation, a pragmatist might suggest that something does indeed survive the process. At the

very least, what is potentially done by the original text is retained in the target text, since the translation has the same capability. We say 'at the very least' because if an original text informs, entertains, demands payment or apologizes for some mistake, the translation is expected not only to perform the same actions, but to do it in a manner similar to the original. The pragmatics trend in linguistic studies covers the following issues:

1. Speech Acts and Illocutionary Function in Translation Methodology: Speech Act Theory; the task of conveying the illocutionary function; modifications of the illocutionary force; cross-cultural differences of Speech Acts;
2. Political correctness: politically correct terminology; politeness and translation, non-sexist language;
3. Relevance Theory and Translation: the inferential nature of communication; the notion of the context; interpretive and descriptive use of language; translation as an interpretive use of language; text typologies as guides to relevance.

According to Chesterman (1997), pragmatic translation strategies involve selecting information in the target text, which is governed by the translator's knowledge of the prospective readership of the translation. These strategies are often the result of a translator's global decisions concerning the appropriate way to translate the text as a whole. Therefore, pragmatic strategies are message oriented. As a rule, they incorporate syntactic and semantic strategies. In Chesterman's approach, the following strategies are labeled as pragmatic:

- *Cultural filtering* may also be used to denote the process of adapting realia, or terms that are specific to the culture of the source language to the norms and expectations of the target language.
- *Change of explicitness*. Depending on the readers' knowledge, certain details need to be made either more explicit or more implicit. The terms *explicitation* and *implicitation* are sometimes recognized as separate translation strategies.
- *Change of information*. Depending on the situation, some new, non-inferrable information may have to be added to the target text. At the same time, the translator may have to omit superfluous, irrelevant information. *Addition* and *omission* are often recognized as separate translation strategies.
- *Interpersonal change*. This strategy deals with levels of formality. Sometimes the translator has to change a form of address in the target language or substitute a technical term with a more appropriate word.
- *Illocutionary change*. The logic of translation may make it necessary to replace a speech act in the source language with a different speech act.
- *Change of coherence*. The logical arrangement information of the target text may differ from that in the source text. The translator may have to resort to the strategies of *relocation*, or *dislocation* that deal with rearranging information at different levels.
- *Partial translation*. There are situations when the target text is only a summary of the information conveyed by the source text. The translator focuses on the gist rather than the details of the story.

- *Change of visibility*. The author of a story often makes himself visible to the readers through the use of footnotes or comments in brackets. However, the cultural norms of a target language may require a change in the ways the author's (translator's) presence is revealed in the text.
- *Other pragmatic changes*. The layout of the text may have to be modified due to a variety of reasons.

The consequences of pragmatic differences, unlike grammatical errors, are often interpreted on a social or personal level rather than a result of the language learning process. Without instruction, differences in pragmatics cause difficulties among learners regardless of their language proficiency. That is to say, a student of high grammatical or vocabulary proficiency might not necessarily show equivalent pragmatic skills. Translation problems dealing with the pragmatics of the text usually call for pragmatic strategies. So the students should be provided with opportunities to develop their pragmatic competence.

4 The Formation of Pragmatic Competence

Some scholars deny the perfect effectiveness of pragmatic competence formation (Kasper, 1997). They argue that since the deciding factor that underlies pragmatic ability is culture, and culture is a subconscious system, then it is difficult, not to say impossible, to make it teachable. They clearly state that when talking about the possibility of developing pragmatic competence in a second or foreign language, it is more appropriate to address the issue of how to arrange learning opportunities in such a way that they benefit the development of pragmatic competence.

In the present paper we emphasize the benefit of instruction in pragmatics because pragmatic competence is one of the vital components of communicative competence. The greater the distance between cultures, the greater the difference is in the realization of the pragmatic principles governing interpersonal interaction. And in these cases, more than others, instruction in pragmatics is necessary. To our mind the formation of pragmatic competence includes such aspects as translator's communicative intentions, the semantic representation of those intentions, the translation strategies.

4.1 Translator's Communicative Intentions

The pragmatic potential includes the following parameters of conveying information: *parainforming* (which is beyond the direct information: associative hints, latent senses) and *metainforming* (motivated lie, deceit) (Gackowski, 2011, p. 43). Parainforming is a degree of reduced information. It occurs when the informer's purpose is distorted by the receiver's resonant change. It often involves

purpose-driven manipulation of the audience. The informing quality of parainforming is even worse than misinforming. While misinforming may be not intentional and very often is caused by the conditions of the communication channel, parainforming is the intentional plan to communicate a wrong frame in the setting of different purposes of parties (Targowski, 2016, p. 22). The opposite of it is metainforming which may complement each information.

