

ELT:  
Harmony and Diversity



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Edited by

Christoph Haase and Natalia Orlova

**CAMBRIDGE  
SCHOLARS**

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P U B L I S H I N G

ELT: Harmony and Diversity,  
Edited by Christoph Haase and Natalia Orlova

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## PREFACE

The study of ELT constitutes a domain of research that is necessarily diverse and multi-faceted. The ongoing series of conferences hosted at the University of J.E. Purkyně (UJEP) is committed to give a broad display of the approaches and perspectives on this domain. The volume in front of you represents the results of the latest conference, called CHALLENGES IV, which took place from 25 – 26 October, 2012 in Ústí nad Labem. As usual, we invited scholars in order to share current views, new trends, innovative ideas and experience in foreign language teacher education with a special focus on the English language. We received submissions relevant to applied linguistics and education, ELT methodology, cultural studies and literary studies. Further, this event fell into an important period of academic activities at UJEP as it was linked to the EU project NEFLT, a project with a focus on creating and improving relationships between educators of foreign language teaching, on analyses of current foreign language teacher trainee programs and on mapping the qualification rates of foreign language teachers. CHALLENGES was sponsored by NEFLT (grant no. CZ.1.07/2.4.00/31.0074)

The conference and the subsequent contributions to this volume reflect on the one hand the international spectrum of activities, on the other the more locally focused research which is displayed in the various articles in this volume. At the same time we believe to have created a comprehensive companion piece to the 2011 volume *ELT – Converging Approaches and Challenges*, edited by Christoph Haase and Natalia Orlova (CSP).

The volume contains 18 chapters that are organized in four main sections dedicated to broad fields in ELT. The first, *Issues in Grammar Teaching and EAP*, starts with a paper by David Newby on his very individual take on a cognitive-communicative grammar. This important contribution sketches a hybrid grammar model with underpinnings in recent findings in cognitive linguistics. Three contributions look at academic writing at university level and beyond - Olga Dontcheva-Navratilova and Renata Povolná focus on academic writing skills in the lingua franca English; Silvia Cacchiani analyzes if-conditionals in economics research papers and Zuzana Procházková studies the mental mapping of student academic writing. The concluding segment by

Christoph Haase looks at parameters of morphological productivity of second language learners in English.

The second section, entitled *Teaching Expressivity and Culture* offers a diverse array of studies that include at first a systematic survey of English address forms used by non-native speakers by Josef Nevařil and Blanka Babická and a paper on the heterogenous situation of English and French as competitors in Cameroon by Samuel Atechi. Hana Suchánková reflects on the teaching of speaking from a cross-cultural perspective and the section ends on a philosophical note with Ondřej Skovajsa's flaming appeal to encourage the humanities in the English classroom.

Section number three is the most technical with studies on *Methodology, Technology and ELT*. This section also spans across all levels of language teaching. In it, Natalia Orlova analyzes the self-perception of teachers and Cornelia Neubert discusses some surprising pros and cons of the internet as an ELT resource. In a similar vein, the use of social media in the Middle Eastern world has been an important issue in recent politics but Darah Tafazoli and his colleagues offer an empirical look at the teaching of English idioms via facebook in Iran. Hana Ždímalová identifies and analyzes the pre-listening stage in its relevance for adult learners and the paper by Iva Koutská takes this one step further up the age scale in her comprehensive study of senior FL education participants.

The final section collects shorter contributions – reflections on a networked teaching of tenses by Stanislava Kaiserová, the use of blogs in ELT by Jana Pavlíková and the use of Moodle for non-philological learners at university level by Lada Klimová. The practical segment on vowel teaching by Dušan Melen concludes this volume.

Thus, we see many different purposes in this collection and we hope that our readers may obtain new perspectives and inspiration for their own academic work – be it in teaching or in research.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to express our heartfelt gratitude to the entire NEFLT team who helped to make this conference a success. Among the many, the contributions of Pavel Frajs should be highlighted. For the work on this volume our thanks go especially to Sarah Good and Joel Head for indispensable proofreading.

