UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

LANGUAGE AWARENESS:

A material package for upper secondary school

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Brittein saarilla 1980-luvun alussa syntynyt kielitietoisuusaate korostaa eksplisiittistä tietoa kielestä ja oppijoiden kielellisen tietoisuuden lisäämisen tärkeyttä kielen opetuksessa. Alusta alkaen tämä liike on pyrkinyt yhdistämään äidinkielen ja vieraiden kielten opetuksen, vaikkakin se useasti yhdistetään ainoastaan vieraiden kielten opetukseen. Perusajatuksena on, että kasvavalla tietoisuudella on suotuisa vaikutus kielen oppimiseen. Huolimatta liikkeen suosiosta Englannissa ja muualla Euroopassa kielitietoisuus sekä vieraiden kielten että äidinkielen opetuksessa on jäänyt suomalaisissa kouluissa lähes tuntemattomaksi asiaksi.

Tämä kielitietoisuuteen keskittyvä opetuspaketti on suunniteltu lukio-opetukseen. Kurssi voidaan toteuttaa kahdella tavalla. Äidinkielen ja englannin kielen integroivana kurssina se korostaa kielen olemuksen pohdintaa molempien aineiden yhteisenä sisältöalueena. Kurssi on mahdollista sisällyttää myös englannin kielen soveltaviin kursseihin.

Opetusmateriaali jakaantuu kahteen osaan: kielen piirteitä esittelevään osaan ja vieraiden kielten oppimiseen keskittyvään materiaaliin. Ensimmäinen osa rohkaisee oppijoita pohtimaan kielen keskeisiä piirteitä ja yhdistää siten äidinkielen ja vieraiden kielten opetuksen. Esiteltävät kielen piirteet ovat: 1) kielen semanttinen ulottuvuus, 2) poikkeava kielenkäyttö, 3) kielen luova käyttö, 4) kielen pysyvyys ja muutos, 5) kielen variaatio sekä 6) pragmatiikka. Toisessa osassa käsitellään vieraiden kielten oppimiseen vaikuttavia seikkoja. Tämä osa antaa oppijoille valmiuksia ja uusia strategioita vieraiden kielten oppimiseen, jotka voivat lisätä oppijoiden autonomiaa.

Oppitunnit etenevät nelivaiheisen oppimiskehän mukaisesti. Ensimmäisessä vaiheessa oppijat johdatellaan aiheeseen, ja samalla heillä on mahdollisuus keskustella aiemmista kokemuksistaan ja tiedoistaan asiasta. Toinen vaihe tarjoaa uutta tietoa asiasta. Tässä vaiheessa on tärkeää, että oppijat tekevät kielestä ja sen käytöstä omat havaintonsa ja johtopäätöksensä. Kolmas vaihe keskittyy opitun tiedon soveltamiseen. Oppijat hyödyntävät saamiaan tietoja muun muassa luovuutta vaativissa tehtävissä, pienissä tutkimustehtävissä ja kirjoitustehtävissä. Viimeisessä vaiheessa oppijat kirjoittavat havainnoistaan ja tuntemuksistaan oppimispäiväkirjaan. He myös arvioivat omia ja toistensa kirjallisia tai suullisia esityksiä ja pohtivat aiheeseen liittyviä jatkokysymyksiä.

Asiasanat: language awareness. awareness raising. material package. features of language. learner-training. learning cycle.

CONTENTS

1 INTRODUCTION

The emphasis of foreign language teaching is changing from communicative teaching to the acceptance of the idea that explicit language teaching has an important role in foreign language learning. Explicit knowledge of language is believed to turn into implicit knowledge by making learners notice, or become aware of how language functions. Awareness of language is defined as learners' conscious perception and explicit knowledge of language, language use and language learning (see for instance NCLE (quoted in Donmall 1991a:108), McCarthy1994:1, James 1996:139-140, ALA (quoted in Donmall-Hicks 1997:21)). Therefore, knowledge of language structures is not considered sufficient alone but understanding of language in more general sense is essential also for foreign language learners. Language Awareness (henceforth: LA) activities are used to promote learner's awareness of language.

Though the LA movement has been influential both in Central Europe and the USA it has so far remained almost unknown in Finland. As a result, there is no material for LA courses designed especially for Finnish learners of foreign languages. Furthermore, though the national curriculum for secondary schools underlines integration of foreign languages to other subjects (LOPS 1994:64), there is seldom real co-operation between foreign languages and mother tongue teaching though these share the same core content: language. Therefore, a crucial aspect of LA work at school is to integrate language curriculum.

The purpose of this study is to design a material package for a LA course in the Finnish secondary school. The secondary school curriculum suggests integrating central content areas into one with common objectives and contents (LOPS 1994:34). According to this proposal, this LA course can be carried out as a joint project by Finnish and English language teachers. The objective of the course is to point out what is common to both foreign languages and mother tongue, namely language and its universal features. Furthermore, this LA course aims at making learners both cognitively as well as affectively involved in providing them with cognitive challenge in language exploration and increasing their personal interest in language. The LA tasks in the material package should

promote learners' awareness of language and language learning, the two major themes in the materials.

The material package is divided into two major sections: 1) Features of language, and 2) Language learning. The first section introduces learners to some of the most salient features of language, as suggested by Mittins (1991). The features of language covered in this material package are the semantic dimension of language, conventional and deviant use of language, creativity, stability and change of language, language variation and pragmatics. This section of the material package forms the core of integrated foreign language and mother tongue teaching. The second section, language learning, deals with issues related to first and foreign language learning. This section provides learners with new tools and strategies for foreign language learning, which promotes learners' autonomy in language learning. This section also gives them opportunities to discuss their previous experiences of language learning.

Each lesson proceeds according to a four-stage learning cycle that was modified from Wright and Bolitho (1993) and Borg (1994). The Pre-task introduces the theme of the lesson to the learners and makes them think what they already know about the topic. The second stage gives more information about the topic and learners are expected to make their own observations about the theme of the lesson. The application stage makes learners put their knowledge into practice with, for example, creative projects, small-scale research projects or writing tasks. The final stage concentrates on reflection of what has been experienced and learned during the lesson. Self and peer evaluation are used here. In addition, learners are encouraged to consider and discuss further questions related to the theme.

The structure of this study proceeds from a theoretical discussion of LA towards practical implications of LA work in first and foreign language classrooms. It begins by introducing the reader to the background of the LA movement: the need for explicit teaching and reflection on language in foreign language learning and the failure of the communicative approach in providing learners with explicit knowledge of language. The next section defines LA and some of

the related concepts. The following section discusses the scope of LA by first reviewing five domains of LA and then evaluating both the objectives and the effects of LA work from the point of view of these five domains.

The practical aspects of LA work are discussed in the next section, which first looks at the place of LA work in the curriculum, then characterises LA methodology and presents the previous LA course contents. Finally, it introduces the learning cycle as a means of making learners more aware of language. The specific objectives, target groups and major decisions concerning this material package are explained in the next section followed by the material package with LA activities for secondary school. The final section of this study looks back to what has been done and how the objectives of the study were reached.

2 BACKGROUND FOR LANGUAGE AWARENESS

Foreign language teaching has not always met the demands that have been placed on it. One of the attempts to solve the problems in language teaching has been the LA movement with the new perspective it offers to language teaching. This chapter will shed light on the background for LA. At first, the question about explicit and implicit knowledge and their role in foreign language teaching will be discussed. It is argued that explicit teaching and becoming aware of language has an important role in language learning and that reflection on language is an important element in foreign language teaching. These two ideas, among others, contributed to LA movement. The history and the present state of this movement will be presented next briefly. Finally, the major reasons for the need for LA will be outlined. These include the poor results of the British schools in the early 1980s and the limitations of the communicative approach.
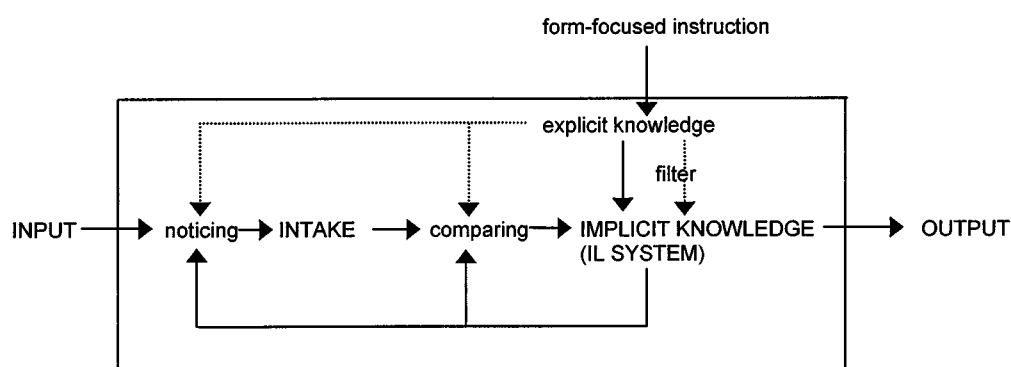
2.1 Explicit teaching in foreign language learning

In Second Language Acquisition research field, two kinds of language knowledge are distinguished. They are referred to as implicit and explicit knowledge. Ellis (1997a:109-110) explains the meaning of the terms. Implicit knowledge is knowledge of language, whereas explicit knowledge refers to knowledge about language, particularly learners' second language. Explicit knowledge is further divided into two types of knowledge: metalanguage and analysed knowledge of language. Metalanguage is the language used to analyse or describe language and it is learnt through instruction or observation. Analysed knowledge of language, on the other hand, is located between metalanguage and implicit knowledge. It includes structures of which one is aware, but not necessarily conscious of. This knowledge is derived from implicit knowledge.

In relation to first language learning, Richmond (1990:27) points out that implicit knowledge is the most important knowledge, because human life is not long enough to obtain explicit knowledge about language. Therefore, in his view, language competence is implicit knowledge put into use. The task of the

language teacher, then, is to help to develop learners' implicit knowledge through explicit knowledge of language (van Essen 1997:6).

The process by which instruction and explicit knowledge affects the development of implicit knowledge is explained by Ellis' (1997b:114-123) weak interface model (Figure 1).

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                                    form-focused instruction
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                                              v
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       │     ┌···························┐ explicit knowledge    │
       │     ┆                          ┆        ┊              │
       │     ┆                          ┆      filter           │
       │     v                          v        v              │
INPUT──┼─▶ noticing─▶ INTAKE ──▶ comparing─▶ IMPLICIT KNOWLEDGE ┼─▶ OUTPUT
       │     ▲                    ▲              (IL SYSTEM)     │
       │     └────────────────────┘                             │
       └──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 1. The relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge. (Ellis, 1997b:123)

According to this model, explicit knowledge, which is obtained through formal instruction, may, but does not usually, convert into implicit second language knowledge. The condition for this to occur is that learners have reached a level of development that enables them to accommodate the new linguistic material. If this happens, the learners' existing knowledge forms a kind of filter which lets through only that part of explicit knowledge that they are ready to take into their interlanguage system. James and Garrett (1991:19) explain the relationship between noticing and learning by drawing a parallel between noticing and becoming aware. In their view, learning can only take place when learners notice (or become aware) of what they do not know yet.

Although there is not clear evidence that form-focused language teaching, which attempts to develop learners' implicit knowledge through explicit knowledge, results in a high level of competence in some cases, it might do so (Ellis 1997b:71). However, it does help learners to acquire language features that are already part of their implicit knowledge and thus accelerate the progress through developmental sequences.

One way of developing learners' explicit knowledge of second language features is by means of direct explanation or by tasks that help learners to develop their explicit knowledge (Ellis, 1997b:149, 160). Ellis calls these tasks consciousness-raising tasks. These serve for raising awareness and understanding of the target language properties. These tasks are not designed to lead directly to the correct use of the language but to achieve a representation of the target language item. In other words, consciousness-raising tasks promote reflection on the target language. Richmond (1990:35) points out that reflection on the target language, however, only supports language competence. The essential influence is from competence to reflection.

These two elements in language teaching, the use of explicit knowledge and reflection on language, form the basis for LA movement that has influenced language teaching especially in Great Britain.

2.2 A brief history of Language Awareness

Though LA in its present form was introduced only two decades ago, the origin of LA has been traced back to as far as to the eighteenth century and to W. von Humbolt (1767-1835). One of the basic ideas of LA is that language learning should not be considered as a product but a process originates from him (van Essen, 1997:1). Later on, in the late 1930s, A.J. Schneiders published a paper introducing 'language understanding' (*taalbegrip*) and argued for language understanding in language learning (van Lier, 1996:79). These two ideas, language learning as a process and the need for knowledge about language form the basis for contemporary LA movement.

The use of the term 'awareness of language' (more recently LA) goes back to M.A.K. Halliday, who introduced the term in his book entitled '*Language in Use*' in the 1970s (Dufva 1993:11; Hawkins 1987:50). Yet, the LA movement started only in the early 1980s in the UK with no obvious links to the old ideas of von Humbolt and Schneiders (van Essen 1997:4). At that time, there was a renewed interest especially in mother tongue teaching because of the poor results both in English and foreign languages (Gnutzmann 1997:65; Jaakkola

1997:28). As a consequence, a more systematic and efficient language teaching was called for (van Lier 1996: 78). The basic ideas of LA, however, have already existed before the 1980s around Europe, only under other names (Gnutzmann 1997:66).

Hawkins' (1987) pioneering work on LA forms the foundation of the British LA movement. He recommended LA work beginning from primary school and extending it to secondary school to enhance the study of languages. Moreover, he called for more co-operation between mother tongue and foreign language teaching and LA as a link between these two.

At present the LA movement has a secure position in Britain and there are many courses for both teachers and pupils with a clear LA orientation. Donmall (1991b:2) reports that as early as in the mid-80s ten percent of all schools in Britain offered LA-oriented courses for their students, and their number has probably increased since. There are also many associations and publications focusing on LA matters. The LA movement has spread to other countries as well. In the USA there is a closely related movement called The Whole Language movement that stresses multifaceted language experience in schools. This movement is most powerful during the early elementary school years with a great emphasis on teaching literary skills. In contrast to British LA it lacks connections to later mother tongue and foreign language teaching (van Lier 1996:78).

2.3 Rationale for Language Awareness

John Trimm, the ex-chairman of the Centre for Information on Language Learning and Research (CILT), once wrote that "the man in the street is better informed about nuclear physics, cosmology and genetics than about language he uses and hears all day every day" (quoted by Mittins 1991:18). If this really is the case, we should have all the reasons for introducing LA in schools. Furthermore, Donmall (1991a:113) claims that especially the more able learners would be eager to explore language if they were only given an opportunity to do it. Thus, it seems that there is both need and eagerness in schools for LA.

Due to the situation in British schools in the early 1980s Hawkins (1987:12-18) considered LA as a possible solution. His list of defects of language teaching is long. In mixed-ability groups children's verbal skills varied a lot, depending on the linguistic environment the children had grown in, and the reading ability and literacy of many school-leavers was indeed very poor. Besides, many students had prejudice against minority languages in Britain. Furthermore, Hawkins pointed out that there was too little co-operation between foreign language and mother tongue teachers. In addition, foreign language teaching needed to be revived because universities no longer demanded some knowledge of a foreign language and studying them at school became less popular.

However, the need for renewed foreign language teaching is not restricted to the UK and their problems at that time. Gnutzmann (1997:71) lists more general reasons for the need for LA outside Britain. First, language performance in schools outside the UK is not sufficient, either. Secondly, students' linguistic knowledge of language in general is unsatisfactory and thirdly, there are limitations in the communicative approach in teaching foreign languages. Gnutzmann (1997:69-70) criticises the communicative approach in foreign language teaching. In his opinion, the communicative approach stresses the oral communicative ability too much and consequently largely neglects linguistic awareness. He suggests 'thinking about language', which he defines as "considering the relations between mother tongue and foreign language, both inside and outside the classroom" (1997:70). 'Thinking about language' should begin as early as in primary school. Gnutzmann also points out that reflecting on language has to take place in a cultural context and should therefore be related to intercultural learning.

3 DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE AWARENESS

The previous chapter related LA to the current views of foreign language teaching and described the context in which LA movement was born. The purpose of this chapter is to give the reader a clear understanding of the concept LA, what is meant by it and how it differs from other related terms used. To begin with, the various definitions for the term will be discussed and evaluated from the viewpoint of this study. Next, some terms related to LA will be defined and compared to LA. These include metalinguistic awareness, consciousness and consciousness-raising and Critical Language Awareness.

3.1 Definitions of Language Awareness

The difficulty of defining LA does not lie primarily in the various interpretations and meanings researchers have given to it but rather in their unwillingness to give a clear definition for the concept. Diversity in the terms researchers use to refer to the same idea further complicate the task of defining LA. The most frequently occurring terms are LA and Knowledge about Language. Sometimes a distinction is made between these two, but often they are used interchangeably (van Essen 1997:1). The more common term LA will be used in this study. The various definitions of LA are here classified according to several criteria: what 'language' refers to, what is the nature and scope of LA, what are its objectives and finally what kind of learners it is meant for.

It seems that consciousness and explicit knowledge about language characterise the nature of LA in many definitions. The Language Awareness Working Party set up by the National Congress on Language in Education (NCLE) to promote discussion about language teaching defined LA already in 1982 as "a person's sensitivity and conscious perception about the nature of language and its role in human life" (quoted by Donmall 1991a:108). Similarly, McCarthy (1994:1) refers to LA as "conscious knowledge about language, language use and language learning". The most recent definition of LA by the Association for

Language Awareness (ALA) (quoted by Donmall-Hicks 1997:21) also sees LA as "conscious perception" of language.

James (1996:139-140), however, wants to make a clear distinction between consciousness and awareness. For him, LA is "the possession of metacognitions about language in general, some bit of language or a particular language over which one already has skilled control and a coherent set of intuitions". James emphasises the previous knowledge and skills of learners. Although these learners have "metacognitions" of some language skills, they need to become aware of them through LA work. As a result, LA should encourage and help learners to refine and enlarge their language use capacity and help them to achieve the potential they have. In other words, LA is for James a characteristic of competent (though not necessarily native) speakers who already master a skill but which they before LA work have exercised unaware. In contrast, consciousness is according to James (1997:141) drawing learners' attention to what they must learn. Raising consciousness is thus an activity that develops learners' ability to notice discrepancy between what they presently know and what would be necessary to learn.

Another characterising feature of LA appears to be explicitness. Both James (1997:139-140) and ALA (cited by Donmall-Hicks 1997:21) define LA as explicit knowledge. James points out that LA work involves making learners' tacit knowledge explicit and ALA defines LA as "explicit knowledge about language [...], conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use". This explicit knowledge of language may either refer to Ellis' (1997a:109-110) metalanguage used to analyse and describe language or analysed knowledge of language closer to implicit knowledge. Essentially, becoming aware of language means that the implicit knowledge to which learners resort when using the language becomes more explicit. As a consequence, learners will be more able to analyse language and give reasons for how they use language.