Among the translator's communicative intentions within the verbalization of the Ukrainian-Russian conflict we should stress the following ones:

- to manipulate: e.g., the Ukrainian word *скинення* (English s*ubversion*) can be translated in political discourse as *regime change* because it is more delicate;
- to veil the unwanted truth: e.g.,

> …Як відомо, 22 березня Донецький міський суд Ростовської області засудив українську льотчицю Надію Савченко до 22 років ув'язнення за сфабрикованими обвинуваченнями у вбивстві двох російських журналістів, які інформаційно супроводжували російське *вторгнення* і брехливо подавали інформацію про начебто злочини «українських каратєлєй / Our readers will probably recall that on March 22, the Donetsk City Court of Russia's Rostov region sentenced the Ukrainian pilot Nadia Savchenko to 22 years in prison on trumped up charges of murdering two Russian journalists who provided media support for the Russian *involvement* and spread false information about alleged crimes of "Ukrainian punitive troops (The Day April 19, 2016).

The English word *involvement* neutralizes such semantic components as *army, force, control* in comparison with its Ukrainian correspondence *вторгнення* (English *invasion*—an occasion when one country's army goes into another country to take control of it by force (*MacMillan dictionary*, p. 797);

- to discredit some unfavorable event or personality: e.g., the stylistically neutral English word *war* can be translated into Ukrainian in a dysphemistic way as *різанина* (*bloodshed* in English).

Parainforming is mostly carried out through generalization, conceptual metaphor; metainforming—through specification. Euphemisms act as the linguistic means of the first process and dysphemisms may participate in the formation of metainforming.

4.2 The Semantic Representation of Pragmatics

The semantic representations of pragmatics are expressed through specific lexicalization, syntactic structures, as well as by rhetorical devices that are geared towards the emphasis or de-emphasis of underlying meanings. For instance, negative opinions about out-groups typically will be lexicalized by negative words. Conversely, positive lexicalization may be chosen to express positive self-images of the in-groups. Positive and negative effect in pragmatics of translation in political discourse is achieved mainly through the euphemisms and dysphemisms. A euphemism

is used as "an alternative to a dispreferred expression, in order to avoid possible loss of face: either one's own or, by giving offense, that of the audience, or of some third party. In fact, many euphemisms are alternatives for expressions the speaker or writer would simply prefer not to use in executing a particular communicative intention on a given occasion" (Allan & Burridge, 1988, p. 1).

Whereas the term *euphemism* is well-known and has wide currency, *dysphemism* does not. A dysphemism is used for precisely the opposite reason that a euphemism is used: an expression with connotations that are offensive either about the denotatum or to the audience, or both, and it is substituted for a neutral or euphemistic expression for just that reason. Dysphemisms, then, are used in "talking about one's opponents, things one wishes to show disapproval of, and things one wishes to be seen to downgrade, to obfuscate or offend" (Allan & Burridge, 1988, p. 11). The Russian military involvement in Syria is verbalized in the American mass media mainly by means of dysphemisms (*military Russian bombing*). On the contrary, the generalized euphemistic phrases *Russia's air campaign* or *Russian military operation* are used in the Russian news. In the following example we can see a pair of synonyms where *terrorist* is a dysphemism, *rebel groups* is a euphemism:

> …The then-UN special envoy Lakhdar Brahimi blamed the Syrian government's refusal to discuss opposition demands and its insistence on a focus on fighting "*terrorists*" - a term Damascus uses to describe *rebel groups* (BBC News 9 October 2015).

Though euphemizing is now an accepted and established practice, it has acquired a dubious connotation in light of its tendency to deliberately disguise actual meanings of words in political discourse. Lutz, an English professor at Rutgers University, and a champion of rhetorical canons and the art of clear writing across numerous discourses, focuses his work on ethical considerations in using euphemisms, what he calls "the morality of rhetoric" (Lutz, 1996). He makes an immediate distinction between euphemisms proper and doublespeak: when a euphemism is used to deceive, it becomes doublespeak. The sole purpose of doublespeak is to make the unreasonable seem reasonable, the blamed seem blameless, the powerless seem powerful.