Christoph Haase & Natalia Orlova, September 2013



**SECTION 1:**

**ISSUES IN GRAMMAR TEACHING AND EAP**



# DO GRAMMAR EXERCISES HELP? ASSESSING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GRAMMAR PEDAGOGY

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In this paper I shall present a framework for assessing the learning effectiveness of grammar exercises based on a Cognitive+Communicative approach to grammar (Newby 2003). I shall consider basic premises of this approach and list two sets of criteria, pedagogical and communicative, which can be applied in the analysis of exercises. Finally, I shall give examples of how this analysis can be implemented.

## **1. Cognitive+Communicative Grammar**

Cognitive+Communicative Grammar (abbreviated to C+C grammar) is a model which I have developed to assist in the design and analysis of grammar pedagogy. Pedagogical tasks to be carried out by pedagogical grammarians, textbook writers and teachers include the setting of communicative grammar objectives, the formulation of rules and the creation of grammar exercises and activities. The ‘Cognitive’ part of the C+C axis derives to a large extent from the school of linguistics known as Cognitive Linguistics. The ‘Communicative’ part relates to the Communicative Approach to language teaching. It thus draws on insights both from linguistics and from language teaching methodology. (I shall capitalise these terms to denote these specific theoretical uses and to distinguish from the more general meanings they can express.) Both parts of the axis can be applied to two separate but complementary aspects of theoretical analysis: language description and language learning. At the core of C+C Grammar are a Communication Model of Language, which depicts language as a ‘speech event’ (see Hymes 1964, Langacker 2008), and a Cognitive Model of Learning, based on the learning stages and cognitive processes to be described in this paper (see Newby 2002, in

preparation). Incorporating both aspects is essential since if we are to teach grammar in a principled way we need both a knowledge of *what grammar actually is* and an understanding of *how grammar is learned*. A C+C approach to language seeks to analyse and describe grammar, on the one hand in terms of the mental processes that underlie the use of language (Cognitive), and on the other, as an act of communication - a dynamic process in which a speaker's perceptions are encoded by linguistic means into messages (Communicative). A Cognitive analysis of language examines initially how the mind is structured and organised to perceive reality and how cognitive categorisation gives rise to grammar; a Communicative analysis sees language as a process of conveying messages and embeds the cognitive, semantic, and formal categories arising from a Cognitive analysis within other aspects of communication, such as contextual variables, pragmatic meaning, and register. A C+C approach to learning will focus on mental processes that are activated when grammar is learned (Cognitive) and explores how grammar can be developed as a skill (Communicative) by means of pedagogy. It should be added that Cognitive and Communicative are inseparable, overlapping, and complementary categories, which is why they are always linked by a '+' sign. Elsewhere (Newby 2008, 2012a etc.), I have discussed how a C+C view of language impacts on areas such as the setting of communicative objectives and formulation of grammar rules; in this paper the focus will be on a C+C view of learning and how this impacts on grammar exercise design.

## 2. Hypotheses of a C+C view of learning

Like any theory of learning, a C+C view is based on certain hypotheses. Some of the most important, together with their pedagogical implications are the following:

- a) Language learning is concept learning; learning is meaning driven and goal directed.  
Implication: teaching objectives must be defined largely in terms of grammatical notions (Newby 1989, 1991 etc.); task-based activities should be used.
- b) Language is embedded in a network of schematic constructs and contexts which facilitate both communication and language learning.

Implication: Grammar activities should be embedded in contexts and learners should bring in their own ideas and knowledge.

- c) Knowledge of language emerges from language use (Croft and Cruse 2004: 1).

Implication: grammar exercises should focus on developing competence and performance rather than just knowledge, as tends to be the case in traditional approaches (see Newby 2012).

- d) Learning is an active and dynamic process in which individuals make use of a variety of information and strategic modes of processing (O'Malley and Chamot 1990:217).  
Implication: Teachers must ensure that learners are as mentally active as possible and use their cognitive resources meaningfully.