The scope of LA seems to be less clear. Such things as language in general, a particular language, language use, language learning and language teaching have

been taken up in various definitions as the scope of LA. As 'awareness of language' often appears in the definitions, it is important to make it clear what 'language' refers to. One has to distinguish clearly whether it refers to languages in general (generic sense) or to a particular language (specific sense) (James and Garrett 1991:6, Rastall 1996:114). The only definition that states clearly to which of these it is referring is that of James (1997:139-140). He sees the scope of LA to be alternatively either "language in general, some bit of language or a particular language". In other definitions by NCLE, McCarthy and ALA there is room for interpretations. Hales' (1997:217) definition, on the contrary, could refer only to a particular language, since he defines LA as sensitising learners to "grammatical, lexical or phonological features and the effect on meaning brought about by the use of different forms". These features of language are language specific so the generic sense of language is not possible.

In addition to language, LA work focuses on learners' increased awareness of language learning and language teaching. McCarthy's definition of LA is made for designing LA courses for learners and thus only it mentions awareness of language learning as a goal of LA work. The definition by ALA is, on the contrary, teacher-oriented and consequently proposes awareness of language teaching.

LA has also been defined in terms of its objectives. Hawkins (1987:4) takes a practical view by identifying what LA should do rather than what it is. His suggestions concern primarily 10-14 year-old English pupils who are about to start studying a foreign language. The aim of LA is to make the transition from primary school to secondary school easier, especially the onset of foreign language study. LA should also bridge the space between different language curricula, especially English as the mother tongue and the foreign language teaching. Ultimately, LA should make pupils ask questions about language. It also has an important role in diminishing linguistic prejudice, which according to Hawkins can be done by open discussions on language.

LA work in classrooms can be classified according to what kind of groups of pupils it is aimed at. James and Garrett (1991:4-5) distinguish three types of LA.

Firstly, LA work can refer to work conducted with a group of learners sharing a mother tongue. In this case, LA work focuses on making pupils more aware of the intuitions they have about their mother tongue and through this making their implicit knowledge explicit. Secondly, in multicultural and multilingual classrooms, the objective of LA is to make learners able to express their own implicit knowledge about their mother tongue explicitly, but it is equally important to make them aware of each other's explicit knowledge. In this way, the multicultural class can learn something about all the languages spoken in the classroom by comparing them. Between these two types of LA work, there is a third type of LA aimed at foreign language learners. Its focus is on making learners aware of both their mother tongue and of the foreign language. For this purpose James and Garrett recommend Contrastive Analysis conducted by students themselves to highlight the differences and similarities of these languages.

For the purpose of this study a specific definition is needed above all to make the definition of goals and contents of a LA course easier. None of the definitions given above as such fulfil this purpose: to be specific enough in both defining what awareness is and what one should become aware of. Therefore a synthesis of the previous definitions is made to achieve a suitable definition for the purpose of this study.

As noted above, the nature of awareness is best characterised by consciousness and explicitness. These two terms serve as the basis for defining awareness. Awareness refers to becoming more conscious of something one already has some knowledge of. This previous knowledge becomes more explicit as the process of becoming aware proceeds. In other words, LA work could transform learners' vague ideas about language to understanding of it. 'Language' in this study refers to both language in the general sense and to language in the specific sense. Particular languages are needed as examples to illustrate the nature of language in general. Apart from language in general and the use of a particular language as an example of it, the scope of LA covers language learning. Language teaching as a content area of LA is left out from the definition because the course is designed for learners.

3.2 Other related terms

Metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness (or linguistic awareness) is one of the terms used in connection with LA. Pratt and Grieve (1984:2) define metalinguistic awareness as the "ability to think and reflect upon the nature and functions of language". Although the definition of metalinguistic awareness appears to be very close to the definition of LA, there is, however, a distinction between these two terms. The most salient difference to LA is that metalinguistic awareness is linked to early first language development, whereas LA deals with both first language and foreign language learning at a later age.

Metalinguistic awareness is seen as something that begins to develop automatically in children aged 6-8 when they are learning their first language. However, even two-year-olds have been reported to have some metalinguistic abilities (McCarthy 1997:211). The metalinguistic abilities in children are expressed for example in their ability to play with language (van Lier 1991:75).

There are three areas in which metalinguistic awareness is considered to be of considerable importance: early (first) language development, learning to read, and cognitive development (Pratt and Grieve 1984:7-9). However, in language production it does not seem to be as important (Jaakkola 1997:27). Bilingual children are said to have improved metalinguistic abilities due to their exposure to two languages which they can compare (McCarthy 1994:3; Jaakkola 1997:27). McCarthy (1997:212) reports that also a limited contact to other languages may promote metalinguistic abilities and as a result, also foreign language learning.

To sum up, the difference between metalinguistic awareness and LA is that metalinguistic awareness is part of normal human development and mother tongue learning, whereas LA is part of school pedagogy aiming at enhancing and making use of the already existing metalinguistic awareness of language (Jaakkola 1997:29).

Consciousness and consciousness-raising. Awareness is determined by van Lier (1996:74) as the perceptual component of consciousness. Schmidt (1994, quoted by van Lier 1996:69-70) distinguishes four levels of consciousness:

(i) **Intention**: something is done consciously, 'on purpose', 'intentionally', in contrast to incidental learning.

(ii) **Attention**: attention calls for noticing and focusing consciously on what one perceives.

(iii) **Awareness**: awareness could be seen as 'having knowledge of' something or 'knowing the rules' of something.

(iv) **Control**: conscious control of something means automatization of a skill.

These various levels are not separate but they intersect and overlap in the learning process. In other words, LA is part of consciousness, one level in the continuum from intention to control. Snow (1976:154, quoted in James 1996:141) considers awareness as a crucial stage towards mastery of a skill: learning a foreign language is becoming conscious of what one does not know yet.

The functions of consciousness are to organise, control and evaluate learning experiences (van Lier 1996:69-70). Without consciousness it would be impossible to realise the conditions of language learning which make the progress towards proficiency possible. In addition, the processes of language learning, e.g. memorising, comprehending and creative language use, require the involvement of consciousness.

In the USA, **consciousness-raising** refers to form-focused language teaching (van Lier 1996:80). Although van Lier suggests that some of the work done under consciousness-raising might be simply another term for traditional grammar teaching, Rutherford (1987:154-5) wants to make a clear distinction between an organic 'grammar-driven pedagogical programme' and traditional grammar teaching, which is mechanistic. In traditional grammar teaching grammar is treated as an end itself whereas in consciousness-raising it is only a facilitator of learning. The goal of consciousness-raising tasks, which are part of indirect explicit grammar instruction, is to increase learners' explicit knowledge of grammatical structures (Ellis 1997a:160).

James (1996:141) widens the meaning of consciousness-raising from grammar teaching to other fields of foreign language teaching. He defines consciousness-raising as an activity that develops language learners' ability to locate and identify discrepancy between the present state of knowledge and the goal of learning. The aim of consciousness-raising, then, is to give the learner an insight into what he or she does not know yet and therefore needs to be learned.

The connection between LA and consciousness-raising for foreign language learners is based on Thomas' (1983, quoted in James 1996:141) distinction between two kinds of shortcomings of foreign language learners. Foreign language learners, who have pragmalinguistic failures (i.e. who lack the linguistic means to express meanings) need consciousness-raising for learning the right usage of a linguistic form. In contrast, learners with sociopragmatic failures do have the means to convey a meaning, but they should learn to use language appropriately. These learners would most benefit from LA work. However, distinguishing these two from each other is not necessary. Rather, they can complement each other in the curriculum (James 1996:141). In the beginning, consciousness-raising should be a major part of foreign language learning and LA work included in the mother tongue teaching. Later on, when the learners' competence in the foreign language grows, they will also need LA work and the mother tongue learning will make use of the enhanced consciousness in foreign language learning.

Critical Language Awareness. Critical Language Awareness can be considered a further aspect of LA (van Lier 1996:82). Critical Language Awareness movement mostly agrees with the basic assumptions of LA but LA is accused of not being sufficiently critical to language (Fairclough 1992:1). Critical Language Awareness also wants to widen the perspective of awareness from schools to other domains of education. A more critical awareness of language is needed because power relations in society are increasingly exercised through language (Fairclough 1992:6).

Ivanič (1990:123-126) explains the basic tenets of Critical Language Awareness. Critical Language Awareness rejects the non-critical view of

language, which means either understanding language as patterns or considering functions of language more important than its patterns. The critical view of language is visualised in Figure 3.
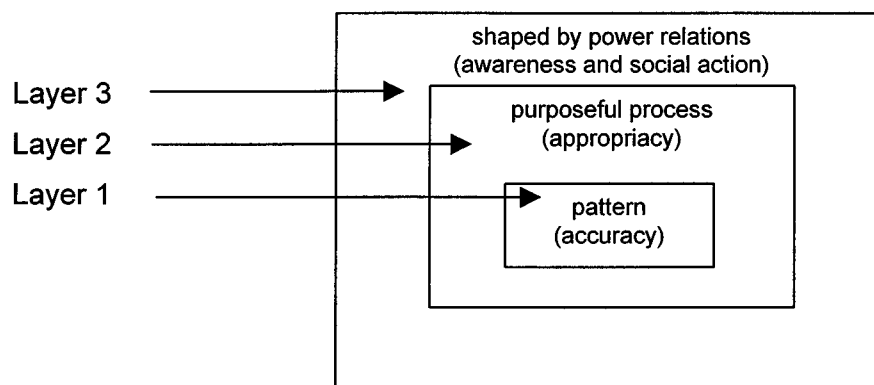
Figure 3. A critical view of language. (Ivanič 1990:126)

The critical view of language consists of three layers, which acknowledge language as patterns, the role of purposeful practise and the critical dimension that is applied to all language use. The first layer consists of language as patterns, which is linked with the accuracy of language use. The second layer, purposeful practise, emphasises the importance of learning appropriate language use. The third layer of Critical Language Awareness takes into consideration the role of language in shaping our view of society. Language is seen as a means of constructing and sustaining identity.

4 SCOPE OF LANGUAGE AWARENESS

The definitions of LA were discussed in the previous chapter with some related terms. This chapter aims at further defining LA by presenting the five domains of LA suggested by James and Garrett (1991:12-20). The chapter begins by a brief outline of what is meant by these domains. In the following sections, both the objectives and the effects of LA work will be discussed in terms of these domains. The second section comments on the objectives of LA work and the final section presents what has been reported to be the effects of LA work.

4.1 Domains of Language Awareness

When we consider what learners should become aware of, the domains of LA introduced by James and Garrett (1991:12-20) are of great help. They describe five domains that could be affected through LA work. They are the affective, social, 'power', cognitive and the performance domains. The scope of each domain will be explained below.

The affective domain views language as a personal experience for its users and learners. Language learning is not only a cognitive struggle but learning also happens with the heart. Forming attitudes, sensitivity, curiosity and interest can also specify the affective aspect of LA. Moreover, learners' affective involvement is a motivating factor for the learners: a feeling of personal relevance enhance learning. The consequences of the neglect of the affective domain in foreign language teaching are commented by Dufva (1993:16). Learning a foreign language has been for many a fearsome and unpleasant experience, which should not be the case. Positive feelings about language and language learning are equally important in language learning as in any other learning.

The social domain is related to the various ethnic groups in societies due to the global migration. LA could diminish the frictions between the ethnic groups by aiming at greater tolerance for speakers of other languages or language varieties.

Thus, 'linguistic diversity' is a central concept within the social aspect of LA work.

The 'power' domain determines the relationship between language and power. The idea of language as a means of manipulation and power originates from Latin America and Paolo Freire. In question of language learners, the 'power' domain should give them tools to interpret, understand and read hidden meanings in language, of which there are many examples especially in the language of the media and politics. The 'power' domain has won special attention among in the Critical Language Awareness discussed in section 3.2.

The cognitive domain stresses the cognitive advantages of LA: it should develop learners' awareness of patterns, contrast, system and rules of language. In addition to forms, learners should also be made aware of functions of language. The analytic dimension of LA is important: language is seen as a legitimate object of study, comparable to other school subjects. The danger of the cognitive domain is according to Dufva (1993:18) that learners are lectured about linguistics, which is not quite in the spirit of LA work. Rather, the starting point for LA work should be learners' own observations on language.

The crucial question within **the performance domain** of LA is whether LA improves learners' performance or command of language. Unfortunately, so far no one has been able to give a clear answer to this but researchers are optimistic, though tentative about this (for example McCarthy 1994:1; Gnutzmann 1997:22). Generally, a philosophical view of the justification of LA is adopted: just as biology does not have to prove that it has led to improved crop, likewise LA is self-justifying as such (James and Garrett 1991:18). Thinking and learning to talk about language is valuable in itself.

4.2 Objectives of Language Awareness

The affective domain has been said to be the most important domain in LA work together with the cognitive domain (Rinvolucri 1984:52, cited by James and Garrett 1991:13; Borg 1994:62). Therefore many of the aims in LA work

can be traced back to this domain. Hawkins (1987:6) defines the objectives of LA by saying:

> We are seeking to light fires of curiosity about the central human characteristic of language, which will blaze throughout our pupils' lives. While combating linguistic complacency, we are seeking to arm our pupils against fear of unknown, which breeds prejudice and antagonism. Above all we want to make our pupils' contacts with language, both their own and their neighbours, richer, more interesting, simply more fun.

Curiosity about language phenomena is also taken up by others (Donmall 1991a:117; Parsonage 1991:30). Wright and Bolitho's (1993:299) goal of developing an open attitude to language that would last far beyond the course is indeed an ambitious one. Although it may appear that changing learners' attitudes to language and language learning is of minor importance there is no need to underestimate learners' affective involvement and interest in language.

The social and power domains have not gained much interest in existing LA course objectives, although Hawkins (1987:6) in his pioneering book on LA considers LA as a powerful tool in diminishing prejudice against ethnic minorities and various minority language groups. The social domain is taken up to some extent in LA courses that deal with language variety or dialects (such as Parsonage 1991, Tinkel 1991, Mittins 1991). The power domain has mostly been left to Critical Language Awareness movement (see section 3.2), which quite with reason criticises LA for not taking the relationship between language and power seriously enough.

Some important points for Finnish language learners concerning the 'power domain' are made by Dufva (1993:17). Firstly, she calls for a critical attitude to European culture and languages, which learners often tend to prefer to their own languages and cultures and consider them 'the right way' of doing things. Secondly, the role of the English language in the research of language learning and teaching is too strong. Learning a foreign language is not always learning English. Thirdly, we have to get rid of the idea that native speakers set the standards for competence, whose language learners have to try to imitate as far

as they can. Language teaching has to acknowledge the fact that native speakers also make mistakes and that there is great variation in language forms.

Many of the objectives of LA courses fall under **the cognitive domain** especially because LA is said to bring its own justification by being intellectually challenging and fun as such (James and Garrett 1991:311). Yet, it is claimed that there are also other cognitive gains as a result of LA work. Donmall (1991a:116) suggests that language learners should develop their descriptive knowledge about language. Moreover, if the major aim in education is to learn one's mother tongue or a foreign language, it is then important for learners to learn to notice the differences between various language systems and the use of different forms (James and Garrett 1991:12). Furthermore, it is important for learners to be able to analyse objectively their choices concerning language form and function and to assess their own speech and writing (James and Garrett 1991:12).

The relationship between LA and language performance, i.e. **the performance domain**, is not especially highlighted in LA course objectives. The reason is that the effect of LA on performance is believed to be at the most indirect (McCarthy 1994:1) and that LA is considered, at least partly, self-justifying (James and Garrett 1991:18). Yet, McCarthy (1997:214) reports that his LA syllabus is designed to increase learners' "competence and confidence in using language". One should, however, make a clear distinction between improved competence and increased confidence. James and Garrett (1991:12) point out that instead of enhanced language performance, the emphasis should be rather on the learners' possibility to achieve the highest levels of language competence that is within their reach. Dufva (1993:18) suggests that LA should help learners identify their own strengths, gifts and skills in language learning. Learning a language should happen in line with the learner's personal needs.

A less disputed area of the performance domain is learner training. McCarthy (1994:4-5) proposes that pupils who have previous contacts with foreign languages have already developed foreign language learning strategies to cope with the language study. The aim of a LA course is to make learners aware of

these strategies and provide them with new ones. In addition, some awareness of first language learning is considered important (Parsonage 1991:30; Donmall 1991a:116).

4.3 Effects of Language Awareness

It is generally acknowledged that LA has positive effects on language learning though the concrete effects are said to be indirect and not easily measurable (McCarthy 1997:214; Pohl 1994:151). Despite this, there are reported positive effects on all of the five domains.

The affective domain refers to learners' attitudes, sensitivity and interest in language and language learning. There is considerable evidence on the effect of learners' affective state to language learning (see e.g. Ellis 1994:479-). For example, despite changes in attitude, finding a notable effect on behaviour may be difficult. James and Garrett (1991:313) explain why this is the case. Attitudes consist of three components: the cognitive component, affective component and action. In spite of a measurable effect on one component, there may not be any visible benefits on behaviour. However, changes in the affective domain should not be considered of less value compared to benefits in other domains. Therefore, it is worth noting that a positive attitude may be longer-lasting than a typical gain in the performance domain such as acquired knowledge for an exam (Baker 1988, cited by James and Garrett 1991:313).

The impact of LA to **the social and power domains** is rather tentative, which is a consequence of the fact that these domains have to some extent been overlooked in setting the goals of LA courses. For future studies on this area James and Garrett (1991:314-315) suggest the study of social networks. They hypothesise that the positive effects of the social and power domains may change interaction and friendship patterns between different ethnic groups. They also recommend teaching of cross-cultural communication awareness to prohibit misunderstandings due to communication differences between different linguistic groups.

The effect of LA on **the cognitive domain** is primarily improvement in intellectual functioning. Yet, these gains appear to be difficult to quantify (James and Garrett 1991:311). Despite the enhanced cognitive functioning bilinguals have been reported to have through their exposure to two languages, there remains doubts whether LA work alone can bring about the same cognitive gains. In case of foreign language learners, James and Garrett (1991:310-311) suggest that the effects brought by foreign language learning might be qualitatively and quantitatively different from those of bilinguals. Dufva (1993:18) reminds that guiding learners to perceive linguistic rules and structures provides learners with tools for learning new cognitive skills and strategies.

The effects of LA on the **performance domain** are believed to be positive though possibly indirect and difficult to measure (McCarthy 1994:1). James and Garrett (1991:19) offer a deficit view of LA to explain the positive effects LA might have on language performance. They suggest that language learning takes place only when learners notice (or become aware of) the mismatch between their own language production and their linguistic models. Yet, waiting for direct gains from LA on performance is contradictory: if LA means becoming aware of what one already knows there is no reason to expect LA to improve language performance (James and Garrett 1991:18). Despite this, some kind of practical gains are hoped for instead of accepting that the study of language could have justification in itself (James and Garrett 1991:18). If one in spite of this wishes to measure the effects of LA on language performance, it should be done across curriculum in the same way as LA should be taught (James and Garrett 1991:312).

In short, as James and Garrett (1991:12) point out, the temptation of offering LA as an alternative language learning method has to be strongly avoided. Moreover, the instrumental benefits of LA such as improved proficiency should not be considered more important than improved attitude and heightened awareness.

5 TEACHING LANGUAGE AWARENESS

The previous chapters have focused on discussing LA outside of the classroom context by defining it from various points of views. This chapter takes LA closer to the reality and practical work in language classrooms. First, the role of LA in the curriculum will be discussed. It is argued that LA should bridge the gap between mother tongue and foreign language learning. Second, the most important features of LA methodology will be described. In addition, the elements of good LA activities will be presented. Third, the content areas of the previous LA courses carried out abroad will be commented on and classified into three major themes. Finally, the concept of a four-stage task cycle in teaching LA will be introduced.