4.3 Translation Strategies

Within this paper we understand the notion *strategies* as the techniques that bridge pragmatic potential of source and target texts. They involve selecting information in the target text, which is governed by the translator's knowledge of the prospective readership of the translation. The most typical translation strategies in the verbalization of the Ukrainian-Russian conflict in mass media are the following ones:

1. *Transliteration*. In the Ukrainian mass media the English term *annexation* (speaking about the illegal joining of Crimea) is mainly transliterated but not translated. We should take into account a fact that this word is a euphemism in

Ukrainian (it veils and softens the real information because it is a neologism of the Latin origin and is perceived by the Ukrainian speakers not in such a categorical way). But in English the word annexation is not a euphemism because it has been in usage for a long time: its meaning contains the negative seme (the smallest unit of a meaning) *force*—to take control of a country or region by force.

… Я декілька разів говорив і далі переконаний, що *анексію* Криму можна було попередити ще тоді, коли РФ розпочала величезні навчання біля кордонів України.

…I have said several times and I am still sure that we could have forestalled the *annexation* of Crimea as early as when Russia began a huge military exercise near the borders of Ukraine (BBC News, 4 November 2014).

The inevitable consequence of the war is an economic crisis which is verbalized with the euphemisms *downturn, recession*:

…The economy is struggling to recover from a *recession* and has been shaken by capital flight, as worried investors move their money abroad (BBC News, 1 May 2015).

…Економіка намагається оговтатися від *рецесії,* і був вражений втечею капіталу, як турбує інвесторів переміщати свої гроші за кордон.

The translators deliberately use the transliteration of the term *recession* (укр. *Рецесія*) to make an effect of a loan word. The loan words are one of the popular methods to euphemize because they shock less and seem to be more noble.

2. *Euphemistic substitutions*. The English word *displaced people* is mainly translated into Ukrainian as *біженці* (*refugees*). The source utterance is euphemistic because it has a latent sense which doesn't suggest military actions. The target utterance is not so polite:

…Число *біженців* в Україні та за її межами, в основному в Росії, наближається до 900,000.

…The number of *displaced people* inside Ukraine and beyond, mainly in Russia, is approaching 900.000 (BBC News, 21 November 2014).

The next example also indicates the euphemistic predominance in the English language:

…У Музеї імені Шевченка відкрилася виставка документальної фотографії, присвячена річниці Іловайської операції, тим, хто *загинув* там, і тим, хто вижив.

…Documentary photo exhibit, dedicated to the anniversary of the Ilovaisk operation, *the fallen* and the survivors, opens at Shevchenko Museum (The Day, 20 August, 2015).

The Ukrainian verb *гинути* (*to die*) is translated into English as the euphemism *fallen* (adj. *died*) (Holder, 2008, p. 174).

Sometimes the euphemistic substitutions help a translator to avoid labelling —"the practice of using a lexical item, term or phrase to identify a person, place, group, event or any other key element in a narrative" (Baker, 2006, p. 122). Such

names embody particular viewpoints, beliefs or political commitments of a community: e.g., the use of the lexical items of *terrorist* and *separatist* in the Ukrainian language (speaking about the rebel groups in Donbass frontline) and their English translation as *the rebel groups*.

3. *Conceptual metaphor*. One of the most sorrowful Ukrainian war episode called *Іловайський котел* (*Ilovaisk pot*, i.e., *encirclement*) is translated into English as *Ilovaisk pocket*:

> …*Іловайський котел* — епізод війни на сході України в серпні минулого року, в ході якого розгорнулися запеклі бої між українськими Збройними силами та підрозділами МВС з одного боку, та збройними формуваннями невизнаної терористичної ДНР і російськими окупаційними силами — з другого.
>
> …*The Ilovaisk Pocket* is an episode in the war in the east of Ukraine last August, which involved fierce fighting between Ukraine's Armed Forces and paramilitary units, on the one side, and the armed formations of the unrecognized terrorist organization DNR and Russian occupation forces, on the other (The Day, 20 August, 2015).