### 3. Cognitive learning stages

One of the premises of a Cognitive approach, identified by O'Malley and Chamot (*ibid*), is the following: 'Learning a language entails a **stagewise progression** from initial awareness and active manipulation of information and learning processes to full automaticity in language use'. Most theories of learning see learning as a 'stagewise progression' and therefore use stage models; however, there are considerable differences in how they conceive of these stages. Figure 1 shows the C+C view of **learning stages**, which is loosely based on a stage-model of language processing used by certain cognitive psychologists such as Anderson (1990).

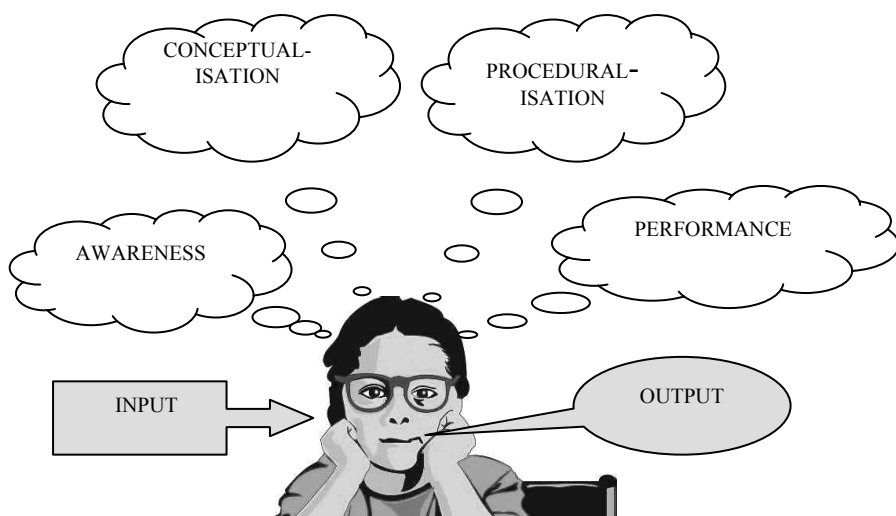


Fig. 1: A cognitive model of learning stages

The following chart explains what the terms in this learning model denote.

Input – materials provided by the teacher/textbook + students' existing knowledge and schemata		
Learning stages	Awareness	students <b>notice</b> and <b>focus</b> on new grammar
	Conceptualisation	students ' <b>understand</b> ' a grammar rule; usually conscious knowledge
	Proceduralisation	students are able to <b>use</b> grammar <b>in 'scaffolded' exercises</b> without a strong conscious focus on rules
	Performance	students are able to <b>use</b> grammar <b>in open contexts</b> ; focus on the overall message
Output – what students say or write		



In some ways a Cognitive specification of learning stages can be compared to the teaching stages found in traditional grammar pedagogy: presentation – practice – production (PPP). However, whereas traditional grammar takes a **teacher's perspective**, a cognitive view will see stages from the **learner's perspective** and will focus on the tasks that need to be accomplished in the human mind at each stage in order for grammar to be internalised. It will be noted that this model sees grammar both in terms of **competence** and of **performance**. Here we can also see a link to the Communicative approach, which stresses the importance of seeing language in terms of both knowledge and skills.

#### 4. Principles and criteria for assessing grammar activities

Various researchers in the fields of cognitive psychology and neuroscience have identified factors that accelerate or optimise language learning. The C+C model provides specific parameters for analysing and assessing the effectiveness of grammar activities. I shall consider two categories: **pedagogical principles**, based on Cognitive views of **learning**, and **communicative criteria**, based on theories of **language use**. These categories have the following analytical tasks:

**Pedagogical Principles** – to what extent does a grammar activity support learning by *activating and optimising learning processes* and thus contribute to the overall aims of learning grammar?