5.1 Language Awareness in language curriculum

If LA is considered an important element of curriculum, there needs to be discussion on its role in relation to other school subjects. Hawkins (1987:41) compares the modern language curriculum to the medieval trivium in language teaching, where the elements of syllabus were grammar, logic and rhetoric. Similarly, the modern language curriculum should consist of mother tongue teaching, LA and foreign language teaching. The purpose of LA is to function as a bridge between the two languages that otherwise are taught separately. More support for Hawkins' ideas comes from McCarthy (1997:213) who points out that there is a great deal of overlap in language syllabi, especially when foreign languages form an important part of the language curriculum. In this situation, LA could provide a more co-ordinated approach to language.

The role of LA in the curriculum could also be seen in an even broader context than that of the language curriculum. Language can be approached from the viewpoint of culture, society, history, politics or linguistics and in this way, language study becomes a cross-curricular theme, which brings together different subject teachers (Anderson 1991:134). Most importantly, it can deepen the understanding of language and stimulate interest in it. James and Garrett

(1991:309) go as far as claiming that if LA were not integrated in the curriculum it would easily become a marginal subject. The effects of a single LA course in the curriculum should, however, be considered with caution (Dufva 1993:15).

5.2 Language awareness methodology

LA methodology will be approached here from two perspectives. On the one hand, the general LA methodology will be characterised by six features that are fundamental to the LA work. On the other hand, LA methodology will be approached from the point of view of LA activities. This also serves as a checklist for designing LA tasks for learners.

5.2.1 Features of Language Awareness methodology

Practical LA work is best characterised by learner-centredness, process-orientation, the attempt to affect more than one domain of LA, real language as data of enquiry with a critical attitude to it, learner autonomy and finally, the new role of a teacher. The most characterising feature in LA work is learner-centredness (Andrews 1995:32; Gnutzmann 1997:72; Borg 1994:63). LA methodology relies mostly on learners doing tasks, which will also help them to learn the valuable skills of co-operation and interaction in pairs or small groups (Hawkins 1987:5; Borg, 1994:64). The tasks learners carry out focus on language inquiry because language learning is not seen as a passive process but an active one (Andrews 1995:33). This view of language requires inductive teaching methods (Andrews 1995:32). However, because of learners' different learning preferences and styles deductive teaching should not be totally dismissed (Borg 1996:122). The centrality of the learner also determines the topics covered during a LA course. Instead of introducing what the linguistics or the teacher feels to be the basic problems in linguistics the themes should be chosen on the basis of their relevance to the learners (Pohl 1994:157; Salkie 1994:32; Parsonage 1991:30).

Although LA courses rely heavily on performing tasks that promote awareness of language, the focus is not on the outcome of activities (Borg 1994:62; van

Essen 1997:8). More important than the increased knowledge about language achieved during a LA task or the right answer is the process of learning itself. As a consequence, the variability in learner task outcomes is valued positively (Borg 1994:63). It is therefore acceptable that some learners have only superficial experiences on language whereas others might go through a major upheaval in their thinking (Dufva 1993:21). Learning takes place primarily as a result of their own exploration of language and discussions about it with other learners (Borg 1994:64).

LA methodology stresses that the tasks should not only concentrate on one domain of LA but they should involve learners equally much cognitively, affectively and socially (Wright and Bolitho 1993: 299; Gnutzmann 1997:72; Borg 1994:62). Especially learners' beliefs are considered central in LA. Foreign language learners all have experiences in language learning that they bring with them to the learning situation (Borg 1996:120; Parsonage 1991:30). Since these previous beliefs and attitudes have a considerable effect on learning, it is essential to take them into account in teaching (Dufva 1993:14; Ellis 1994:472). The consideration of beliefs makes it possible for learners to reconsider and possibly to form new insights into language (Wright and Bolitho 1993:299). The affective involvement of learners can be increased by discussions with the peers in the class, where learners can share their opinions and at the same time have meaningful communication (Gnutzmann 1997:72; Borg 1994:62).

The best data for LA work is authentic language with a real-life purpose. The advantage of this kind of data is that it emphasises meaning (Andrews 1995:32). In addition, these texts provide examples of real language use and allow comparison with other data sources (Wright and Bolitho 1993:294). The prescriptive approach to language with language rules and the 'right' use of language is not appropriate in LA (Borg 1994:64). Ideally, the tasks make learners ask question about language, which will make them better learners and increase their analytic skills (Wright and Bolitho 1993:299).

Ultimately, LA tasks should encourage learners to become autonomous learners (Dufva 1993:21; Borg 1996:122). Learners' autonomy can be supported by teaching them strategies that make it possible for them to explore and analyse language on their own beyond the formal language instruction (Dufva 1993:21; Borg 1996:122). As a result, these reflective users of language are free to make linguistic choices and they are not constrained by their limited language competence (Andrews 1995:33). The opportunity LA offers for discussion and evaluation of one's own learning increases learners' autonomy by giving them understanding of how the learning process could be more effective (Borg 1994:62).

The central features of LA methodology bring about changes to the traditional role of a teacher in the language classroom. First, maybe most importantly, teachers themselves should be aware of language and understand the value of LA work. For this purpose, there have been many LA courses intended for either teachers or teacher trainees (e.g. Hales 1997, Wright 1991, Wright and Bolitho 1993, Borg 1994). The promoters of these courses claim that even experienced teachers are not necessarily aware of language and that they have insufficient explicit knowledge about language (Wright and Bolitho 1993:299; James and Garrett 1991:11). Therefore, these courses have focused foremost on increasing teachers' own awareness of language.

Second, to be able to start planning a LA-oriented course or language syllabus, teachers have to be familiar with the LA methodology features. The ones that affect the teacher's role in LA classroom most are learner-centredness and process-orientation. The role of the teachers changes from a distributor of knowledge to an assistant of learning who negotiates different meanings together with the learners (Dufva 1993:19-20). The process-orientation in LA classroom calls for a new attitude to the varying learner outcomes. If the process of learning is valued more than the final outcome of the task the learners produce, this attitude should be reflected in teachers' evaluation of the pupils' LA activities.

As seen above, many of the most important features in LA methodology are already familiar to language teachers. In spite of some differences in LA methodology compared to traditional language teaching, LA is not primarily meant to be a new teaching method but rather an attempt to offer a fresh approach to language learning (Dufva 1993:11).

5.2.2 Elements of good Language Awareness activities

A very practical view to teaching LA is taken up by Wright and Bolitho (1993:300-304). They introduce four elements which good LA activities consist of. With them they wish to demonstrate how the process of becoming aware proceeds. The key elements are data sources, tasks, processes and modes. The way these four elements work together in LA tasks is explained in Figure 3.
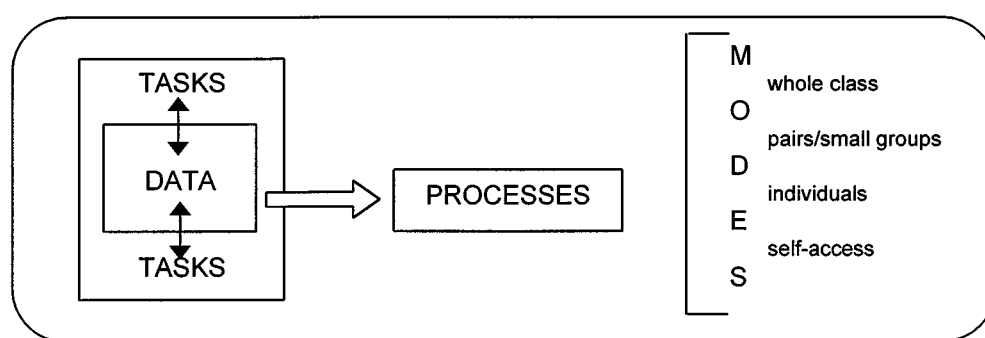
Figure 3. LA activities: main elements. (Wright and Bolitho 1993:301)

Language data, which form the basis for LA activities, fall into two categories: information about language and samples of language. Information about language can be obtained from example from dictionaries, grammars, learners' own "internal grammar" and linguistic descriptions. As samples of language one can use authentic texts from the media, literature, songs, textbook extracts, learners' own spoken or written language and specially written materials. The tasks, for which the sources of data are exploited, can consist of analysing, comparing sources, evaluating and prioritising or choosing, identifying, classifying or sorting, explaining, and answering questions. Carrying out these tasks involve questioning, discussing, applying, analogising, consulting, for example, an informant, a reference work or previous knowledge. It is also

possible that learners are made to guess, hypothesise, reflect, work in brainstorms, refine previous knowledge, visualise and negotiate with co-participants. The mode, or the way the tasks are carried out, varies from one situation to another. Possible options are individual work, pair or group work or working together with the whole class. The modes are also critical in this process since they allow participants to share insights, which is a part of the wider awareness-raising process. In these LA activities, language becomes the focal point of the process of awareness.

Although Wright and Bolitho's suggestions are originally meant to raise teacher trainees' awareness, they could be useful in designing material for learners, too. That is actually what Wright and Bolitho suggest their model to be used for.

5.3 Contents of Language Awareness courses

There are a number of proposals on how to organise a LA course and what themes to cover to reach the goals set for LA work. Some of these suggested course contents are discussed and compared to each other below. The aim is to come to a conclusion on what topics a good and effective LA course could cover.

It seems that there has been a switch from the original LA context, the space between mother tongue and foreign language teaching, to foreign language teaching. Donmall's (1991a:107) findings support this view. In a survey conducted in the 1980s the vast majority of LA courses in the UK were part of the foreign language teaching carried out by foreign language teachers rather than mother tongue teachers. None of the courses introduced here are reported to aim at linking mother tongue and foreign language teaching, as Hawkins (1987:41) originally proposed. Only one course, that by Mittins (1991), is designed to support mother tongue teaching. The rest of the courses are intended to be carried out hand in hand with foreign language learning (McCarthy 1994) or to act as a taster course introducing and enhancing the study of foreign languages (Hawkins 1987, Tinkel 1991, Parsonage 1991). Silvester's (1991) course is exceptional in respect of its target group: LA element is part of the first

year foreign language programme at the Portsmouth Polytechnic. The topics these courses cover are listed below in Table 1.

Table 1. LA course topics.

RESEARCHER	LA COURSE CONTENT	COURSE DESCRIPTION
Hawkins 1987:44-45	1) Language as communication 2) Acquisition of language 3) Language families 4) Autonomy of language – rules and patterns 5) The Golden Rules of learning	- enhancing the start of French of 11 year-olds
Mittins 1991:27 (based on and modified from Sinclair 1985:7)	Features of language: 1) Semantic dimension 2) Conventional and deviant language 3) creativity 4) stability and change 5) social variation 6) how to do things with language - pragmatics 7) the two-layered code – discourse 8) translation	- mother tongue teaching
Parsonage 1991:30-33	1) LA introductory module 2) Language acquisition 3) Language families 4) Language variety	- foreign language taster course at a middle school
Silvester 1991:222	1) Social context of language 2) Learning languages 3) Language as system	- first year foreign language students at the Portsmouth Polytechnic
Tinkel 1991:100-101	1) Definition of language - human communication - Sounds, stress, intonation 2) How a particular language system works - word classes - language structure - sentence and discourse structure 3) Language use - Meaning of words - Connotations - Speech acts - Dialects - Language change	- enhancing foreign language study of 16-17 year-olds
McCarthy 1994:5-6	1) Learning strategies 2) Existing language experiences 3) Common/distinct language features 4) Language learning 5) Influence of other languages	- foreign language learning for primary school pupils

Although there are differences in the goal and target groups of the courses the themes covered appear to be rather similar. The themes could be classified into three main sections: introducing the features of language, exploring the system of a particular language and finally, discussing language learning. The emphases of various courses are different and some of the themes are not covered at all during individual courses.

All of the courses include some discussion on the features of language. The term, features of language, originates from Mittins (1991) who founds his courses solely on this theme. The idea for this course design comes from Sinclair (1985:7, quoted in Mittins 1991:27) who proposed that these features of language are more suitable for learners to explore than arbitrariness, duality, productivity and discreteness presented by Lyons (1981) as the 'key' language features. These features of language include the semantic dimension of language, the use of conventional and deviant language, creativity in language use, the stability and change of language, the social variation within the language, "how to do things with language - pragmatics", "the two-layer code of language - discourse", and finally, translation.

Apart from Mittins' (1991) suggestions there are themes in other courses that go well with this frame. This major section could start, for example, with discussion about language as communication suggested by Hawkins (1987) and Tinkel (1991). Furthermore, Tinkel's (1991) section 'Language use' and the topics mentioned under it can be placed under the features of language by Mittins (1991), as well as Silvester's (1991) social context of language, Parsonage's (1991) language variety and McCarthy's (1994) influence of other languages.

The second major section is exploring the structure of a particular language. Tinkel (1991) and Silvester (1991) talk about "language system", Hawkins refers to "language rules and patterns". These topics include such things as word classes, inflection and gender of words and the sentence structure of a language. In other words, this section mostly deals with topics that are usually covered in traditional grammar teaching. However, as the approach to language is LA, the

methods of teaching and learning probably have to differ from what is traditionally understood by grammar teaching. What is new in LA is the contrastive view to language and its structures. In this approach the discussion about different language families, as suggested by Hawkins (1987), Parsonage (1991) and McCarthy (1994) is of great help in trying to understand some of the differences between languages.

The third section aims at enhancing learners' language learning skills. This section is covered in Hawkins' (1987), Parsonage's (1991), Silvester's (1991) and McCarthy's (1994) LA courses. Both first and second or foreign language learning are included with comparisons made between these two. In question of foreign language learners, a great emphasis is laid on learners' own previous experiences (Parsonage 1991, McCarthy 1994). McCarthy (1994:5) points out that it is essential to talk about these during LA courses. He suggests that learners can for example discuss what languages they find easy and which ones not so easy, how languages are learned and what learning strategies they themselves have used. They can also evaluate themselves as language learners. Silvester (1991:222) notes that LA courses could in this way provide learners with life-long learning skills.

5.4 Language Awareness task cycle

A LA task cycle is a useful way of describing how the process of becoming aware proceeds. For this purpose, there are two models that explain this through stages and at the same time, give a clear model for how LA tasks can be arranged in a task cycle consisting of successive stages with different aims for each one. These models will now be illustrated and compared to each other.

The two models by Wright and Bolitho (1993) and Borg (1994) presented here are both originally designed for the purpose of teacher training. Although they present LA from a language teacher's point of view, their ideas are equally well suited for language learners. In fact, some of the stages are meant to be experienced by teachers as learners might experience them. The third model by Aebli (1990) that is discussed here does not originate from LA research but it is

a general model for how learning could take place through a learning cycle. Aebli's (1990) suggestions are introduced here to give more support for Wright and Bolitho's (1993) and Borg's (1994) ideas and to illustrate how these two models reflect more general learning theories and pedagogy. These three models of a learning cycle are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2. Stages in teaching LA.

	Wright & Bolitho (1993)	Borg (1994)	Aebli (1990)
Stage 1	1) Analysing data and providing explanations	1) Pre-task questions	1) Problem solving
Stage 2	2) Consulting a grammar	2) Awareness of LA task	2) Getting deeper
Stage 3	3) Evaluating an exercise	3) Reflection and analysis	3) Practising and rehearsing
Stage 4	4) Designing a LA task	4) Follow-up	4) Applying

The first stage of a LA task cycle introduces the topic of the lesson. At this stage, the aim is to activate learners affectively by giving them an opportunity to share their beliefs and attitudes with others (Borg 1994:67). Borg (1994:62) notes that effective awareness-raising depends much on involving learners both cognitively and affectively since the cognitive challenge LA tasks offer is seldom enough to motivate learners. Aebli (1990:355) notes that by making learners ask questions motivation can be maintained until the answers are found during a later stage of the lesson. Discussions at this stage help learners clarify their own thoughts and help others clarify theirs on the topic of the lesson (Wright and Bolitho 1993: 294). No material for consulting or referring to is given at this stage but learners have to draw upon their existing knowledge and values.

The rationale for **the second stage** is to give learners new points of view to consider (Aebli 1990:350). Learners' attention is first drawn to a particular language feature, which should make them learn something new or reconsider their previous views on that issue (Borg 1994:67). Wright and Bolitho (1993:295) suggest comparing different data sources, such as various grammar books for getting insights on the issue and for illustrating the complexities there might exist. At this stage, learners are encouraged to analyse language from their point of view and reach their own conclusions about it (Borg 1994:67).

The third stage of the learning cycle encourages learners to look back to what they have learned and how their beliefs changed during the second stage. The questions raised at stages one and two can be further analysed (Borg 1994:67) or the new insights gained at the previous stages can be applied to new data and previous knowledge can be refined (Wright and Bolitho 1993:297). 'Practising and rehearsing' as suggested by Aebli (1990:357-382) is not an appropriate stage for a LA task cycle, since LA tasks do not aim at a refined final product in form of an essay, presentation or a well done exercise. Instead, the focus is on making learners think of and notice things they have previously been unaware of.

The suggested tasks at **stage four** involve further analysis of language and making learners put what they have learned into practise. For teachers, this might mean evaluating existing or designing new learning material for their learners (Wright and Bolitho 1993: 297; Borg 1994: 67). Language learners can do the same, only with other tasks. Their application tasks could deal with for example small-scale research problems, finding a solution to a problem situation or involving learners in a creative project.

6 STARTING POINTS FOR A LANGUAGE AWARENESS MATERIAL PACKAGE

So far the discussion on LA has been mainly restricted to its interpretations and applications abroad. This chapter aims at describing what a LA course might look like in Finland. To begin with, the reasons for the need for a LA course in Finland will be given. Next, the specific target group and the objectives of a LA course will be defined and the topics chosen for this material package will be presented. Finally, the use of a task cycle during a LA course will be suggested with the aims of the individual stages explained.

Explicit knowledge in foreign language learning has an important role in becoming a more competent language user (Ellis 1997b:114-123). Yet, this knowledge is often ignored at the cost of overemphasising the oral ability to communicate (Gnutzmann 1997:69-70). In the ideal situation, learners have both an opportunity to use the language in meaningful contexts for communication, but also a chance to make their existing implicit language knowledge more explicit by discussing language and language related phenomena. One possibility to carry out this exploration of language in the foreign language classroom is to use LA methodology. In this study LA refers to increased consciousness and more explicit knowledge of language in general or a particular language and language learning (see discussion on definitions of LA in section 3.1).

Within the LA movement the study of language is considered important and rewarding as such (Donmall 1991a:116; James and Garrett 1991:12-20; Andrews 1995:30). In addition, LA work may have a positive effect on learners' attitudes to language and speakers of different languages or language variation (James and Garrett 1991:313). Furthermore, LA plays an important part in uniting the school curriculum, especially the language curriculum. Hawkins (1987:37) suggests that LA should "fill in the space" between mother tongue and foreign language teaching. In his opinion, although there is much in common between these two subjects, there is seldom any co-operation (Hawkins

1987:19). Integrating foreign languages with other subjects is also suggested in the national suggestion for the upper secondary school curriculum (LOPS, 1994:62).

In the light of these suggestions and proposals put forward by so many different quarters, it is surprising that so far LA movement has remained practically unknown in Finland and consequently, there are no material packages for carrying out a LA course. This study and the accompanying material package on LA will fill a part of this gap.