This bloody battle is associated with *pot* in the Ukrainian language and with the *pocket* in the English one. The source nomination as well as the target one is created by a conceptual metaphor but with the shift from *pot* onto *pocket*. Only one seme, *closed* is transfered into the concept *Pocket*, while the semes *hot* and *dangerous* (which describe carnage of war) disappear. Consequently the negative components of the concept *Pot* were replaced by more positive components of the concept *Pocket* leading to the positive pragmatic effect: This shift demonstrates the change of conceptual relevance of that terrible event for Ukrainian and English speakers. Metaphor facilitates perception and recognition in translation, as it reflects a metaphorical concept and therefore is immediately accessed. It is important to draw "links from metaphorical language to metaphorical thought" (Gibbs, 2002, p. 83). A metaphorical term reflects a figurative mode of thinking. The comprehension of a metaphorical term and its translation is a cognitive act, the same as its creation. The translation of metaphorical terms is an applied skill that needs to be acquired and developed. Since metaphors, especially innovative ones, may not trigger the same connotations with everyone, it would seem that they are another device to allow for varying interpretations.

There some examples of substitution of *weapon* by the euphemistic word *equipment*:

> …На початку вересня у західних мас-медіа почали з'являться докази присутності російських військових на Донбасі. Про те, що Росія перекидає *"зелених чоловічків"* і *бойову техніку* на Донбас, заговорили і у США.
>
> … In early September the Western media began to show evidence of the presence of Russian troops in the Donbass. The US is also saying that Russia is sending *"little green men"* and *equipment* to the Donbass (The Day, 17 September 2014).

The veiling effect is achieved due to the mechanism of abstraction. The generalized word *equipment* is diluted and thus softens the negative connotation of the

word *weapon*. In this example we can come across the translation transformation, so-called word-for-word translation: *зелені чоловічки* is translated as *little green men.* But it is a little bit strange and comical for an English recipient to hear such an expression which is similar to *aliens* for his imagination. It seems indispensable to give an additional explanation: *undercover Russian soldiers.* The negative pragmatic effect is achieved due to the attributes *little, green*, which discredits the Russian military men.

4. *Loan translation*. It is worth mentioning about the paradoxical case in translation of such Ukrainian war phenomenon as *cyborgs*. One newspaper headline was translated in the following way:

…Українські *кіборги*-захисники в донецькому аеропорту.

…Ukraine's *cyborg*-defenders at Donetsk airport (BBC News, 22 January 2015).

Ukrainian troops defending the Donetsk airport were called *cyborgs* for their toughness in repulsing constant attacks, they held out in the mangled metal ruins of Donetsk airport until the bitter end and for many they symbolized a new Ukrainian army. The nickname was first used online and has since become a media staple in Ukraine and stuck because to some the Donetsk airport defenders' exploits seemed superhuman. A paradox results from the usage of the English borrowing. For the Englishmen this word is associated with *cybernetic organisms*, or man-machines of science fiction. Some additional explanation should be added, for example *so-called* or *superheroes, tough*, *who have held on to the airport despite persistent rebel attack*.

5. *Descriptive translation*:

…She has faced down the so-called *Putinversteher* – those who show such "understanding" for Putin's actions that they come close to excusing them (The Guardian, 22 October 2014).

…Вона розвінчала так званих *putinversteher* – тих, хто виявляє таке розуміння для дій Путіна, що вони наблизилися до виправдання їх.

The pragmatic effect in the English language is achieved with the help of dysphemism of the German origin. The nomination *Putinversteher* is derived from the components *Putin* and *versteher* (Germ. *verstehen—to understand*) and has the meaning *a person who understands Putin*. It is transferred into Ukrainian with the help of combination of transliteration and descriptive translation. The German loanword is used to discredit the personality of the Russian President.

6. *Dysphemistic substitution*:

….У цьому плані варто згадати і нещодавній виступ *глашатая* путінського режиму Соловйова, який театралізовано перед публікою розповідав, як дуже швидко шляхом інформаційних і партизанських диверсій Росія «візьме» всю Україну. (The Day, 23 June 2015)

…In this regard, it is worth recalling a recent statement by the Putinist *loudmouth* Vladimir Solovyov, who theatrically described to his viewers how Russia would "take" all of Ukraine soon through information sabotage and guerrilla actions.

The word *глашатай* is obsolete in Ukrainian, it has been the historical word since the times of Kyivska Rus and it means *the town/public crier, herald*. It gives some status shade, but it is translated into English as *loudmouth*, a quite modern informal lexeme, that refers to *someone who says a lot of stupid or offensive things to crowds of people*. As we can see, the trajectory of the meaning has changed in a derogative way. In the case of geopolitical conflicts we can observe the strategy *friend-or-foe identification* when some set of words with negative connotation is opted to name an unfavorable person, event, idea. The imposed stereotypes or labels effectively manipulate the public.