**Communicative Criteria** – to what extent does a grammar activity support the development of both grammatical and communicative performance by *simulating conditions of real-life language use*?

Pedagogical Principles will determine whether an activity can be **validated** – i.e. plays a useful role in learning; Communicative Criteria will determine whether an activity can be **authenticated** – i.e. corresponds to communicative use. **Validation** and **authentication** can be seen from the learner's perspective: if learners *validate* an exercise, they (subconsciously) accept that what they are doing makes a good contribution to their learning; if learners *authenticate* an activity, they recognise that the way they are using language corresponds to some extent to how they are likely to use it in real life.

#### 5. Pedagogical principles

It is the aim of grammar pedagogy to **support learning processes**. In this section I shall list principles which facilitate high quality learning and which therefore need to be incorporated into the design of grammar exercises and activities. They have been compiled from a variety of

theoretical sources in the disciplines of applied linguistics, cognitive psychology, and education neuroscience.

a) Depth of processing

The extent to which a new item of grammar becomes stored in the memory of the learner is partly dependent on how mentally active the learner is when doing grammar tasks. Depth of processing will be determined by the nature of the grammar task given to students. Traditional methodology tends to provide activities which are ‘cognitively shallow’. For example, at the awareness-conceptualisation stage, the mental activity of the learners may be restricted to understanding what they have been told by teachers, textbooks etc. As a result, they may hear or see the language input, but do not process it intensely enough - what might be called the ‘in-one-ear-and-out-of-the-other’ phenomenon. Discovery activities on the one hand lead to far deeper processing. Activities such as fill-in-the-gap tend not to require learners to strongly activate their mental energy. A cognitive view stresses the maximising of mental resources, and tasks are designed with this in mind.

b) Commitment filter

Students must be encouraged to ‘commit themselves’ to learning grammar. This may include affective aspects such as enjoyment or fun, but also what is sometimes termed ‘resultative motivation’: i.e. students experience feelings of achievement when doing grammar exercises and activities – an important justification for task-based activities. Also, cognitive needs such as curiosity, problem solving, drive for communication, acquiring knowledge, etc. Traditional, repetitive and boring grammar exercises are likely to impede good quality learning.

c) Peer/social learning (oral activities)

All learning is influenced by the learner’s social environment. The contribution to learning made by interaction between learners and their peers is an important factor. On some occasions, peers may be better at teaching than teachers! Group work activities can include peer monitoring as part of their design.

d) Summative vs. formative exercises (testing vs. teaching/supporting learning)

These are two terms commonly used in testing theory but are equally appropriate in analysing grammar exercises. A summative exercise has the main aim of testing whether an item of grammar has been learnt, whereas a formative activity has the specific aim of supporting the learning process. A shorthand way of distinguishing between them is testing vs. learning activities. Many exercises found in school textbooks do not help the learner to learn to any great extent but merely test declarative knowledge – whether a rule has been learnt. Summative testing exercises very often take the form of contrastive exercises (present perfect or past tense, etc.). A formative activity on the other hand has the specific learning aim of developing the learners' ability to use a grammatical item and of building up their confidence with regard to this grammar.

- e) Do you know vs. can you use activities?  
Cognitive psychologists (for example, Anderson 1990) often distinguish between declarative and procedural knowledge. Many grammar exercises only focus on the former. However, students need exercises which require them not only to understand grammar but to use it if they are to go beyond the conceptualisation stage of learning.

## 6. Communicative criteria

A Communicative approach to learning and teaching attempts to replicate the real-life conditions of language use and to apply them in the design of pedagogy. Communicative activities are essentially meaning-driven and goal-oriented. Whether grammar activities can be described as 'Communicative' can be determined according to certain criteria, listed below. It should be stressed that there is *no simple binary distinction* between 'communicative' and 'non-communicative' activities. It could be stated that the more of the communicative criteria which a grammar activity fulfils, the farther along the continuous incline towards '100% communicative' it might be located. However, learning stages must also be taken into account. For example, discovery activities used at the awareness/conceptualisation stage of learning will fulfil few of the criteria, but in this case this does not matter since the aim is to raise awareness and support the conceptualisation of grammar, not to use it. On the other hand, activities at the performance stage should fulfil most of the communicative criteria.