The target group. This LA course is designed to be used in the Finnish upper secondary school. There are two possible places for it in the curriculum: it can either be carried out as an applied language course integrating foreign languages and the mother tongue teaching or it can be part of the English language curriculum (LOPS, 1994:34). It is important that this course is not only an English language course nor a mother tongue course but an element that integrates the two.

Although these materials are primarily in English, the ideas and parts of the materials can also be used in other subjects. LA should not be a separate subject in school but an integrated part of any language teaching (James and Garrett 1991:309; Dufva 1993:15). It is also possible to use this course material in other advanced language learning groups. For example, an English discussion group at a civic school might use these materials selectively as a basis for their discussions according to their interest.

Objectives. There are four objectives for this material package: to involve learners both cognitively and affectively, make them aware of language learning, integrate mother tongue and foreign language teaching and finally, as a bi-product of LA work, increase their confidence and competent to use English. First, LA work should be cognitively challenging and offer learners new and intriguing insights into language (James and Garrett 1991:311). The cognitive challenge of LA work is seldom alone enough to make it appealing to language learners (Borg 1994:62). Therefore, the affective involvement of learners is

essential (Borg 1994:62). Learners are also encouraged to share their beliefs about language with each other. This on the one hand increases learners' affective involvement by giving them an opportunity to talk about what is important for them and on the other hand, may give important glimpses into learners' previous knowledge and attitudes. The teacher can then take these views better into account in teaching. In addition, this LA material package has achieved its goals if learners become curious about language, also suggested in LOPS (1994:60). In Hawkins' (1987:6) words, "we want to make our pupils' contacts with language [...] richer, more interesting, simply more fun."

Second, since learners at this school level already have at least seven years of experience in learning one or more foreign languages, they have certainly adopted some foreign language strategies to manage this task, as McCarthy (McCarthy 1994:4) points out in case of Irish foreign language learners. The objective of this material package is to make learners aware of these strategies and provide them with new ones. Although these learners have only a few years of foreign language study ahead of them at school, they will certainly need to carry on studying foreign languages later in their lives, or even start learning a totally new language. It is hoped that this course will be of help in their later foreign language learning.

Third, although several foreign languages in addition to the mother tongue are taught in the Finnish secondary school, there is seldom co-operation between them. A LA course offers a good opportunity to integrate all language subjects. This course is recommended to be carried out in co-operation between the mother tongue and foreign language teachers. Thinking and talking about language is common and indeed, an essential part of both subjects.

Fourth, because the target language of this course is English a rather advanced knowledge of English is required for the learners. The English language has two functions during this course. On the one hand, most of the examples of the features of language and language use are taken from English and therefore English is the object of study. On the other hand, it is the means of communication used to study the language. Although the main aim of this LA

course is not to increase learners' foreign language competence, there may be a facilitative effect due to the regular use of English. Therefore, there is material for speaking, listening, reading and writing tasks, as suggested for applied and advanced language courses (LOPS 1994:64). However, the focus is on oral skills.

Topics. The idea of the course material is to make learners familiar with what language is like and how it is learned. The actual course materials consist of two major themes: Features of language and Language learning. An introductory section dealing with different means of communication and differences between spoken and written language precede these two major sections. The third content area of previous LA courses, the structure of a particular language was left out from this material package. One reason is that it alone would have made up a material package of its own because there is an endless number of interesting points in the structure of a language that could be approached from LA's point of view. Another reason is that this kind of material package with a focus on one language and thus being a language specific material would not have suited equally well for integrating foreign languages with other subjects. The exclusion of this content area does not mean that the structure of language and grammar are not crucial parts of LA work. On the contrary, exploring the structure of language using LA methodology could offer a fresh approach to traditional grammar teaching during foreign language courses.

The aim of the first part is to give learners insights into the nature of language and how it is used. If learners get interested in one theme it is recommended to get deeper into this topic and pay less attention to the other topics. This part brings together the mother tongue and foreign language teaching by discussing language in general. The examples are mostly taken from English, but the users of this part of this course should feel free to adopt and add new materials to suit better to the needs of a particular course.

The topics within this first section are based on Mittins' (1991) suggestion on a LA course (see discussion in section 4.3). The features of language he lists are: the semantic dimension of language, conventional and deviant language use,

creativity, the stability and change of language, social variation, pragmatics, discourse and translation. The names were altered to some extent to make them clearer to the learners. In this material package they are called: Words at play, Breaking the rules, Creative use of language, The past and future of language, Varying language, and Meaning in different ways, respectively. Mittins' (1991) suggestion offered a most detailed description of topics that could make up an introduction to what language is all about. Moreover, this general approach to language can equally well be applied to mother tongue and foreign language teaching. Each of these suggested topics are, however, far too wide to be covered only with one set of LA tasks. Therefore a majority of them consist of only two topics. These topics correspond to the themes taken up by Mittins (1991). Some more topics were added or changed on the basis of what might interest learners and which linguistic phenomena non-linguists easily understand.

For example, the semantic dimension of language is looked at from euphemisms' point of view as well as that of the prototype theory, which both are hoped to be fascinating for the learners. Some alternations were however made. Social variation suggested by Mittins (1991) was widened to cover regional variation. This was done because social variation in Finnish does not play as crucial a part as in Britain, and because the regional differences between British and American English often come across in Finnish foreign language teaching. Moreover, it seems that regional dialects in Finnish are experiencing some kind of revival. Translation and discourse originally suggested by Mittins (1991) were left out. Translation in the Finnish language teaching has still a secure position, and it was assumed that the problems in translating from one language to another come up in ordinary language courses. The reason for leaving discourse out of the material package was that it did not seem to provide topics that would have been comprehensible enough for the learners. Yet, for example the differences between spoken and written language are discussed in the introductory section.

The second part of the course on language learning introduces learners with how they could learn languages more efficiently, what affects language learning and

what factors affect language learning. This section should then facilitate foreign language learning. Including this part in the material package was thought to be essential because, as noted before, effective foreign language learning skills are important for Finns. Despite this, there is seldom any explicit teaching at schools on how to learn languages not to speak of material concentrating on this theme though development of efficient study skills should be included in the objectives of the Finnish secondary school (LOPS, 1994:8).

This section is mostly based on McCarthy's (1994) suggestions. Since he does not make a clear proposal on what topics to cover, the materials on this themes were chosen based on the few stray suggestions made by other researchers (Hawkins 1987; Donmall 1991b; Parsonage 1991; Dufva 1993; McCarthy 1997). For example, communication strategies were suggested by McCarthy (1994:5) and studying first language acquisition by Hawkins (1987) and Parsonage (1991). Ideas for other topics such as the ideal language learner and motivation come from learner training literature, for example Ellis and Sinclair (1989) and Wenden (1991).

Both of the major sections form an integrated whole of their own and they can be used separately. The same applies to individual themes under these two sections. This allows the use of individual lessons as they best suit in the programme of the language course. The material package is designed to cover approximately 30 lessons, each 45 minutes, which is the ordinary duration of a course in the secondary school. There is, however, more material that can be dealt with within one course. This is to give the class an opportunity to choose which topics seem most interesting and relevant for the learners.

The LA task cycle. Each lesson consists of four stages: pre-task, finding out more information on the topic of the lesson, applying the knowledge, and reflection on what was learned. The stages are based on Borg's (1994) and Wright and Bolitho's (1993) suggestions made for teacher training. Their ideas were modified for learners and for teaching other things than grammar. The order of the stages was altered so that the third stage in Borg's (1994) and Wright and Bolitho's (1993) model, reflection and evaluation, was shifted to the

end of the task cycle. This was done in order to be able to use the final stage for self-evaluation including also the application stage.

The goal of the first stage, "Pre-task" is to function as an introduction to the theme of the lesson. At the same time, learners can test themselves and see what they already know about the subject. Ideally, learners start asking questions about the topic of the lesson. If this happens there is a good chance for learning if the questions arise from learners' themselves (Aebli 1990:305; Rauste-von Wright 1997:16). The purpose of discussion at this stage is to make it possible for learners to share their beliefs about the topic with others. This is an important phase in the learning process because beliefs have a powerful influence on learning (see for example Ellis 1994:477-479; Borg 1996:120). Sharing thoughts with others also make learners affectively involved, which is a prerequisite for successful awareness raising (Borg 1994:62).

The second stage, "Find out more about ...", draws learners' attention more closely to the topic of the lesson. There is often a reading task included in this stage, which should give learners new information and perspectives on the topic. It is important that learners have a critical attitude to data and that they learn to compare different sources. Learners should, however, draw their own conclusions from the data.

At the third stage, "Application", learners are asked to put the knowledge into practise. Often it is the case that learners do acquire new information but get no chance to apply it although recommended in LOPS (1994:11). This stage involves small-scale research tasks, writing tasks or creative tasks in which learners can use their imagination. These tasks allow learners to explore the topic further.

The final stage, "Reflection", concentrates on reflection and self-evaluation. This stage consists of three activities: taking notes to learner's diary, self and peer evaluation of written and oral tasks during earlier stages, and discussion on further questions related to the topic. Though important, writing a diary should not become a heavy load for the learners. A few lines on what seemed to be

important for the learner, how the attitudes and opinions changed and the questions that might have arisen during the lesson is enough. Learners may also compare their experiences with others, as suggested by Borg (1994:63). The teacher may comment on these diary entries a few times during the course. Reflection also encourages learners for self and peer evaluation, which LOPS (1994:28) strongly recommends for secondary schools. This valuable skill can be practised by evaluating the written and oral tasks performed during earlier stages. However, because LA emphasises the process of learning instead of the product, the focus should not be on grading learners' productions but rather on the learning process. The themes of the lesson may be further considered at the final stage of the learning cycle. For this, there are questions to be discussed in small groups or in pairs.

The lessons and individual activities reflect the salient features of LA work: learner-centredness, engaging learners both affectively and cognitively, emphasis on process of learning rather than product, and encouraging learners to become autonomous learners.

7 LANGUAGE AWARENESS MATERIAL PACKAGE

7.1 To the teacher

Language Awareness is like a personal computer.
Ninety per cent of its owners know how to use only 20%
of their p.c.'s capacity.
They need to do some computer awareness work.
Carl James, 1996

The purpose of this material is to make learners think about language and language learning. The material package is founded on the ideas of the Language Awareness (LA) movement, which was originally proposed as one solution to the problems in both mother tongue and foreign language teaching in the UK in the early 1980s. Although the movement has a history of some twenty years, it is practically unknown in Finland. This material package should fill in this gap in the Finnish upper secondary school.

LA in this material package refers to increased consciousness and more explicit knowledge of language and language learning (see section 3.1). As such this is not new in language teaching in Finland: grammar teaching at its best has served this purpose. However, it is also important to think and talk about language in order to raise learners' awareness of language. Reflection and exploration of language can be rewarding, challenging and fun in itself and thus increase learners' motivation and interest in language.

LA methodology

LA methodology differs to some extent from traditional teaching methods. It is characterised by learner-centredness, learner autonomy, process-orientation and focus on both affective and cognitive domains. **Learner-centredness** calls for teaching methods that enable learners' own observations and explorations on language. Therefore an inductive method of teaching is probably more suitable than a deductive method. However, variability in methods is crucial in order to be able to take variability in learners' learning styles into consideration. The requirements of **learner autonomy** are best taken into account by using activities that encourage learners to become more autonomous. These can be for example peer and group work and various projects on language related matters. Also the other content area of this material package, language learning, should promote learner autonomy by helping learners become aware of their own learning processes and offering them new learning strategies. **The process orientation** in LA methodology refers to the primacy of the learning process. The final outcome of learning, such as a grammatically correct essay, is of less importance. The ultimate aim of LA work is to make learners think and notice how language works and the teacher has to accept the fact that the depth of learners' insights may vary a lot. The **focus on both the affective and cognitive domains** of LA presupposes that LA work provides challenges for learners but that this cognitive challenge alone is not enough to keep them interested. It is learners' affective involvement that should make this happen. This is done best

by giving learners an opportunity to think and talk how they feel about language, what their beliefs and attitudes are.

The target group of the material package

This material package is designed to be used in the Finnish secondary school as an optional English language course or as an applied language course that integrates mother tongue and foreign language teaching. Both options are in harmony with the suggestions in the national curriculum for secondary schools (LOPS 1994). Though the materials are mostly in English, this language is only meant to be the starting point for comparisons to be made between other languages a learner knows. It is also possible to adopt the materials and ideas for other foreign languages or the mother tongue.

Objectives

This material package has three aims: involving learners both cognitively and affectively, increasing their awareness of language related matters and as a bi-product of the LA work in English, increase learners' confidence and competence in English. Furthermore, this LA course attempts to integrate mother tongue and foreign language learning.

1. **The cognitive involvement** of learners requires that LA tasks be challenging enough to make learners interested and engaged in the work. On the other hand, they should not only focus on cognitive skills but promote learners' interest in language, in other words, learners' **affective involvement**. Therefore, one of the aims of LA work is to create a positive attitude to languages and curiosity about them that would last longer than the duration of the course. In other words, as Hawkins (1987:6) puts it, this course tries to "light fires of curiosity" and make learners' everyday contacts with language more interesting and fun.

2. Learners' interest in language is the prerequisite for the next aim: increase in **awareness of language and language learning**. Increased awareness of language is not believed to improve learners' language performance directly. However, awareness of language may promote language performance indirectly. The process of learning may involve becoming aware of what one does not know and this is the way LA enhances language learning. Furthermore, language learning is an essential skill for Finns. Despite this, foreign language teaching seldom gives a thought to these matters. The ability to learn foreign languages is taken for granted. This might be true to some extent. Learners in secondary school have studied at least one foreign language for at least seven years and they have probably developed some learning strategies, either conscious or unconscious. It is, however, important to make these strategies more overt. In addition, LA work that focuses on learning skills may provide learners with new skills to use in learning languages.

3. Although the main aim of this course is not to **improve learners' foreign language performance**, it may be the result of engaging learners in LA tasks that require the use of English. As argued above, LA work in itself

does not directly enhance language performance. However, the tasks in this material package provide many opportunities to use the target language in speaking, writing and reading when exploring language, which may result in increased confidence and competence in using English. Although learners are encouraged to use English in their discussions, the use of Finnish should not be prohibited totally. Yet, this material package has done the job if the first two goals are reached. The improved language performance may or may not come into the bargain.

4. Apart from the goals of LA work in question of an individual learner, this LA course could **integrate the language curriculum**. There is seldom any co-operation between different language teachers or subjects they teach. Since thinking and talking about language is common to all language subjects, this LA course could link the mother tongue and foreign language teaching in the curriculum. What is more, it could create links in learners' minds and provide them with new insights on how the mother tongue and foreign languages are linked.

Themes in the materials

This material package consists of three parts. The first one is an introduction to language as a means of communication covering two topics: different means of communication and differences between spoken and written language. The second part introduces features of language and the third one focuses on language learning. **Features of language** include: Words at play (semantics), Breaking the rules (conventional and deviant language), Creative use of language (creativity), The past and future of language (stability and change), Varying language (social and regional variation), and Meaning in different ways (pragmatics). The list of features of language is based on suggestions made by Mittins (1991). Each feature of language further consists of one to three lessons that concentrate on one topic. The same structure is used in the third part of the material package focusing on **language learning**. This part discusses both first and foreign language learning, learning strategies and factors affecting language learning. A full list of all topics appears at the beginning of the material package.

Both parts of the materials can be used separately. Furthermore, each lesson could be used individually depending on how it suits the scheme and goals of the course. If the whole material package is gone through, it should form the basis for one course (approximately 30 lessons, each 45 minutes). There is, however, more material than this. This is to make it possible for the class to choose which themes they are most interested in.

The learning cycle

Each lesson consists of four stages, which together form the learning cycle. These stages have been modified from the suggestions by Borg (1994) and Wright and Bolitho (1993). The four stages and their specific aims are:

1. **Pre-task.** This stage introduces the theme of the lesson. At the same time as it surveys learners' previous knowledge and beliefs of the theme it also tries to appeal to learners' curiosity and raise questions about the theme.

2. **Finding out more information.** This stage draws learners' attention more closely to the theme of the lesson. It often involves reading tasks that give learners new information and perspectives on the theme. It is important that learners are given a chance to draw their own conclusions from language.

3. **Application.** This stage requires putting the knowledge into practice. The tasks include applying insights gained at the previous stages to real-life situations. There are also activities that require creativity and imagination.

4. **Reflection.** This stage encourages learners to self-evaluation and reflection. There are three types of activities here: writing a learner's diary, self and peer evaluation of the previous activities, and discussion of further questions on the topic. For *keeping a diary* learners should have a small notebook in which they can take notes preferably in English on what they felt to be important for them during the lesson. The questions in the material package help them to think back to what they have thought and experienced during the lesson. This should, however, not become a load for the learners and therefore only a few lines after each lesson are enough. *Self and peer evaluation* may be used for written and oral tasks performed during the previous stages. To make the evaluation easier, there is a self / peer evaluation form at the end of the material package. If there is some kind of assessment or grading at the end of the course, learners' own assessments of their products may be helpful. There are also *further questions* related to the topic of the lesson. These can be discussed in pairs or in a small group. If learners are interested, one of these questions may be taken up again during another lesson.

The tasks in the learning cycle are coded according to what language skills they mainly involve. Thus, it is easy to see at a glimpse what kind of tasks there are during the lesson. The codes are:

Reading. Tasks with this code involve some reading, usually not longer than one page. The reading may be an informative passage on the theme of the lesson or a 'lighter' reading.

Writing. The tasks with this code have a writing task in them. Writing can involve taking notes in learners' notebook, writing a letter to the editor or something in between.

Talking. Almost every task involves talking. It usually means discussions in pairs or small groups, sometimes with the whole class. Giving a small talk or presentation on the topic of the lesson is also possible.

Performing. The tasks with this code have a creative element in them. The tasks involve acting out something either in pairs or in small groups. There are also a few role-plays performed by the whole class.

Listening. In some lessons, there are tasks that involve listening. There is no material for these tasks in the material package, but in the Note to the teacher there are some suggestions for suitable materials for these tasks.

The assessment of the course could be based on participation and performance of all required tasks. However, if a grade is needed a portfolio assessment is recommended. This way of evaluation promotes learners' autonomy as they themselves can choose on which assignments their evaluation is based on. Furthermore, self-evaluation has an important role in portfolio-based assessment.

7.2 To the learner

Welcome to explore language! By now, you have probably heard that this course has something do with Language Awareness (LA). Instead of a definition of this term, look at this metaphor by Carl James:

Language Awareness is like a personal computer.
Ninety per cent of its owners know how to use
only 20% of their p.c.'s capacity.
They need to do some computer awareness work.

This should give you some kind of idea of what this course is all about with the exception that this course is about language, not about computers. In other words, the aim of this course is to make you more aware of language and language related matters. The word 'more' is important here because you certainly already know a great deal about language. During this course you will get a chance to think or *reflect* on language. As you do this, you will also consider your own ideas and beliefs about language.

Hopefully the tasks are challenging for you and make you really think what language is like and how we use it. But do not let this be only a demanding task for your brain. Involve your heart as well. This course aims at making you interested in language and "light fires of curiosity". We come across with language every day, and that contact can be fascinating and fun.