7. *Hyberbolization*. This strategy relates the translation of phraseological units:

…А в цей час триває активна робота Кремля із розхитування ситуації в нашій країні та розкручування низки політичних проектів, які й мають взяти на себе роль кремлівського *шила в наших ребрах*.

…Meanwhile, the Kremlin is keeping up its efforts to destabilize our country and promote a number of political projects, which should take on the role of its *dagger in our ribs* (The Day, 23 June 2015).

The Ukrainian word *шило* (*awl*) is different from the English *dagger*. The translator used the equivalent English word but slightly hyperbolized in order to stress the contradictions between two countries and to demonize the image of Russia.

8. *Specification*. The mechanism of foregrounding is used in translation of the next sentences: *"Недарма ж Путін «врятував» з України далеко не всіх"*/*"It was not accidental that Putin did not "rescue" all his Ukrainian stooges"* (The Day, 23 June 2015). The Ukrainian hypernym *усі* (*English all*) is specified through the dysphemism *stooges* and means "someone who is used by someone to do a difficult and unpleasant job" (MacMillan, 2008, p. 1473).

…А по-друге, в суспільстві виникатиме дедалі більше запитань, чи не прибрали Януковича, який зарвався і *заплутався*, з політичної арени Майданом ті, хто його зрештою і привів колись до влади.

…Secondly, the public will increasingly wonder whether Yanukovych, who had gone too far and *got entangled in his machinations*, was removed from the political arena via the Euromaidan by these very people who once effectively put him in office (The Day, 23 June 2015).

The English semantic equivalent of the Ukrainian verb *заплутався—to entangle in his machinations*—has a more negative coloring due to specification. A person can entangle himself in many things, but in this context the translator applied a sense development strategy specifying one of the features of Yanukovych's activities.

As shown by the above examples the numerous translation strategies can influence the pragmatic equivalence achievement. Some strategies emphasize the contradictions between the conflict sides (specification, dysphemistic substitution, hyberbolization), while the other ones soften the straightforward rhetoric of a source text (euphemistic substitutions, transliteration, descriptive translation). In political discourse the cross-cultural variation of speech acts is revealed mainly through the aspect of directness (the Ukrainian language)/indirectness (the English language).

5 Conclusions

Based on the studies described in this paper, it can be concluded that pragmatic competence is an essential and indispensable part in the translation process, and that it depends on cross-cultural variation of speech acts due to contrasting sociocultural values, ideologies, systems of attitudes. The pragmatic aspect of translation involves a number of difficult problems. Translation process reveals double pragmatic orientation. On the one hand, it is realized within inner lingual communication. On the other hand, translation is a concrete speech act which is pragmatically oriented to a certain recipient. Pragmatic competence formation in translator training should follow the principles:

- In an adequate translation the communicative effect is close to that of the source text.
- At best the text's communicative effect coincides with the author's communicative intention.
- Two types of translation are caused by the above principle: communicative translation and semantic translation.

This study has shown that translation of political discourse can be used for political manipulation. Therefore, the analysis of any translated text must consider to contemporary social, cultural, political and ideological features as well as the textual realization and the context-based interpretation of such features. The source and target texts are not always equivalent in a political sense, and that target texts may be designed to realize partly different communication aims from those of the source text. Manipulation is achieved mainly through the specific lexical units. The English texts are distinguished by a great number of euphemisms which create some false reality due to the effect of blurring and ambiguity. These lexical units can influence the formation process of a great number of people's worldview. They can also deceive and neutralize one's critical mind.

Euphemism is the ideal way to manipulate people because they hide the real essence of the matter due to the creation of a neutral or positive connotation. With the help of political euphemisms, the level of negative valuation becomes smaller, hence one can speak about the complete change of pragmatic focus. The high level

of euphemistic frequency in English texts demonstrates the pragmatic intention to depict the negative objects of politics as neutral or sometimes even positive. The culture surrounding the English language is characterized by tolerance and this is why English places heavy restrictions on the use of direct speech acts, the use of imperative, and the use of straightforward words. On the contrary, in Ukrainian, the themes in regard to politics are introduced in a dysphemistic way. Ukrainian people are more emotional, impatient and straightforward. Pragmatic competence helps to intensify or soften cross-cultural communicative acts through the following translation strategies: euphemistic and dysphemistic substitutions, generalization, specification, loan translation, metaphorization.

In sum, it is necessary to stress the importance of the translator's background knowledge that includes a profound knowledge of history, culture, mode of life of the country as well as his linguistic background.

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