- a) Contextualisation  
Language used in an explanation or exercise is *embedded in a clear context*, or the exercise *facilitates contextualisation* (imagining a context) by the student.
- b) Personalisation (compare pedagogical principle, 2)  
When speakers produce language they are representing information, ideas, knowledge, etc. from their *own personal perspective*. Grammar activities need to take into account this ‘personalisation’ aspect of language and give students the opportunity to *apply their own schematic constructs*, and *express their own ideas*, from their own perspective in order to produce utterances.
- c) Complex encoding  
Whenever human beings produce language, they are processing two general areas of cognition. On the one hand, they *represent the world* around them – what they see, think, remember, experience, etc.; on the other hand, they *map their perceptions of the world onto language*. If students are to get to the performance stage of the cognitive stage model, they must be given the opportunity as soon as possible to *rehearse* this complex encoding; that is to say, they must not only be required to add grammar to prefabricated sentences but to encode utterances. Grammar exercises which merely require students to fill in gaps leads to ‘simple’ encoding – i.e. just grammar. More complex encoding is required if students have to produce both grammar and vocabulary items. Most complex encoding takes place when students have to produce a complete utterance.
- d) Authenticity of process  
To produce language, learners apply *processes that human beings use when encoding utterances*. Fill-in-the-gap with words given in brackets of transforming direct into indirect speech are totally lacking in process authenticity, whereas paraphrasing an utterance is an authentic process.
- e) Interaction (oral activities)  
Learners use the grammar item to *interact with other learners* in ways which require a response – for example, in an oral group work activity.
- f) Task-based  
In addition to producing correct utterances, students fulfil a

*purposeful cognitive task* which will have some kind of outcome or end product.

## 7. Analysing grammar exercises through C+C categories

I shall consider three grammar activities to illustrate how the categories described above can be applied. These activities share common grammatical objectives: forming and asking questions and using tenses correctly. However, in other aspects they differ, as the analysis will show.

Exercise a) fill-in-the-gap with the correct form.

Where \_\_\_\_\_ (Mary - buy) her new dress?  
 When \_\_\_\_\_ (you - go) to bed last night?  
 What \_\_\_\_\_ (Jim - do) every Saturday?

Exercise b) Write questions that would produce the answers.  
 (Newby, 1992: Grammar for Communication, Exercises and Creative Activities, p.98, adapted)

1. A: Why are you going to bed already?

B: Because I feel tired.

2. A.

\_\_\_\_\_?

B: A hamburger, please.

3. A.

\_\_\_\_\_?

B: Let's go to France. I've never been there.

4. A.

\_\_\_\_\_?

B: English and Spanish.

5. A.

\_\_\_\_\_?

B: For five years. She really loves it there.

6. A.

\_\_\_\_\_?

B: Fantastic! We had seats in the front row!

Activity c) This is an oral version of activity b). Students work in groups of about four. Each group has a set of cards with questions on one side and answers on the other. Students take it in turns to read out the answers; the others group members have to guess the question.

Front of card

Back of card

A hamburger, please.	What do you want for lunch?
----------------------	-----------------------------

Discussion:

The chart below summarises the analysis which follows.