You can see the full list of all the topics covered during this course at the beginning of the material package. The course consists of three parts. The first part is an introduction to language with only two topics: different means of communication and differences between written and spoken language. The second part is about features of language. This means that you will discuss some of the characteristics of language from different points of view. These first and second parts have lots of links to mother tongue lessons, although the examples are mostly from English. Therefore, as soon as you observe a similarity or difference to Finnish or any other language, point it out to the others in class.

The third part of the course concentrates on how languages are learned. Learning foreign languages is familiar to you but this part of the course attempts to make all that you have so far experienced more conscious to you. In addition to foreign language learning you will also consider how babies learn their mother tongue. Hopefully you can get new ideas for language learning from the course materials and from your friends. At the end of the course you should be better armed in the battle of language learning.

The language used during this course is English. Talking about language in English may first be difficult but practice makes perfect. The idea is that as you reflect on language you will learn some more English at the same time. During this course you will not come across with vocabulary tests or grammar exercises. Instead, you are required to perform oral and written tasks in English. But do not let this discourage you. More important than always using English is that you say what you have noticed about language or bravely raise your hand and ask the others if you are unsure of something.

Each lesson during this course follows the same overall structure. This is called the learning cycle. It consists of four stages.

1. **Pre-task.** This stage introduces the theme of the lesson to you. As there is often a discussion task with your friend, be open to each other and share your views. Questions about the theme are heartily welcomed at this stage.

2. **Finding more information.** At this stage your attention will be drawn more closely to the theme of the lesson. You will often come across with a reading task that should give you new perspectives on the topic. But be critical and feel free to disagree with what is said in the text.

3. **Application.** As you have learned something new, this stage gives you an opportunity to use this knowledge. Now you will apply the new information to real-life situations. This stage may also involve small-scale research projects or creative tasks.

4. **Reflection.** This stage concentrates on self-evaluation and reflection on what you have learned. There are three kinds of activities. The first one, taking notes to your learner's diary, makes you think of what was important and interesting for you during the lesson. Write preferably in English but remember that in your diary the most important thing is what you have to say, not the grammar. Your teacher may read and comment on your diary a few times during the course. You are not required to write several pages each time; a few lines for each lesson is enough. Second, for some of the written or oral tasks there are self or peer evaluations. There are special feedback forms for this to make it easier for you. Thirdly, there are some further questions on the topic of the lesson for you to discuss with your friend or in a small group. Feel free to add any interesting points you had in your mind during the lesson.

The tasks in the learning cycle are coded according to what language skills they mainly involve. With these codes, you can easily see at a glimpse what kind of language skills the tasks require. The codes are:

Reading. Exercises with this code involve reading, usually not longer than one page. Sometimes the text is informative but there are some a bit more entertaining ones, too.

Writing. Tasks coded like this require writing. The required writing, however, can vary from writing an entry into your learner's diary to writing a letter or a well-grounded opinion on something.

Talking. Almost every task involves talking. Usually it is discussions in pairs or small groups, sometimes with the whole class. These tasks my also involve speaking in front of the public.

Performing. This code indicates that there is something creative in this task which requires acting out something alone, in pairs or with a small group. Also role-plays are coded like this.

Listening. Some lessons have listening tasks. They are not listening comprehension tests but they give you an idea of spoken language and its variability.
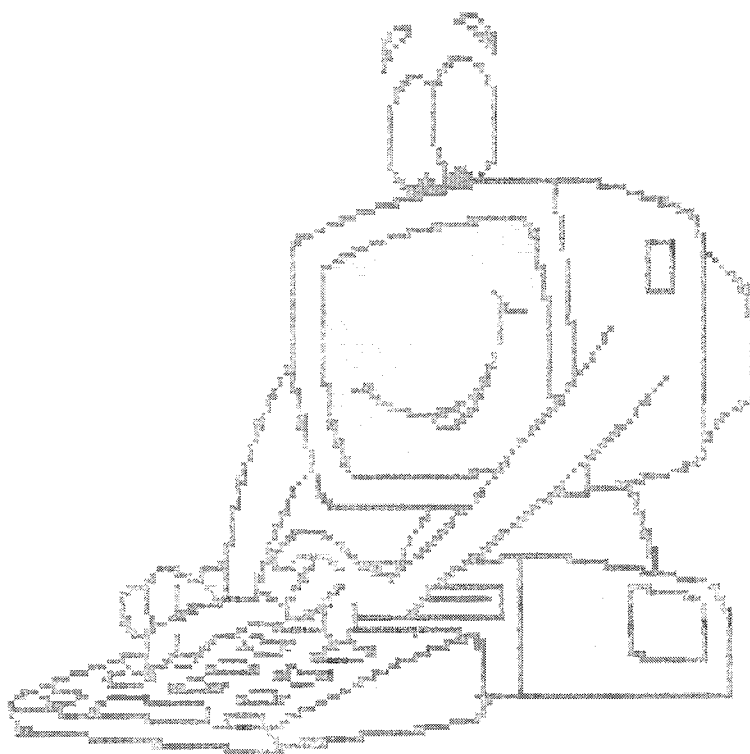
I hope this course will give you new ideas on language and you will realise how fascinating language, this everyday phenomenon, can be. The last word of advice to you: be active during this course and ask question and try to find answers to them.

7.3 Material package: Language Awareness

Language Awareness is like a personal computer.
Ninety per cent of its owners know how to use
only 20% of their p.c.'s capacity.
They need to do some computer awareness work.

CONTENTS OF THE MATERIAL PACKAGE

Introduction
Features of language
Language learning

Forms of communication

*H*umans all over the world have a desire to communicate. However, spoken and written languages that developed naturally are not the only forms of communication. Communication is not only human, also other living things communicate in one way or another. In this lesson you will first think about communication without 'traditional' languages. How can you get your message through if you can't use written or spoken language? Then you will learn about different means of communication. Finally, you will be given a change to create a perfect means of communication. What would it be like?

Stage 1: Pre-task

We often communicate without using language, for example by using gestures or just by using vocal sounds but no actual words.

(1) With your friend, try to find as many ways of conveying the messages below without language, using only gestures.

(2) Turn to another group. Try to get one of these messages across to them using only gestures. The other group tries to guess which of these sentences you mean.

Stop!		Come here.
I don't know.		That one over there.
Slow down.		I give up.
We're going to win.		I don't want to hear.
You are an idiot.		It's very cold.

Gestures can be combined with vocal sounds and facial expressions to communicate meaning, as when we say *ugh* and pinch our nose in defence against a bad smell. Now imagine yourself in a position where you are unable to speak, but you can make sounds through your speech mechanism.

(3) How would you convey the following messages in this situation? Demonstrate to your friend.

No!	I am fed up with this.
Yes!	I like that.
I don't like that.	That hurts.

Stage 2: Find out more about ways of communicating

At this stage, you will familiarise yourself with different communication systems by using **co-operative learning**.

(1) Form groups of four people. This group is called the **home group**. Each group chooses one of the four texts (A, B, C or D) and studies it.

(2) After this, new groups of four people will be formed so that one group consists of four people: one who has read text A, an expert of text B, and someone who knows text C, and an expert on text D. This group is called an **expert group**.

(3) In the expert group, each member reviews the text he/she has read so that each one in the group gets familiar with every text. Compare the different communication systems in your expert group.

- What is common to these systems?
- How do they differ?
- What can you do with these communication systems?
- What kind of limitations do they have?
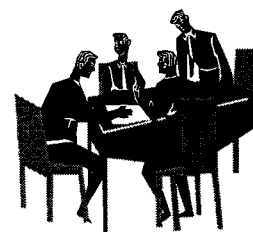
(4) After you have considered these points, return to your home group (all the As, Bs, Cs and Ds in separate groups). Report your ideas to your friends. Compare the results of different expert groups in your home group.

A) The bee 'language'

Honeybees have a system of communication that permits a bee to return to the hive and tell other bees where a source of food is located. The dancing behaviour may follow one of three possible patterns: round, sickle and tail-wagging. The determining factor in the choice of dance is the distance of the food source from the hive.

In all cases the bee dances on a wall of the hive. For the round dance, the bee describes a circle. The only information conveyed by the round dance, apart from the distance (rather near the hive), is the quality of the food source. This is indicated by the number of repetitions of the basic pattern and the vivacity with which it performs the dance. To perform the sickle dance the bee traces out a sickle-shaped figure-eight on the wall. The angle made by the direction of the open end of the sickle with the vertical is the same angle as the food source is from the sun.

The tail-wagging dance includes all the information of the sickle dance with one important addition. The number of repetitions per minute of the basic pattern indicates the precise distance: the slower the repetitions, the longer the distance.

B) Bird 'language'

The imitative sounds of talking birds have little in common with human language, but the calls and songs of many species of birds do have a communicative function, and they resemble human languages in that there may be 'dialects' within the same species.

Bird calls consist of one or more short notes that are innately determined "messages" associated with for example danger, feeding, nesting, flocking and so on. Bird calls have meaning, so they are actually more advanced form of communication than bird 'talk', but the meanings consist of small finite set and are responses to certain types of stimuli in the bird's "here and now".

Bird songs are longer, more complex patterns of notes than birdcalls, which are used to 'stake out' territory and to attract mates. In some species the same song is used for both purposes; other species use different songs. Often the 'complications' of a bird's song have little to do with the actual message. In a study of the territorial song of the European robin, it was discovered that the rival robins pay attention only to the alternation between high-pitched and low-pitched notes, and which came first didn't matter at all.

Bird 'language' also has 'dialects'. For example, one of the calls of the chaffinch varies depending on the geographical area that the birds live in. The message is the same, but the 'pronunciation' or form is different. Usually a young bird will sing a basic version of the song shortly after hatching, and then later on undergo further learning in acquiring its final, dialectal version of the song.

C) Sign language

People talking without speaking, people hearing without listening...

- Paul Simon

About one in a thousand babies is born deaf. Although deaf persons can be taught to speak a language intelligibly, they can never understand speech as well as a hearing person. Seventy-five per cent of the words spoken cannot be read on the lips easily.

The major language used by the deaf in the United States is **American Sign Language** (or **Ameslan** or **ASL**). ASL is an independent, fully developed language that outgrew of the sign language used in France and was brought to the USA by the great deaf educator Gallaudet. Sign language is not an international language, and there is a different variation of the sign language in every country. Therefore, deaf people in Finland cannot understand American Sign Language.

The signs of the language that correspond to words of spoken language consist of three sets including the sign **form**, the **motion** of the hand(s) towards or away from the body, and the **place** of the sign's movement. For example, the sign meaning 'arm' can be described as a flat hand, moving to touch the upper arm. Thus it has three features: flat hand, motion toward, upper arm.

The other sign language in the USA is called **Signed English** (or **Singlish**). It consists of the replacement of each spoken English word by a sign. The grammar of Signed English is thus approximately the same as that of ordinary English. Therefore, it is rather unnatural language similar to speaking English but translating every English word into its French counterpart. The same applies to Finland: the Finnish sign language is a silent language but when speech accomplishes sign the language is called signed Finnish with the Finnish word order and structure.

Adopted from Fromkin and Rodman 1983:337-340

D) Braille

Braille is a code of 63 letters or characters composed of between one and six dots embossed on paper or card. The dots are arranged in patters based on six possible positions. The blind reader feels the raised dots with the tips of the fingers.

Braille is named after Louis Braille who was born in 1809 near Paris. When Braille was aged 3 he was cutting leather in his father's shop when the knife slipped and entered his eye. The eye became infected and the infection spread to the other eye, and he became totally blind.

Later on, when he was teaching at the Blinds' Institute he found only a few books in the library written for the blind. This set Braille thinking. He was aware of a system used in the army, and he simplified the system. Braille's system is based on six dots arranged in a pattern.

a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m

n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z

Despite the usefulness of Braille's invention it was accepted only two years after his death. Later, Braille was adopted for other languages than French. The Braille letters are similar in every language. Special Braille codes exist for writing music, mathematics, shorthand etc. Printing machines can now print whole books for blind readers. The blind themselves can use electric typewriters to write with the Braille.

Stage 3: Application

The new EU parliament passes a law that forbids the use of any European language, or, as a matter of fact, any language spoken on the earth at the moment. However, you have a desire to communicate with other people. For that purpose you have to create a new way of communicating. It could be an artificial language, a communication system based on non-verbal communication or any other ways of conveying information. The text 'Artificial languages' below gives you some ideas on how to start creating a new language. However, your own language does not have to resemble Esperanto in any way.

(1) Discuss these questions in pairs.

- How would your 'language' work?
- What would be your criteria for creating your 'language?
- How would you teach it to other people?
- Would someone have an advantage in learning it? Why?
- What kind of advantages or limitations would it have?

(2) As an example of your new language, try to convey a message to your classmates. You can give them a 'key' to your communication system to help them with the task.

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Take notes in your learner's diary on what you experienced during this lesson. For more detailed instructions, see Appendix 1 at the end of the material package.

(2)

> *No matter how eloquently a dog may bark,*
> *he cannot tell you that his parents were poor but honest.*
> - Bertrand Russell

Discuss this statement by Bertrand Russell with your friend.

- What do you think he means by this?
- What is the difference between human and animal languages?
- What is the advantage of having human language, both written and spoken?

Artificial languages

La intelligenta persono lernas la interlingvon Esperanton rapide kaj facile.

(Esperanto for: "The intelligent persons learns the international Esperanto rapidly and easily.")

L ingua francas are an attempt to get to the blissful state when everyone would speak the same language. However, none of the languages have gone far enough. Since the seventeenth century, scholars have been inventing artificial languages in the hope that they would achieve universal acceptance. Most artificial languages never get beyond their inventors, because they are difficult to learn.

One artificial language has enjoyed some success. Esperanto was invented by the Polish scholar Zamenhof. He gave his 'language' the advantage of extreme grammatical regularity, ease of pronunciation, and a vocabulary based mainly on French, Italian, Spanish, German and Greek. Esperanto is spoken, it is claimed, by several million speakers throughout the world. There is literature written in it, a number of institutions teach it, and it is officially recognised by some international organisations.

Although the speakers of Esperanto say that is it easy to learn, it is not maximally simple. There is, for example, an obligatory accusative case (*Ni lernas Esperanton.* "We're learning Esperanto") and adjectives and nouns must agree in number. Esperanto is regular insofar as all nouns end in *–o*, with plural *–oj*; all adjectives end in *–a*, with plural *–aj*; the present tense of all verbs ends in *–as*; the future in *–os*, and the past in *–is*; the definite article is always *la*.

Adopted from Fromkin and Rodman 1983:272-273

Spoken and written language

Normally we read written language and hear spoken language. We seldom read spoken language. You can hear written language for example when the mother reads out loud stories to her child. By spoken language we mean here the exact words, repetitions, hesitations, sighs and grunts and giggles that are part of spoken language. During this lesson you will first try to write spoken language. After that, you will think how spoken language differs from written language. Finally, you will tap (with permission!) somebody talking, write down the discussion and turn it into written language.

Stage 1: Pre-task

At this stage you can be a playwright, or rather, an author of an authentic discussion. (Of course that is impossible in real life, nobody talks naturally as in a script.) The theme of your discussion is your choice. The difference to a manuscript of a play, for example, is that this dialogue should really sound like a real discussion in the schoolyard, on the bus, in a restaurant. A few lines (to use playwright terminology) is enough, the main thing is that it in your opinion sounds real. Perform it them with your friend and discuss whether it sounds natural to you.
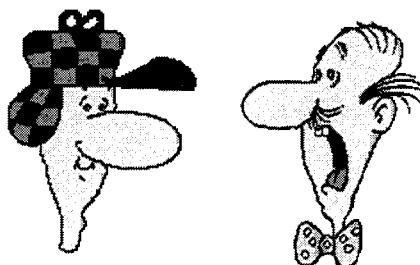
Stage 2: Find out more about spoken language

(1) Below is a transcribed (= written down as carefully as possible) real discussion. The transcription key is also included to help you to understand the transcription. At first this discussion will probably look really messy, but try to read it aloud and the understanding will be easier.

(2) Look at it and try to identify at least four features of spoken language that make it different from written language.

(3) Compare your list to your friend's list. Together in class list down the differences between written and spoken language.

Spoken language...

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Transcription key:

-	break
- -	longer break
/.../	overlapping speech, for example:

B:	why /did you/
A:	/oh I guess/ because we ed- we ended up carrying so much

For example, "did you" and "oh I guess" are spoken at the same time

CAPITALS in a loud voice

(unclear) unclear speech, laughing etc.

Kathy: (inaudible) energy

Charles: (inaudible) washing up

K: so what did I do this morning then start painting the skirting board white -- when I opened the tin it weren't white was it was yellow says brilliant white on the pr-

C: you're kidding what the wrong colour

K: the wrong colour inside the tin I don't ever remember that happening

C: never ever known that /before/

K: /no/ oh sorry darling yeh

C: crazy

K: I couldn't help but laugh I mean you know /me decorate/

C: /well you/ think it's your eye don't you

K: you know me decorate it's taken twelve years to actually admit that I will do some and the first thing I go to do

C: it's silly

K & C: (laugh)

C: and it really said brilliant white on the outside

K: yeh - - Carole said to me look Mum it's the it's the wrong colour in that tin cause there was a little drip on the outside and I said oh no what's happened they've put other ones on top cause it didn't look as thought it dripped from from the in it wasn't in the rim it was just on the outside you know

C: that's ridiculous

From: Cheepen and Monaghan 1990:116

Stage 3: Application

This is your chance to eavesdrop somebody you have always wanted to!

(1) Your task is to record a short discussion, either in English or Finnish, between two people, not longer than some 30 seconds. Try to record it without the speakers noticing it so that you will get a natural discussion. Afterwards, ask your subjects permission to use their discussion. Remember fair play: if they refuse, you have to find new subjects that allow you to use their recorded discussion.

(2) After you have recorded the discussion you should transcribe it, i.e. write it down as detailed as possible with all the pauses, overlapping speech and so on. There are transcription symbols below you should use when writing down the discussion. Do not use capital letters, not even at the beginning of a sentence. Furthermore, do not try to divide speech into sentences with commas or full stops but write down the speech as it is. We do not usually speak in sentences!

(3) When you have transcribed your short discussion, turn it into written language as the discussion would appear in a novel or in an interview in a magazine. Look back to the list of differences at Stage 2 between written and spoken language.

- What happens to the text?
- What things do you have to change in your discussion?
- What means can you use in the written text to cover all the features of what was spoken and how it was done?

Here is an example of a transcribed discussion. You can use this bit of conversation as your raw material if you cannot get any discussion on tape.

A: well it wasn't really a holiday more a – a – I don't know –
B: why /did you/
A: /oh I guess/ because we ed- we ended up carrying so much /equipment and/
C: /that sounds like/ a trip I took – em two years ago I think – yeah in the summer and – I've never gone again
B: so where did you go
A: oh we followed the river and the p- the idea you see was to find the source you know – and – just to avoid the – the roads well- /unless th-/
C: /and did you/
A: what
B: /get/
C: /find/ the source – the river
A: oh yes sorry- - but we ended up - em walking on roads quite a bit because – it – it just took too long

From: Yule 1996:149

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write a few lines on your observations, feelings and comments on the topic of the lesson in your diary. For some questions to help you get started, see Appendix 1.

(2) Discuss the questions below in pairs.

- Are there any situations in which written language is spoken or spoken language written? Give examples.

- Why spoken language can be so different from written text and still be understood?

- The examples of spoken language in this lesson are recorded from native speakers of English. What is the language they use like? Is it fluent and well formed?

- How could these findings about the language used by native speakers comfort you if you find speaking a foreign language difficult?

Introduction
Features of language
Language learning
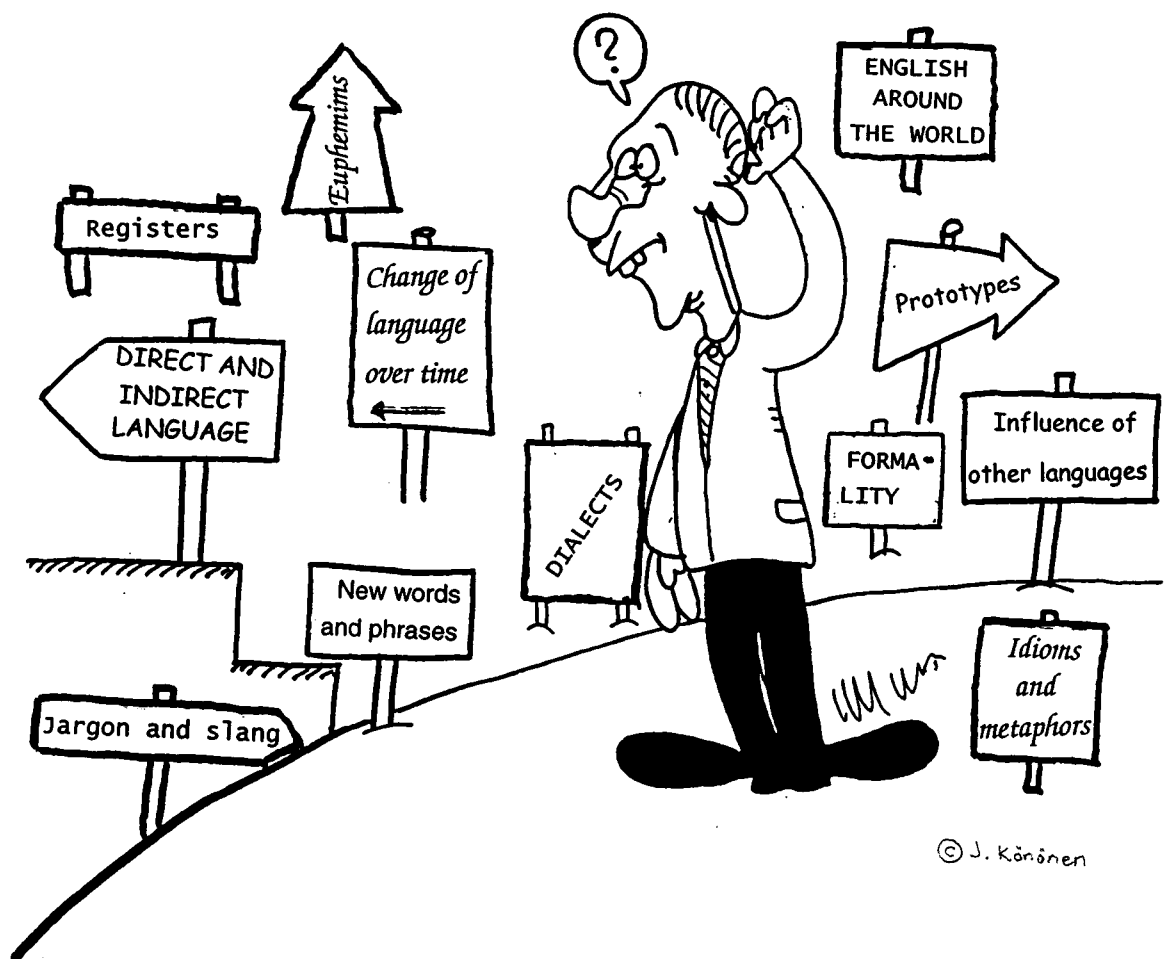
Prototypes

*B**uilding a prototype of a new product, such as a new machine is familiar to you. But what are prototypes in language? Think of a bird. That what first comes to your mind is probably a prototype of a bird, in other words, the most typical bird you can think of, like a sparrow. You are unlikely to think first of a penguin although it is a bird. During this lesson you will first consider what are the prototypes of some common concepts, then how your ideas of the most typical thing X differ from other views of it and finally, conduct a small research projects on prevailing prototypes among your friends.*

Stage 1: Pre-task

(1) Your teacher will read you ten words aloud. Your task is to write down the first word that comes to your mind when you hear the word. You have only 15 seconds time to do so after each word, so write down the first word that comes to your mind without stopping to think. If you do not know the first thing that comes to your mind in English, write it in Finnish. However, try to write as many English words as possible.

(2) After you have done the task compare your first associations with those of your friend.

- Did you have any words in common?
- Can you think of anything common to those words that you wrote?

Stage 2: Find out more about prototypes

The text below explains what is meant by prototypes in language. Study it carefully.

While the words *canary*, *dove*, *pelican*, *flamingo*, *parrot*, *duck*, *robin*, *swallow* and *thrush* share the same higher-up term *bird*, they are not all considered to be equally good exemplars of the category 'bird'. For many American English speakers, the best exemplar, or the **prototype**, of 'bird' is the robin. The concept of a prototype helps explaining the meaning of certain words, like *bird*, not in terms of component features (e.g. 'has feathers', 'has wings'), but in terms of resemblance to the clearest exemplar. Thus, even native speakers of English might wonder if *ostrich* and *penguin* should belong under the higher-up term *bird* (technically, they are), but have no trouble deciding about *sparrow* or *pigeon*. The last two are much closer to the prototype.

Given the category label *furniture*, we are quicker to recognise *chair* as an exemplar than *bench* or *stool*. Given *clothing*, people recognise *shirts* quicker than *shoes*, and given *vegetable*, they accept *carrot* before *potato* or *tomato*. It is obvious that there is a general pattern to the categorisation process involved in prototypes and that it determines our interpretation of word meaning. However, this is one area where individual experience results in variation in interpretation, as when people disagree about whether *tomato* is a fruit or a vegetable.

Adapted from Yule 1992:120

Turn back to the words you wrote down at Stage 1. Could any of the words you wrote be considered as prototypes?

Let's take a few common concepts everyone is familiar with: a bird, a shoe and a tree.

(1) Draw (or if you wish, describe in detail) the most typical exemplars of these.

- What does a typical bird look like?
- What is the prototype of a shoe?
- What is the best exemplar of a tree?

Present your drawings to the rest of the class.

(2) Discuss in two or three groups what the most characterising features of these three are, a bird, a shoe and a tree. Are you able to reach a compromise on this?

Stage 3: Application

Conduct a small-scale research project on prototypes in pairs.

(1) You need to take five words that belong to the same category and could thus be possible prototypes of a concept. For example, you could look for the prototype of tableware, for which you could choose words like *plate*, *teacup*, *jug*, *tray* and *bowl*.

(2) Give these words, each written on a separate piece of paper, to your subject. The task is to grade the words according to how typical tableware these words are. The one which is most typical comes first, the next typical then and so on.

(3) After your subject has done the grading, you score his or her choices. The most typical item, according to your subject, gets five points, the next one four, to the least typical item with one point. Repeat the procedure with ten to fifteen subjects and always write down the points given to each item.

(4) Finally add up all the points given to each item. The item that got most points is the most typical representative of tableware.

(5) Write a short report on your results and compare them with the results of other teams. Are the results similar? Do you think this is a valid way of finding out prototypes?

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write a few lines in your learner's diary on the most interesting insights you got during this lesson.

(2) Discuss first with your friend and then with the whole class.

- How do people learn prototypes?
- What are the advantages of prototypes?
- What is the consequence in discussion or in translated literature if different people have different kinds of prototypes?

Euphemisms

Taboo words are familiar to you. In every culture there are things that cannot be talked about directly. When they, however, have to be dealt with in some way, people use various circumlocutions, euphemisms, instead of the actual word they mean. Another theme connected to taboos is political correctness, the avoidance of some words and expressions that might possibly hurt someone's feelings. In recent years this has become a very popular theme and many people honestly admit that they are fed up with all this PC (=political correctness). During this lesson you will first guess the meaning of some English euphemisms, then transfer a politically correct fairy tale into a more traditional one and finally, write about your ideas on political correctness.

Stage 1: Pre-task

Have you ever wondered why in many films women at restaurants have to go *to powder their nose* so often? Their nose is hardly shiny. No, there is nothing wrong with their make-up but they only need to go to the toilet. To say that is, of course, utmost brutal. Below are some of the euphemisms English and American people have made up for embarrassing subjects. Match the euphemisms with the 'translations'. Note that there are more euphemisms for some of the translations. Then check how many you got right. Also list down some Finnish equivalents for these expressions.

1) He cut his cable.	
2) He has the sun in his eyes	
3) He was called to higher service	a) to die / to be dead
4) Holy of holies	
5) Hunt the fox down the red lane	b) to urinate / to go to the toilet
6) I'm going to feed a parrot.	c) to be pregnant
7) Lay down your knife and fork.	
8) Look at the roses.	d) the toilet
9) Pay a visit to Aunt Jones	e) to be drunk / to become drunk
10) Shake hands with the bishop.	
11) She counts daisies.	f) to urinate out of door
12) Spend a penny	
13) Swallow a watermelon seed.	From Holder 1988

Stage 2: Find out about Political Correctness

Political correctness refers to language that is used especially in formal contexts, and nowadays in every-day language, too. The basic idea of PC is that language used should not discriminate anybody or hurt anybody's feelings. For example, it is not politically correct to use the word *chairman* because this person might also be female. Therefore, a new word has been adopted: *chairperson*, which is neutral. Furthermore, it is not politically correct to call someone, for example, *short* because the person's feelings might get hurt. Instead, you can refer to this person's height by saying that he or she (again political correctness, using *he* alone would discriminate women) is *vertically challenged*. In other words, politically correct expressions are kind of euphemisms.

What is politically correct changes over time. This short list will show you how a previously correct word becomes unacceptable.

old	1980s	1990s
deaf	hearing impaired	aurally challenged
blind	sight impaired	visually challenged
retarded	mentally handicapped	mentally challenged
fat	big-boned	alternative body image

The language of authorities and legislators is especially influenced by politically correct language. Some people think that political correctness has gone too far, and it is being made fun of. Even children's bedtime stories have been rewritten according to the standards of political correctness.

Below is an extract from a politically correct bedtime story. The original one is by the Grimm brothers. After you have done the task you can compare this with the original one.

(1) As you read the story, identify all the terms that you think have been changed to fit the standards of political correctness. Also change these expression back to their (supposed) original form. For example, if it says in the story that the boy was *horizontally challenged*, change it back to, for example, *big*, *over-weight* or *fat* based on your judgement which of the alternatives would best suit the story.

(2) What words are used to describe Rumpelstilskin? Which of these in your opinion are because of political correctness? What would have been the traditional words?

(3) Consider the plot of the story. Has it been changed so that it would be more politically correct? If yes, how?

Rumpelstiltskin

Long ago in a kingdom far away, there lived a miller who was very economically disadvantaged. This miller shared his humble dwelling with his only daughter, an independent young women named Esmeralda. The miller was very ashamed of his poverty, and was always searching for a way to get rich quick. "If only I could get my daughter to marry a rich man, "he mused, "she'll be fulfilled and I'll never have to work another day in my life." Then he had an inspiration. He would start a rumour that his daughter was able to spin common barnyard straw into pure gold. With this untruth, he would be able to attract the attention of many rich men and marry off Esmeralda.

The rumour spread through the kingdom and soon reached the prince. Also he believed the rumour and invited Esmeralda to his castle. But when she arrived, he had her thrown into a dungeon filled with straw and ordered her to spin it into gold. Fearing for her life, Esmeralda sat on the floor and wept. As she cried, a diminutive man in a funny hat appeared in the dungeon. "Why are you crying, my dear?" he asked. Esmeralda was startled but answered to him: "The prince has ordered me to spin all this straw into gold." "But why are you

crying?" he asked again. "Because it can't be *done*." The differently statured man laughed and said, "Dearie, you are thinking too much with the left side of your brain, you are. But you are in luck. I will show you how to perform this task, yes, but first you must promise to give me what I want in return."

With no alternative, Esmeralda gave her assent. To turn the straw into gold, they took it to a nearby farmers' cooperative, where it was used to thatch an old roof. With a drier home, the farmers became healthier and more productive, and they brought forth a record harvest of wheat. Their children gradually turned the kingdom into a model democracy with no injustice and low infant mortality rates. As new investment money poured in from all over the world, the farmers remembered Esmeralda's generous gift and rewarded her with many chests of gold.

When all this was done, the diminutive man in the funny hat laughed and said, "*That* is how you turn straw into gold. Now that I have done my work, you must fulfil your part of the bargain and give me your first-born child!" Esmeralda shot back at him, "I don't have to negotiate with anyone who would interfere with my reproductive rights!" The vertically challenged man was taken aback by her conviction. He changed his tactics and said sadly, "Fair enough, dearie. I'll let you out of the bargain if you can guess what my name is." "All right," said Esmeralda. She paused a second, tapped her chin with her finger, and said, "Would your name be ... oh, I don't know, maybe ... Rumpelstiltskin?" "AAAKK!!" shrieked the man of non-standard height. "But ... but how did you know?" She replied, "You are still wearing your name badge from the Little People's Empowerment Seminar."

Rumpelstiltskin screamed in anger and stamped his foot, at which point the earth cracked open and swallowed him up. With her gold, Esmeralda moved to California to open a birth-control clinic, where she showed other womyn how not to be enslaved by their reproductive systems and lived to the end of her days as a fulfilled, dedicated single person.

Stage 3: Application

Political correctness (PC in short) really irritates some people. They think of all this fuss about speaking, writing and perhaps thinking politically correct is over-exaggerated. Below is a text found on the Internet, which is highly critical of PC.

Read the text and then discuss the question with your friend.

- Do you think the writer has a point or is he just oversensitive to the change of language?
- What, in your opinion, is the rational for PC?
- Do we need political correct language? If yes, in what situations?
- If you have read George Orwel's book 1984, do you think the writer is right in comparing PC to the 'newspeak' in the book.
- Do you think the writer is right in saying that soon there will be political correctness of thought?

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write about your experiences and observations during this lesson in your diary. In addition, consider at least one of the questions below.

(2) Discuss these further questions on euphemisms and PC in a small group. Also compare what you wrote in your diaries.

- Are euphemisms more common in certain situations? Where and why?
- Where do you use euphemisms?
- Why is PC used so much today?
- Why do politically correct ways of saying things change?
- Is there PC in Finnish, too?
- Are there any forbidden words or expressions in Finnish that you are not allowed to use because they are not 'polite'? Give examples.

Political Correctness

May 1996

O ver the past several years I have observed the use of the English language in general use and I'm afraid the news is not good. The knee jerk association of words to negative concepts is becoming a serious nuisance when trying to convey ideas and thoughts. These days we find ourselves checking our speech mentally before actually speaking. Naturally it is recommended that you should think about what you are going to say, however this particular checking isn't quite the same thing. It is focussed on not uttering words that immediately evoke negative associations as opposed to their true definition.

For instance, the traditional use of the word "man" to encompass all of humanity is now given a negative connotation entirely out of context with its traditional usage. Should you fall into this "faux pas" there seems to be always someone volunteering to correct your political incorrectness. The flow of conversation is totally disrupted while you are reminded that you should have used "men and women" or "persons", etc. At this point the substance of you argument is lost as you defend yourself from the inference of chauvinism. If you fail to recover, rest assured the gist of your conversation will be entirely discredited, whatever its merit.

Everything said these days is under the scrutiny of self-appointed language critics. Whenever someone forgets himself (oops...or herself) and relies on custom and tradition of language to make themselves understood the whole show gets sidetracked and devolves into innuendo and suspicion regarding personality. It is a classical case of shooting the messenger and ignoring the message. What is astonishing is that everyone seems to accept this new "standard" without hesitation. This is obvious in the way people socialise, cautiously advancing through a minefield of sensitivity. It really takes the fun out of free speech. Furthermore, it is self-imposed censorship.

I cannot help but be reminded of Orwell's 1984 and his introduction to "newspeak", presumably "politically correct" and safe to use. It's power was in its ambiguity, making it virtually impossible to express yourself without admitting to one or several crimes against the state, since the penal code had been extended to include thought as well as action. I cannot help but wonder if that is not precisely what is happening to us. By making the language meaningless and imprecise, ideas cannot be articulated cohesively. To attempt to do so results in a backlash of accusations that does a disservice to civilised conversation. It is being used extensively to censure individual attitudes not sanctioned by the "group', whoever that may be. Presumably we can expect political correctness of speech to extend to political correctness of thought (they are not necessarily the same). What is certain is that language is being redefined at an unprecedented rate thereby breaking the links with our heritage and corrupting history in the process.

Idioms and metaphors

*L*anguage learning is about knowing the rules so that you can break them. An important part of knowing a language is to know the typical ways of saying things. These expressions are called idioms. They are piece of cake if you know them and you can make your language livelier by using them, but the difficulty is that their meaning is hard to guess from the meaning of the individual words used. If you take them literally they seem to make no sense. The same applies to metaphors: "He's a pig" does not refer to a farm animal but to somebody who behaves like a pig, eats without manners, for example. During this lesson you will realise how certain rules of language can be broken in idioms and similes. First you will refresh your memory and list English idioms you know with their Finnish equivalents. Then you will study more closely the way we use and understand idioms and metaphors and invent some metaphors of your own. Finally you will set out to hunt for idioms in everyday language you hear around you.

Stage 1: Pre-task

Language teachers tend to emphasise that the language used should be idiomatic. That means you should say things like they are typically said in that language, not translating directly from your mother tongue. Idioms in your essays and speech are *the icing of the cake*: they make you sound native. Therefore you should learn to use some of the most common idioms.

You already know some idioms in English.

(1) List down five idioms in English.

(2) Try to find as lively Finnish translations as possible for them. Maybe you know a corresponding idiom in Finnish for these.

	English idiom		*Corresponding Finnish idiom*
1.	_____	*1.*	_____
2.	_____	*2.*	_____
3.	_____	*3.*	_____
4.	_____	*4.*	_____
5.	_____	*5.*	_____

Stage 2: Find out more about idioms and metaphors

Knowing a language includes knowing the grammar, how to combine words into sentences and what the meanings of the words are. In addition, it means knowing fixed phrases, consisting of more than one word, with meanings that cannot be guessed from the meanings of the individual words. Normally we follow certain rules in language that determine which words can be combined and which not. For example, it is not possible to say "*My husband is pregnant*" because men can't give birth. This sentence does not make any sense. In **idioms** these usual rules for combining meanings do not apply. All languages contain many idiomatic phrases. Below are English examples with animals and body parts. Try to guess their meaning!

1. When I told my mom I would be home around 2 a.m., she had a cow!
   a. My mom bought a baby cow.
   b. My mom is really strange.
   c. My mom was really upset.

2. Frank: Why didn't your brother ride the roller coaster with us?
   Sam: Oh, he's such a scared cat! He won't get on any fast ride.
   a. Sam's brother is afraid to ride the roller coaster.
   b. Sam's brother is a cat.
   c. Sam's brother didn't go to the roller coaster.