Category	Activity a)	Activity b)	Activity c)
Learning stage	conc.	proc.	proc.
Pedagogical principles			
Depth of processing	shallow	deep	deep
Commitment	X	✓	✓✓
Peer learning	X	X	✓
Formative/summative	F	S	S
‘Do you know?/Can you use?’	DYK	CYU	CYU
Communicative criteria			
Contextualisation	X	(✓)	(✓)
Personalisation	X	✓	✓
Complex encoding	X	✓✓	✓✓
Authenticity of process	X	✓	✓
Interaction	X	X	✓
Task-based	X	X	✓

a) Learning stage:

Like most grammar exercises found in school textbooks and pedagogical reference grammars, activity a) is restricted to the conceptualisation learning stage – students are being tested on their (declarative) knowledge of a grammatical rule, whereas exercises b) and c) operate at the procedural stage of learning – learners have to generate their own utterances; thus the process of automatisisation is supported.

b) Pedagogical principles:

An examination of commercially available grammar exercises will show a preponderance of the exercise format ‘fill-in-the-gap with lexical prompts given in brackets’. As with many aspects of grammar teaching, such exercises have become part of pedagogical tradition; however, in terms of learning theory, there is very little to justify such an exercise type. Since learners are presented with pre-fabricated sentences, processing is limited to applying a rule deductively and is, as a result, very shallow. The fact that so much language is provided precludes the need for or the possibility of schematisation. Such exercises are, of course, fairly boring and satisfy neither cognitive nor affective needs. Commitment is therefore likely to be low. In some grammar practice books, such exercises are referred to as ‘revision’ exercises (for example, Swan and Walter 1997), but this is a misnomer: they are to be regarded as ‘re-testing’, rather than revision and are of a very largely summative nature. I have seen such exercises subsumed under the category of ‘English in use’, but this is even more of a misnomer. The only person who uses English in exercises of this format is the author of the book in which the exercise occurs: it is purely a ‘do you know?’ exercise without any element of ‘can you use?’

An analysis of activity b) will reveal a far greater activation of supportive learning processes. Since students have to generate their own utterances, processing will not only be deeper but will correspond more closely to real-life language processing. Commitment is likely to be higher than in exercise a) since it is more cognitively challenging. The fact that students are getting practice in using the grammar (‘can you use?’ rather than ‘do you know?’) gives this activity a strongly formative element.

What has been said with regard to b) above also applies to c); however, in this case there are additional elements that activate learning processes. Firstly, since this activity has a game-like quality, both cognitive and affective commitment is likely to be high. Second, since it is an oral activity played in small groups, there is the opportunity of feedback from peers– correction, assistance, etc. Peer support is often more useful than teacher correction since not only is peer correction less threatening but

also peers are better able to identify with difficulties that may be experienced.

c) Communicative criteria

With the exercise type ‘fill-in-the-gap + prompted lexis’, it is usually the case that if the lexical items are changed into nonsense words, students are still able to get the answers right, which is clear proof of how little meaningful language processing is taking place (criterion: ‘authenticity of process’). Readers might like to attempt the ‘nonsense version’ of exercise a) themselves:

Where \_\_\_\_\_ (Mary - blonk) her new blink?  
When \_\_\_\_\_ (you - zonk) to glog last night?  
What \_\_\_\_\_ (Jim - ving) every Saturday?

An analysis based on the communicative criteria will show how and why this type of exercise can be regarded as ‘uncommunicative’: none of the criteria is fulfilled. As far as b) and c) are concerned, the picture is very different. Although each exercise consists of single sentences, rather than, say, a contextualised dialogue, students do have to imagine a possible context for each ‘mini-dialogue’ in order to come up with a meaningful utterance. Both exercises require a high degree of personalisation: students express their own ideas, thoughts, etc. Similarly, encoding has maximum complexity since students provide all the language required themselves – i.e. there are no language prompts to help them. (If teachers feel that students are not yet at the stage where they can do an unprompted exercise, prompts can be provided – for example, a bag of words at the top of the exercise.)

In the analysis of pedagogical principles I referred to advantages of oral, as opposed to written, activities. With regard to exercise c) additional communicative criteria can be identified: first, the group work format provides for interaction between students. Second, since oral activities take place in real time, greater authenticity of process is achieved. Third, the activity becomes task-based due to the game-like nature of the activity. An added advantage is that contact time with the grammar to be learned is far greater than with written exercises: this activity generates a large number of questions.