3. When the telephone salesman told me I could buy some concert tickets for only $10.00 if I gave him my credit card number, it seemed a little fishy to me, so I hung up the phone.
   a. I thought the telephone salesman smelled like a fish and I didn't like that.
   b. I thought the phone salesman was a dangerous fish and he scared me.
   c. I thought the phone salesman was dishonest and I felt suspicious of him.

4. I never learned how to use a computer, so I lost my job to a new employee. It's a dog-eat-dog world.
   a. Only the strong or the best survive.
   b. Dogs are eating dogs at the office.
   c. Dogs like to eat dogs for lunch.

5. If Tim does not shake a leg he might miss his bus.
   a. Tim has to get rid of his crutches.
   b. Tim has to hurry up.
   c. Tim has to stop making gym exercises.

6. Theodore told me that he was a millionaire. I think he is just pulling my leg.
   a. Theodore was standing on the speaker's leg.
   b. Theodore helps the speaker in stretching.
   c. Theodore is fooling the speaker.

7. If Tim does not get off Tara's back he might get a slap in the face.
   a. Tim has to get off his horse Tara as soon as possible.
   b. Tara is carrying Tim in her hatchback and she is tired.
   c. Tim has to stop bothering Tara.

Sometimes the breaking of rules that determines how words are combined can be used to convey a particular idea. *Walls having ears* is certainly an odd idea, but it can be interpreted as meaning "you can be overheard even when you think nobody is listening". In a sense the sentence is ambiguous, but the literal meaning is so unlikely that listeners stretch their imagination for another interpretation. Such non-literal interpretations are called **metaphors**. Examples of English language metaphors are for example:

He's a little monkey.

The sea roared.

The flowers bowed their head in the wind.

A related class of comparisons is called **similes**. They are used to describe something by comparing it to something else. The word *as*, *than* or *like* are used in similes. Here are some similes in English:

> *It is slower than the arrival of the Christmas morning.*
>
> *It is heavy live tragic news during the holidays.*
>
> *It is dark as my grandfather's cellar.*
>
> *It is bright as the bathroom light in the middle of the night.*
>
> *It is thin as an eight grader's emotions.*
>
> *It is stronger than the bond between mother and child.*

<div align="right">20.7.1999 in: http://www.members.home.net/teachwell/simpage.htm</div>

Now you can test whether you could be a poet greater than William Shakespeare. Write either metaphors or similes on the following themes in English.

1. School	4. Disappointment
2. Summer	5. Future
3. Love	6. Desperation

Stage 3: Application

Now that you know what idioms, metaphors and similes are, you can start hunting for them.

(1) Watch carefully one episode of an English TV soap opera and note every idiom you hear. Also take notes on what kinds of metaphors and similes are used. If you watch and listen carefully you will certainly learn some new ones, too.

(2) Make a list of all the idioms your class found. Write a poster on them and hang it on the wall of your classroom. Leave some space on the poster so that when you see or hear a new idiom, you can add it to the list.

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write down some thoughts in your learner's diary. Also make a list of the idioms you learned during the lesson. Leave some space for new ones you can add later on.

(2) Discuss in a small group the following questions:

- Do foreign language learners have to learn idioms? Why?
- Can you translate idioms and metaphors? Is it difficult or easy?
- How do you think a five-year-old interprets if somebody says, "*it's not my cup of tea*"? Why is that?

Jargon and slang

*Y*ou *know what slang means, and probably you also use some slang words and expressions when you are talking with your friends. English or American slang is familiar to you from lyrics, films and TV. Another term close to slang is jargon. During this lesson you will explore both these phenomena. First you will get a chance to taste the language of wines and wine lovers, or 'Winespeak'. Next you will see dangerous examples of the slang of US criminals and participate in compiling a slang dictionary. Finally you will let others see a glimpse of the slang or jargon you use in your free time when you describe a particular idea in an area of your interest. You will have to write two versions of the text, for a lay person and for an expert.*

Stage 1: Pre-task

Below are a few terms of 'Winespeak', the wine tasters' own language to describe wines and their characteristics.

Try to mach the term and its explanation and then discuss with your friend.

- Do you think this kind of language is needed to describe wines? Why?
- Is special vocabulary needed for other purposes?

1.	Honest	a)	Powerful in aroma and flavour; full-bodied.
2.	Big	b)	The complex of aromas that develops with age in fine wines.
3.	Chewy	c)	Wines with unusual thickness of texture or tannins that one almost "chews" before swallowing.
4.	Muscular	d)	Heavy, pruney flavour; also said of wines from very hot growing regions or wines that are overripe.
5.	Deep	e)	Having layers of persistent flavour that gradually unfold with aeration.
6.	Bouquet	f)	Not revealing flavour or aroma; closed; typical of wines that are too young or too cold.
7.	Green		
8.	Foxy	g)	The "grapey" flavours of wines made from native American grapes, Vitis labrusca.
9.	Velvety	h)	A wine made from unripe grapes, tart and lacking fruit flavour.
10.	Dumb	i)	Without flaws, typical and straightforward, simple but not great.
		j)	Vigorous fruit, powerful body and flavour; robust.
11.	Weedy	k)	Smooth and rich in texture.
		l)	Aromas or flavours reminiscent of hay or grasses; not necessarily unpleasant unless exaggerated.

7.7. in: http://www.sallys-place.com/beverages/wine/wine_glossery.htm

Stage 2: Find out more about jargon and slang

Linguists usually refer to informal language used by people in different non-technical hobbies (such as bikers, rock fans, surfers etc.) as 'slang'. 'Slang' can also refer to other informal and not mainstream language use, like the various local slangs in different cities. The term 'jargon', in contrast, is reserved for the technical vocabularies of various occupations such as doctors or computer specialists. Common to both of these is that this language is hard to understand if you are not a member of that group.

Below is a short glossary of hardboiled slang used by criminals in detective stories. If you want to sound tough why get in a car when you can *hop in a boiler*? Why tell someone to shut up when you can tell him or her to *close their head*? Why threaten to discharge a firearm when you can say, *"Dust, pal, or I pump lead!"*

While you are reading the glossary write down all the Finnish equivalents you know for these expressions.

Twists, Slugs and Roscoes: A Glossary of Hardboiled Slang

Be on the nut	To be broke
Bird	Man
Bit	Prison sentence
Blip off	To kill
Blow	Leave
Bucket	Car
C	$100
a pair of Cs	$200
Coffee-and-doughnut, as in *"These coffee-and-doughnut guns are ..."*	Could come from "coffee and cakes," which refers to something cheap or of little value.
Diapers, as in *"Pin your diapers on"*	Clothes, get dressed
Drink out of the same bottle, as in *"We used to drink out of the same bottle"*	We were close friends
Eggs in the coffee	Easy, a piece of cake, okay, all right
Have the bees	To be rich
Hitting on all eight	In good shape, going well (refers to eight cylinders in an engine)
Meat wagon	Ambulance
Tomato	Pretty woman
Wrong number	Not a good fellow

7.7. 1999 in: http://www.miskatonic.org/slang.html

You have been asked for help in compiling items for a new dictionary of the slang spoken among young people of the same age as you.

(1) Your task is now to list 10 slang words you use and provide a short definition for them with examples of how these words or expressions are used.

(2) When you have finished compare your words and definitions together with the whole class.

- Are there any differences in the definitions or usage given for one word?
- What might be the reason for these differences?

1. _____

   Definition: _____

2. _____

   Definition: _____

3. _____

   Definition: _____

4. _____

   Definition: _____

5. _____

   Definition: _____

6. _____

   Definition: _____

7. _____

   Definition: _____

8. _____

   Definition: _____

9. _____

   Definition: _____

10. _____

   Definition: _____

Source: Fromkin and Rodman 1988:445

Stage 3: Application

At this stage you will do a writing task, and the topic is your own hobby. This time, however, you need to write the same text twice.

(1) Choose one phenomenon or an idea about your hobby or special interest that you are very familiar with and write a short essay about it. Write two versions of your text: the first one is aimed at experts in that field, such as computer-freaks, and the second one to laypersons, such as your grandmother, who is not familiar with the subject. Remember to adopt your language to the needs of the target group you are writing to.

(2) Show your texts, especially the one written for a man-in-the-street, to your friend who is not familiar with the theme your wrote about. Let him/her evaluate whether you succeeded in writing a text that is easy to understand for everybody. The peer evaluation form for written tasks can be helpful in giving feedback. Show the other version to someone who knows the subject and ask him/her to comment on your text and its contents.

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Jot down some ideas you had during the lesson in your diary.

(2) Take a closer look at your two versions of the text describing your hobby. In addition to the items mentioned in the self-evaluation form for written tasks, pay special attention to how you think you succeeded in writing about the same thing in two different ways.

- Are there any differences in your two texts? What kind?
- What makes the one easier to understand and what is needed for understanding the other text?
- Was it difficult to adopt your message for different readers?
- Did you have to change your message somehow in one of the texts because of your intended readers and their previous knowledge?

(3) Discuss with your friend.

- Is special language necessary for specific purposes like different hobbies or occupations? Why? Why not?
- Why do you or people in general use slang / some slang expressions?

New words and phrases

*H*ave you ever heard of carjacking or artsy *people? Few people have because these words are relatively new inventions. The name of the game is that in language you can invent a word or a phrase if you feel you need a new one. Another question is whether your word will stand time. In other words, language is creative, or rather its users are. During this lesson you will first follow the footpaths of William Shakespeare in being a creative insult maker. Then you will find more information on the ways in which new words are added to the vocabulary and why some make it to the everyday vocabulary and others do not. Finally you will yourself create a new word and see what happens to it in the mouths of other language users.*

Stage 1: Pre-task

Every time we use language we are creative in making up sentences and combining words in ways that have not been used before. William Shakespeare is famous for having made up very creative insults with much more style than the curses used today. Now you can create your own Shakespearean insults using the table below. Before you use any of these insults be first sure of what they mean. And use them with **absolute** care, always a smile on your face! Next time you are about to say a bad word, be more creative and use one of these.

Directions:

Combine one word from each of the three columns below, begin with "Thou" and thus shalt thou have the perfect insult, for example *"Thou yeasty onion-eyed bladder!"* Let thyself go - mix and match to find a barb worthy of the Bard.

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
artless	beef-witted	apple-john
bootless	beetle-headed	baggage
churlish	dismal-dreaming	bladder
craven	dizzy-eyed	bugbear
dissembling	doghearted	bum-bailey
droning	fat-kidneyed	canker-blossom
fawning	fool-born	clotpole
fobbing	half-faced	codpiece
froward	hasty-witted	death-token
goatish	hedge-born	dewberry
impertinent	hell-hated	flap-dragon
infectious	idle-headed	foot-licker
jarring	ill-breeding	hedge-pig
lumpish	ill-nurtured	horn-beast
mammering	milk-livered	maggot-pie
saucy	onion-eyed	malt-worm
spongy	rude-growing	mumble-news
tottering	sheep-biting	pigeon-egg
weedy	tickle-brained	whey-face
yeasty	weather-bitten	wagtail

adopted from 7.7. 1999 in: http://www.deathstar.org/groups/ros/insults.html

List down your top three insults you made up. Feel free to add words outside the table that suit the style.

Insult no 1. _____

In Finnish: _____

Insult no 2. _____

In Finnish: _____

Insult no 3. _____

In Finnish: _____

📖 Stage 2: Find out more about creating words

Language changes all the time and new words are needed for new ideas and things that we invent. The new words do not usually come haphazardly (although sometimes a word is just made up, like *aspirin*, *nylon* and *teflon*, which became to be used in the general sense and not as mere trade names). There seem to be a few regular processes for creating new words.

In some new words, there is a joining of two separate words to produce a single form. This is called **compounding**, and it is a common way in English and Finnish for creating new words. English examples would be *sunburn*, *textbook* and *wallpaper*. Finnish has for example words like

_____ .

This process involves also combining two separate words to create only one new word. Typical of **blending** is that only the beginning of one word is taken and it is then joined to the end of another word. For example, if you want to refer to the combined effects of *smoke* and *fog*, there is the term *smog*. Another examples are *brunch* (breakfast + lunch) and the *Chunnel* (Channel + tunnel) that connects England and France. In Finnish we have blendings such as _____ .

Clipping occurs when a word more than one syllable (e.g. *advertisement*) is made shorter (*ad*). *Fan* (fanatic), *phone* (telephone) and *sitcom* (situation comedy) are examples of clipping. Many English school and education words that you surely know have shortened forms, too, for example _____ . In Finnish we use

_____ .

Also **back-formation** shortens the words. Typically, an already existing noun is shortened to form another word of different type, often a verb. A good example is to *babysit* (from a babysitter). Finnish backformations might be words like _____.

When the function of the word changes, the process is called **conversion**. Nouns often become verbs, such as *paper*, *butter* and *bottle* have resulted in *to paper* (e.g. walls), *to butter* (a toast) and *to bottle* (e.g. wine). This happens also the other way round: *must* becomes *a must* and *to print out* becomes *a printout*. Finnish examples of conversion are _____.

Adapted from Yule 1996:64-67

These newly invented words or terms are called **neologisms**. At first they may be considered barbaric misuse of language, but very soon they are accepted widely. For example, it is difficult to understand that the word *handbook* was called a "tasteless innovation" at the beginning of this century. Neologisms seem to be more typical of cultures with rapidly changing technologies and faster information channels.

Here are a few examples of some fairly recent neologisms. Which of the processes mentioned above do they represent?

artsy
(adj.) = pretending to be artistic. Overly artistic.

big-eyed
(adj.) = One who eats when he or she is not hungry; greedy.
For example in conversation: *"If I see food, I want to eat it. I'm so big-eyed."*

carjacking

(noun) = An incident by which a usually armed individual coerces the driver of an automobile to give up his vehicle or drive it and the assailant to some specified location. For example in a new paper: *"A carjacking at the corner of Cherry Lane and the Interstate 30 access road has left local residents shocked."*

fantabulous

(adj.) = beyond fabulous. For example in a conversation: *"It's fantabulous!"*
(adj.) = Excellent, superlative, both fabulous and fantastic. For example in a TV advert: *"This fantabulous four-poster bed can be yours..."*

garden burger

(noun) = A hamburger made with a non-meat, vegetarian patty instead of beef, served by Rice University Food Service. Also gardenburger. For example in a conversation: *"The garden burger is a healthy alternative to a hamburger."*

McJob

(noun) = A job in a service related field with low pay, low prestige and little opportunity for advancement. For example in a magazine: *"...a message that I suppose irked Dad, who was bored and cranky after eight hours of working his McJob."*

whatever

(verb) = To dismiss or ignore. Desire to dismiss. For example in a conversation: *"That guy really whatevers me."*

7.7.1999 in: http://www.owlnet.rice.edu/~ling215/NewWords/page1.html

Stage 3: Application

Now it is time to start doing things yourself. Think of an idea, concept or a thing for which there is no word in Finnish. Such things are easy to find. For example, what would you call two milk cartons that are jammed together? Or the relatives of one's husband/wife (in English *the in-laws*, but there is no one-word expression in Finnish)?

(1) Invent a totally new word for something you have always needed a word for but which hasn't existed so far in Finnish.

(2) List down all the words and their definitions provided by your class. Remember to write them down for later use.

(3) Start using at least some of these words as often as you can.

(4) At the end of the course look at your list again. How many words have survived? Who uses them? Why do you think these words remained in use and others were forgotten?

P.S. Hopefully your word will not become an inkhorn word (an invented word that never made it. The phrase 'inkhorn term' came into English in the sixteenth century. At first it referred to words which were being used by scholarly writers but which were unknown or uncommon in ordinary speech. The word 'inkhorn' derives from the then standard name for the container in which ink was stored, originally made from a real horn!

(about inkhorn words, 7.7.1999 in http://clever.net/quinion/words/articles/inkhorn.htm)

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Reflect on what you thought and learned during this lesson by writing a few lines in your diary. Furthermore, consider one of the questions below.

(2) Consider the following questions in pairs.

- Why do some words make it and become part of the language and others do not?
- Are people who use language skilfully creative? How?
- Are language and its users creative in other ways than making up new words?
- If there weren't anything creative in language what would it be like?

Change of language over time

Times change, and so change languages. For example, nowadays it is rather difficult to understand the language of Agricola. During this lesson you will get information on how English, as every language, has changed in the past and how it changes now. In other words, we will discuss the historical change of language. First you will think of changes in the Finnish language. Then you will read about the history of the English language and see a glimpse of what it looked liked centuries ago. Finally you will ponder about the reasons for language change.

Stage 1: Pre-task

English, as any natural language in the world, has undergone some changes over the centuries. The same process goes on at present. Below there is a real letter to the editor from Helsingin Sanomat dealing with language change.

Read the text and then discuss it with your friend.

- Can you come up with other examples of how either Finnish or English have changed or what kinds of changes there are going on right now?
- What do you think of these changes?
- Are they good or bad, inevitable or natural?

Älkää pilatko kieltämme!

Mikä on Suomen kansaan mennyt, kun ei enää osata kunnon suomea? Persoonattomat muodot ovat unohtumassa. Kaikki on vaan sinuttelua ja sitkusä-kieltä. Esimerkkinä tästä lehdestä. "Kun omat lapsesi olivat pieniä..." Mistä kirjoittaja tietää onko minulla lapsia vai ei? Puhuisi vain omistaan. "Kun omat lapset olivat pieniä" olisi oikein.

Entäs seuraava: "Sitten sinut viedään vankilaan..." Ja minua kun ei mihinkään viedä. "Sitten viedään vankilaan" on oikeaa kieltä. Tai miksei sanoisi suoraan: "Sitten minut vietiin vankilaan". "Jos tulee kylmä, täytyy vetää ylle villapaita" kuuluu nykyään: "Jos sun tulee kylmä, sun täytyy vetää ylle villapaita". Pahinta on muoto:

"Siinä sulla on..." Ja mulla kun ei ole. "Siinä on..." riittää.

Entäs kun teititellään, pitääkö (sun) sanoa: "Sitkute..."? Lääkeohjeet ovat täynnä ilmaisuja: "Sinun tulee kutsua lääkäri". Se ilmaistaan kätevästi: "Kutsu lääkäri". Käytäntö on tietysti englannista kotoisin, mutta jos suomi on lyhyempää, miksi ei käyttäisi sitä? Vai onko jo sanottava: "miksi et käyttäisi sitä"? Kääntäjät näyttävät kääntävän säännöllisesti englannin kaikki you-sanat suomeen. Ja you-sanakin on itse asiassa "te". Älkää pilatko kieltämme.

KERTTU LINDÉN, *Kerava*
Helsingin Sanomat, 23.9. 1997

Stage 2: Find out more about language change

At this stage we will look more closely at a particular language, English, and see how it has changed over time. The text below reviews the history of English and gives examples of the historical English, which all mean the same, only a few centuries have passed between the time of writing.

Read the text on the history of the English language and the examples from each period.

The English language has undergone many changes over the centuries. The first period from about 449 to 1100 is called **the Old English period**. At that time, the grammar of English resembled for example that of present-day German a lot. Also the spelling of words is very different from what it is nowadays. (tenth century)

Þā hī pā ferdon, pā ætȳwde Drihtnes engel lossepe on swefnum.

The next period, **the Middle English period** lasted from 1100 to 1500. The most important event during this period was the arrival of Normans from France in 1066. A lot of new words were adapted to the English language from French. The grammar became simpler and many of the inflections of the words were lost. Moreover, the pronunciation changed and along with that, also the spelling of words.