## 8. Conclusion

My experience of conducting in-service workshops in many countries has revealed that many teachers tend to give little consideration to the question of how effective grammar exercises are in supporting learning. Often, the criterion of quantity, rather than quality, seems to be the overriding reason for selecting exercises. Yet it is important to reason that practice itself does not make perfect: as Van Lier points out (1996: 59), 'we have to learn to distinguish between practice and malpractice'. The framework presented in this paper provides a theory-based mode of assessing grammar exercises which, as my students at the University of Graz will confirm, can not only be applied in the analysis of exercises but which acts as a springboard to activity design.

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# ANALYSING THE DEVELOPMENT OF ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS IN ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA

OLGA DONTCHEVA-NAVRATILOVA  
AND RENATA POVOLNÁ  
MASARYK UNIVERSITY BRNO

The establishment of English as the lingua franca of all academic communication has resulted in the necessity to explore the academic writing skills of non-native university students since the ability to produce academic texts in English is absolutely essential to their future academic and professional careers. This chapter reports on the results of a survey into the academic writing skills of students of English at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic. The aim of the survey, which was based on questionnaires completed by students pursuing both Bachelor's and Master's degree study programmes, was to establish tendencies in the development of their academic writing skills. In addition, a corpus-based analysis of students' diploma theses was carried out in order to map academic writing competencies they had attained by the end of their studies. The results of the investigation suggest implications not only for the (re)design of academic writing courses, but also for the development of students' language competences.

## **1. Introduction**

In the ongoing process of increasing internationalization of all scholarship and with regard to the crucial role of English as the lingua franca of academia it has become indispensable for authors from different cultural backgrounds and intellectual traditions to achieve a certain level of academic literacy in English in order to become recognized members of their respective research fields within international academia. That is why

different academic discourses written in English have to be mastered by non-native writers, including university students, as part of their “secondary socialization” in educational and research institutions (Mauranen et al. 2010: 184).

Modern language teaching emphasizes efficient and appropriate ways of communication and in particular students’ ability to express their ideas comprehensibly and effectively. In the globalized world this entails the acquiring of competence to communicate cross-culturally and across disciplines in a variety of genres using both spoken and written discourse. With the ever-increasing amount of information available and the necessity to present it to large audiences both in cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary communication, the written mode has become a substantial and indispensable means of communication in various contexts on both personal and professional levels. The ability to work with written texts, i.e. to read texts as well as to produce them, ranks among the most crucial and essential skills of educated modern people, whether in their native or a foreign language. Consequently, it is not surprising that, on account of the increasing importance of the written mode in academic communication, the teaching and learning of academic writing skills have recently become central issues of interest for numerous linguistically and pedagogically oriented studies dealing with the assessing of native and non-native writers’ performance in terms of genre, disciplinary and cross-cultural variation and concerned with the designing of courses aimed at developing students’ communicative competence in an academic setting such as university (e.g. Duszak 1997, Hyland 2002a, Hewings 2006, Paltridge and Starfield 2007).

The present investigation of academic writing skills of Czech university students involved in Bachelor’s and Master’s degree study programmes in teacher training in the English language undertakes to diagnose the special needs and current writing skills of students as well as to explore the progress they make over the five years of their studies from general writing to specific academic writing skills, including the writing skills reflected in the academic discourse they produce when writing their final diploma theses. The aim of the investigation is to assess to what extent the current academic writing courses offered by the Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic correspond to the specific needs and expectations of the students, and also to provide the necessary data for a potential (re)designing of these courses so as to equip the students with the academic writing skills required for their professional careers in the globalized academic discourse community.

## 2. Academic writing in English as a *lingua franca*

The *lingua franca* status that English has acquired in the global academic world at the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century has made the acquisition of academic English indispensable for anyone contemplating university studies and/or a professional career in science, research or academia. Despite the variety of academic literacies and epistemologies that have evolved over the ages, Anglo-American academic writing conventions have for a long time been regarded as the preferred norm for academic communication by educators involved in academic English courses and by the mostly Anglophone ‘gatekeepers’ reviewing publications for established academic publishers and periodicals (cf. Clyne 1991, Swales 1997, Tardy 2004). However, with the increasing number of non-native speakers forced to communicate using the modern academic *lingua franca*, in the last two decades numerous studies scrutinizing academic English from a discourse analytic and pedagogical perspective have problematized the educated native speaker as the model of good and fluent language performance and questioned the Anglo-American tradition of academic writing as the prevailing discourse convention (e.g. Flowerdew 2008, Mauranen et al. 2010). While considering the success of the numerous programmes of English for academic purposes offered by various universities, strong voices within the international academic discourse community have pointed out that “there are no native speakers of *academic English*” (Mauranen et al. 2010: 184) and warned against the danger of a ‘Tyrannosaurus Rex’ impact of English on the numerous ‘non-English’ rhetorical, register and genre conventions (e.g. Swales 1997, Tardy 2004). The resulting ideological challenges to Anglo-American academic writing conventions have called for the use of a more flexible approach to academic writing in English which respects heterogeneity and takes into consideration existing variations in meaning and organization of academic texts across different disciplines, languages and cultures (cf. Duszak 1997).

The raising of awareness of the existing cross-cultural variation in academic literacy conventions has been fostered by an important change in the understanding of academic writing, shifting “from a formal text-based perspective to a functional perspective that concentrates on the writer and the writing process and, even more, on the reader and the cognitive construction of discourse in a community” (Schmied 2011: 1, cf. Hyland 2010). Within this functional approach, academic writing conventions are seen as being affected by the dynamics of the national and international academic discourse communities and by their preferred ways of

expressing interpersonal meanings. The potential of this approach to explain reasons for cross-cultural variation in academic writing can be illustrated by a comparison of the Anglo-American and the Czech (Central European) writing conventions, which are scrutinized in the present investigation.

Previous research into the Anglo-American and Central European academic literacies has shown that they differ considerably in many respects and especially in the way they approach writer-reader interaction (e.g. Clyne 1987, Mauranen 1993, Čmejrková and Daneš 1997, Duszak 1997, Kreutz and Harres 1997, Chamonikolasová 2005, Stašková 2005, Povolná 2010b, Dontcheva-Navratilova 2012a). This divergence seems to be motivated to a large extent by the size and the level of heterogeneity of the respective discourse communities (Mauranen 1993), which affect the relations of power and solidarity among their members (Čmejrková and Daneš 1997). The large Anglo-American academic discourse community is linguistically and culturally heterogeneous. Consequently, when writing for a highly varied and depersonalized readership, its members have to compete for research space in a territory densely packed with occupied 'niches' (Duszak 1997). This forces authors to invest a greater persuasive effort and adopt a more reader-friendly attitude and urges them, especially those working in the soft sciences, to deviate from the traditional scientific paradigm advising objectivity and the avoidance of human agency (Hyland 2001, Bennett 2009). As evidenced by recent research (e.g. Gosden 1993, Kuo 1999, Tang and John 1999, Hyland 2001, 2002a, Harwood 2005), Anglo-American authors typically opt for a marked authorial presence and strive to negotiate their claims and debate their views with the implied audience, while guiding the reader through the text by using signals such as discourse markers indicating intratextual connections and logical relations holding between segments of discourse. It thus seems reasonable to assume in agreement with Čmejrková and Daneš (1997: 57) that the potential to cope with a lower degree of shared knowledge by opting for explicit marking of discourse organization and a higher level of dialogicality makes the present-day Anglo-American norm of academic writing particularly suitable for purposes of cross-cultural communication within the global academic discourse community.

The Central European academic literacy subsumes several considerably smaller and therefore much more homogeneous discourse communities. Due to the considerable amount of common knowledge and methodological principles which members of these discourse communities share, their preferred patterns of interaction tend to be marked by symbiosis and avoidance of tension. This motivates the use of rather monologic, more