(fourteenth century)
And whanne thei weren goon, lo, the aungel of the Lord apperide to Joseph in sleep.

The third period from 1500s on in the history of English is called **the Modern English period**. The consequence of the invention of printing around 1500 was the fixed spelling of words. However, pronunciation changed a lot during this period. This is the reason for why pronunciation and the spelling of words differ so much from each other. In addition, the grammar was further simplified.

(early seventeenth century)
And when they were departed, behold, the Angel of the Lord appeareth to Joseph in a dreame.

The letter below is an example of the correspondence of the Norfolk family of Paston. The letter was written by Margaret Paston in May 1448 to her husband John. In the letter Mrs. Paston describes an incident that happened to her.

(1) Try to translate this letter into Modern English.

(2) As you read the letter, make a list of the differences you notice between the language in the letter and Modern English used today.

- What has changed in 550 years?

- Give examples of these changes.

Ryght worship husbond,

I recomaund me to you, and prey yow to wete that on Friday last passed before noon, the parson of Oxened beyng at messe in oure parossh chirche, evyn atte levacion of the sakeryng. Jamys Gloys hadde ben in the toune and come homeward by Wymondhams gate. And Wymondham stod in his gate, and John Norwosw his man stod by hym, and Thomas Hawys his othir man stod in the strete by tge canell side. And James Gloys come wyth his hatte on his hede between bothe his men, as he was wont of custome to do. And whanne Gloys was ayenst Wymondham, he seide thus: 'Covere thy heed!' And gloys seid ageyn, 'So I shall for the.' And whanne Gloys was forther passed by the space of iii or iii strede, Wymondham drew owt his dagger and seid, 'Shalt thow so, knave?' And therwith Gloys turned hym, and drewe owt his dagger and defendet hym, fleyng into my moderis place; and Wymondham and his man Hawys kest stonys and dreve Gloys into my modernis place, and Hawys folwyd into my modernis place and kest a ston as meche as a forthyn lof into the halle aafter Gloys, and than ran owt of the place ageyn. [...]

From: Crystal 1995:35

Stage 3: Application

This passage explains the reasons for language change. After you have read it, return back to *Stage 1: Pre-task* and the letter to the editor in it. Write a reply to that letter explaining your thoughts about language change. Remember to give grounds for your thoughts and do not forget to give examples of language use.

None of the changes in language happen overnight. They are gradual and probably difficult to notice while they are in progress. Although some changes can be linked to major social changes caused by wars, invasion and other upheavals, the most important source of change in language seems to be in the continual process of cultural transmission. Each new generation has to find a way of using the language of the previous generation. In the unending process in which each new language-user has to 'recreate' for him- or herself the language of the community, it is unavoidable that some elements are picked up exactly and others only approximately. There is also an occasional desire to be different. Therefore it is no wonder that language will not remain stable, but that change and variation are inevitable.

Adopted from: Yule 1996:222

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write some comment on the topic of the lesson in your learner's diary.

(2) Look at your letter written at stage 3 again and fill in a self-evaluation form for written assignments. Try to be critical but fair to yourself. After your own evaluation of your letter let your friend read and evaluate it.

(3) Then discuss and compare your views on language change.

- Is there something in your opinion that should not be changed in language?

- What can be changed?

- Who decides what is the 'right' way of saying things?

- Have you ever been a promoter of language change? How did this happen?

Influence of other languages

L anguages do not exist in a vacuum without other languages influencing them. On the contrary, the neighbouring or even far-away language may have a role in the changes in language, particularly in obtaining new vocabulary. During this lesson you will consider what kind of influences from other languages there are in Finnish. First you will discuss the widespread use of English expressions in Finnish. Then you will find out about the new words entering into Finnish first through ads. Finally, you will get a chance to express your own opinions on the future of Finnish in the middle of English and other language influences.

Stage 1: Pre-task

In Finland you do not have to listen and watch around too long to see traces of other languages in Finnish. Especially English is difficult to ignore.

Read the letter to the editor below and discuss it with your friend.

* Do we mix Finnish and English too much?
* Where, apart from the names of big cultural events, English (or other foreign languages) are used along with Finnish? Give examples.

Suomi goes englanniksi

Olen ihastuneena seurannut englannin ja suomen kielen sujuvaa yhdistämistä suurten kulttuuritapahtumien nimeämisessä. Mitä poikkeuksellista luovuutta ja omaperäisyyttä osoittavatkaan nuo taidokkaasti kiteytetyt sanat. Down by the Laituri, kuinka hienoa. Art goes Kapakassa tänään Classic Sunday (HS 31.8.), kuinka kansainväliseltä se kuulostaakaan.

Ehdotankin saman linjan jatkamista entistä suuremmassa yhteiskunnallisessa mittakaavassa. Down by the Hallituksen Iltakoulu. Ahtisaari goes Maakunnat. Älköön kukaan, never, pääskö sanomaan, että me suomalaiset emme olisi osa kansainvälistyvää ja yhdistyvää maailmaa. Heittäkäämme kansallinen kieli, kulttuuri ja valuutta historian romukoppaan tämän uuden ja uljaan ajan kynnyksellä.

REKO LEINO
goes hulluksi, Turku
HS, 8.9.1997

Stage 2: Find more about the influence of other languages

English has influenced Finnish very much, some people say that even too much. When you walk in any Finnish town you do not have to look too long for advertisements, trade marks or signs in English. English words are everywhere.

(1) Take a quite ordinary mail order catalogue selling clothes, for example *Anttila* or *Ellos* and look at it from the point of view of foreign language influences.

(2) Take some five pages for a closer look and make a list of all foreign (especially English) words you see. Note that some of the words have been made to look more Finnish but they still clearly come from English, for example, *bleiseri* (blazer).

(3) On the basis of your observations consider these question in pairs.
  - Why are these words used?
  - Would there be Finnish equivalents for these words?
  - Is it OK to use words of foreign origin in Finnish texts? When?
  - Jot down a few other words recently used in Finnish. In what kind of contexts do these words mostly appear?

Stage 3: Application

The French are notorious for their attitude to influences of other languages. They have set up the French Academy to preserve the purity of the French language and try to prohibit any use of English loan words in official contexts. Recently a similar organisation has been founded in Germany. Should the same kinds of actions be taken in Finland so that we could preserve our language?

(1) Each one of you is to give a talk in front of a small group (five to six pupils). The topic of your speech is "Will Finnish disappear?" In your short talk (two to three minutes) you should first describe the present situation in Finland, then introduce the actions that
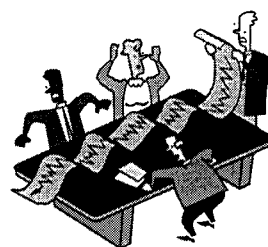
should be taken and finally, think about the consequences of your suggestions.

(2) Your audience will listen to you carefully and give you feedback on your talk. The listeners can use the peer evaluation form or give free comments.

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Take your dear diary and write some thoughts on the theme of the lesson and on your experiences during the past two lessons.

(2) Write a few lines evaluating yourself and on how you think you did as you gave the talk at stage 3. Evaluate yourself independently from the comments you received from the others.

(3) Discuss these questions in a small group.

- Are loanwords a threat to the Finnish language?
- Why do many of the loan words nowadays come from English?
- Are there any links with language and culture?
- Do you use words of foreign origin in your speech? How about in writing? Why?

Dialects

*W*hen you hear people speaking you might be able to tell whereabouts in the country they come from. You may even be able to imitate a dialect or speak one. In this lesson you will think about regional language variety, in other words, dialects. Dialect is the way of using language, which varies depending on the place of living. Here we will mostly concentrate on the dialects spoken on the British Isles. First you will listen to a few dialect speakers and compare your associations of each of them with your partners. Then you will see some examples of written British dialects. Your task is to list English dialect words you have sometime come across. Finally you will say your own opinion about dialects in writing and consider in what situations they are OK and when not.

Stage 1: Pre-task

(1) Listen to the following dialect speakers. After hearing each extract describe the persons on the basis of what you hear. Describe each speaker by indicating his or her characteristics between the two extremes (friendly-unfriendly, interesting-boring and intelligent-stupid). Also try to answer the following questions:

- Where do they live?
- What kind of education do they have?
- How would you describe these speakers on the basis of their way of speaking?

Speaker 1 sounds...

friendly ●————•————————•————————•————● unfriendly

interesting ●————•————————•————————•————● boring

intelligent ●————•————————•————————•————● stupid

Speaker 2 sounds...

friendly ●————●————————●————————●————————● unfriendly

interesting ●————●————————●————————●————————● boring

intelligent ●————●————————●————————●————————● stupid

Speaker 3 sounds...

friendly ●————●————————●————————●————————● unfriendly

interesting ●————●————————●————————●————————● boring

intelligent ●————●————————●————————●————————● stupid
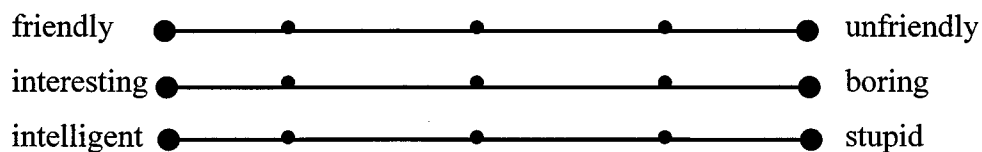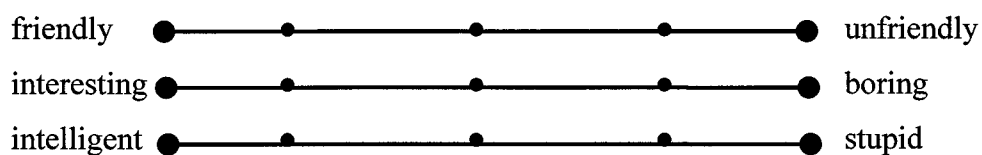
(2) Compare your ratings and answers to the questions with your friend. On what basis did you draw your conclusions about the person?

(3) Discuss with the whole class.

- If you hear Finnish dialects, do you use the same kinds of criteria in evaluating these speakers?

- Give examples of Finnish dialects and their speakers. How would you rate them?

Stage 2: Find out more about dialects

When talking about different varieties of a language you have to be familiar with the definition of the term. **Dialect** refers to a variety of language which includes non-standard features of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. An **accent**, in contrast, is something every speaker of a language has. It covers only the pronunciation. So, you always have an accent but you may or may not speak a dialect.

In the British dialects they have many dialect words of their own which have not entered the standard language. For example, in southern England they use such words as *leer*, *leery* or *thirl* instead of *hungry*. In northern England the word

clammed is used. Similarly, *gymshoes* are called *plimshoes* in the south and east. In Wales people call them *daps* and in central England they are *pumps*. In Liverpool they are known as *gollies* and in Yorkshire *sandshoes*.

Although dialects don't have any official spelling rules, they are still written down. Below is an example of a nursery rhyme (narsery rhoime) in the Norfolk dialect.

Little owd gal Muffet Sat roight down on an owd tuffet Eatin' har cards an' whey, When there come a master grut owd spoider And sat roight down aside o'har And wholly scart the li'l ol' mawther away.	*This is the original one:* Little Miss Muffet She sat on a tuffet Eating her curds and whey, There came a big spider And sat down beside her And frightened Miss Muffet away.

(1) Revise your memory of English words and list down any English (or American) dialect forms for example for *a girl*, *a child* or *a boy*. Where are these words used?

(2) Do you know any other dialect expressions (sentences, sayings etc.)?

Below are two examples of written dialect language texts. Choose one of them for a closer look. The first one is a Scotts Bible translation about the 'Prodigal Son' in Luke 15:11-16. The second is in the Norfolk dialect describing pig killing.

(1) Try to figure out what the text would be in standard English.

(2) Read the text aloud in pairs. Are you able to sound like a real dialect speaker?

The Prodigal Son

This, tae, he said tae them: 'There wis aince a man hed twa sons; and ae day the yung son said till him: "Faither, gie me the faa-share o your haudin at I hae a richt til." Sae the faither haufed his haudin atweesh his twa sons.

No lang efterhin the yung son niffert the haill o his portion for siller, and fuir awà fruth til a faur-aff kintra, whaur he sperfelt his siller livin the life o a weirdless waister. Efter he hed gane throu the haill o it, a fell faund himself in unco sair mister. Sae he gaed an hired wi an indwaller in that kintra, an the man gied him hte wark o tentin his swine outbyu i the fields. Gledlie wad he panged his wame wi the huils at they maitit the swine wi, but naebodie gied him a haet...'

From Crystal 1995:328

The Pig Killing by the Boy John

Deer Sar - Now I recon this'll meark yar mouth warter. Larst Tharsder, we hed pigs fry an' dumplens, wi' are nice grearvy (an' we are only poor people. Granfar say, 'I recon this is our "Festival" dinner, John.' I'll tell you suffin else, we ha' got sum proper sossages (not harf breard), so I know we shull hev sossage rolls for tea a' tha Sunday night, an' we ha' got sum pork cheeses an' scraps (I like them).Well, I'll tell yow how we cum by orl that luvely grub. Granfar's pal Jimmur killed a pig inter house, an' we orl went down to lend a hand. Aunt Agatha, she wus a cutten the stuff up, I wus fetchen an' bilen warter an duen. Granfar he wus a grinden out the sossages, wen there wus a knock on the door.

Aunt Agatha wiper har hans on har earpron an' went, an' blowed if that wornt oul Mrs. W-, she recon she wanted to see Aunt Agatha about suffen. Granfer say 'She know you ha' killed a paig, Jimmur, she's arter wot she can git. If she cum threw here, I'll shuv har trew this sosage masheen.' (We wore a warken trew in Jimmur's back plearse.)

Stage 3: Application

Some people consider dialects as 'bad language' that should be abandoned or at least dialect speakers should be taught to speak properly. What do you think? Are dialects OK? Who should be allowed to use them and in what situation? Are there any situations in which you should not use your dialect?

Write a pamphlet on your views on dialect. If you are short of ideas you can comment on the text below. It is a news paper article about an Englishman who really suffered from his way of speaking after moving to another place. In England the accents you speak with counts a lot more than in Finland; it marks your social standing and reveals your place of living. Although the situation in England is rather different from the situation in Finland, do you think this could happen here, too?

Is an accent so wrong?

YES, IT TAKES YOUR COURAGE TO BE HONEST.

Blacksmith Harry Speight died a victim of dialect snobbery. He killed himself at 70 because he was ashamed of his Yorkshire accent when he went to live in the South, it was said at the inquest.

His new neighbours are not the blamed for his death. Responsibility lies partly at least at the door of those who still propagate the theory that a Northern accent is somehow "common," a Southern twang correct.

From Crystal 1995:298

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write a few lines on what you think was the most important point for you during this lesson.

(2) Look critically at your pamphlet on dialects. First evaluate your own text with the help of self-evaluation form for written tasks. Then change texts with your friend and give feedback to each other with the same evaluation form. Do not show your own evaluation to your friend before he or she has given the feedback on your text.

(3) Discuss dialects with your friend.
- Why do people use dialects?
- What does it tell from a person if he / she uses dialect?
- If you can / could speak in a dialect are you / would you be ashamed or proud of it?

English around the world

If you know English you will manage with it in great many countries. However, English is not universal, not even in the countries in which it is spoken as a mother tongue. In addition, English is the most widely spoken foreign language in the world and you are certain to hear many different accents. During this lesson you will first hear some examples of English around the world and try to place these accents on the map. Then you will find out about the particularities of Australian, American and British Englishes. Finally the whole class will participate in the great debate on the superiority of either American or British English.

Stage 1: Pre-task

English is spoken by millions of people around the world.

(1) Colour the countries on the map in which English is spoken as a mother tongue, official (or second language) or semi-official language, or where there are many English mother tongue speakers in addition to other languages.

(2) Can you explain why English is spoken so much around the world?

Listen to the recordings of English mother tongue speakers.

- Can you place them on the map based on their way of speaking?
- What are the features that you base your decision on?
- Which accent was the easiest to understand? Why?

Stage 2: Find more about English around the world

The British and Americans are divided by a common language.

- George Bernard Shaw

Generally speaking, the English language is fairly similar in every corner of the world. However, each English-speaking area in the world has some vocabulary of its own, along with other regional features in grammar, and especially pronunciation.

Do this quiz on Australian slang. How many of the words or expressions can you get right, either by knowing or guessing?

Australian slang quiz

1. "Dunny" means

_____ .

a toilet
a house
a teacher

2. Your "mate" is your

_____ .

wife
shoe
friend

3. A "sheila " is a

_____ .

friend
woman
beer

4. The remote country area of Australia is called the

_____ .

pub
outback
city

5. A common Australian greeting is _____ .

honk
meow
g'day

6. "Fair dinkum" means that Dave

is _____ .

a very crazy teacher
telling the truth
tired, hungry, and drunk

7. "Chook" means _____ .

chicken
beef
pork

8. "Brass" is _____ .

beer
music
money

13.5. 99 in: www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/quiz/aus1.html

Below is a text from the Internet written by a Brit. In the text he points out some of the differences in vocabulary between British and American English.

(1) Make a list of your own covering more such words that have a different meaning on the other side of the Atlantic.

(2) Continue your list with English words that are used only in one country.

Words that could be confusing & embarrassing in the UK & US

At long last, here is the complete list of Anglo-American confusions. The definitions have been cross-referenced with the most recent edition of the Oxford Dictionary, and the Hutchinson British-American Dictionary, so if you don't agree with some of my definitions take up the argument with them (unless I say otherwise in the text).

◆ **Football.** A classic example of our culture gap. To us football is what you call soccer. To you football is what we call pointless. You probably think the same way about cricket..

◆ **Gas.** To the citizens of the United Kingdom, an instrument of warfare, the stuff that you use to cook your dinner on or a state of matter that is neither liquid nor solid. To you guys, what we call petrol and the gaseous by product of bottom burps (wind).

◆ **Beer.** What you call beer, we call lager. What we call beer, you call disgusting. This might be mutual.

◆ **Warm clothing.** In the UK we wear warm woolly upper garments during the winter which we call 'jumpers'. You call them 'sweaters'. Boring but true. Also a long woolly dress is called a 'jumper' in the US. I suppose both nations have the joke:
- What do you get if you cross a kangaroo with a sweater? - A woolly jumper.

◆ **Ladder.** In both countries an item used to scale the outsides of buildings. However, if you are in the UK and you heard a lady say 'Oh bother! I have a ladder in my tights!' note that she isn't carrying a large and cumbersome item of hardware (US)/ ironmongery (UK) around with her. She just has a run in her panty hose...

◆ **Torch.** You and your British friend have gone camping. You've pitched your tent and have just got into your sleeping bags. Suddenly your friend says 'Where's my torch?' At this point you have images of him producing a US torch (i.e. one with flames) and setting the tent on fire! You feel relieved when he digs deep into his rucksack and produces ...a flashlight. Phew!

◆ **Hiring and renting.** In the UK you would hire a car or a television set and rent a house. In the US you would rent all three. Confusing? Well, judging by this dialogue the answer is most definitely 'yes'...

> My colleague went into a "car rental" place and said: "Hello, I'd like to hire a car for a fortnight please." To which, after a noticeable delay, the person replied: "Oh, you want to rent a car. How long is a fortnight?" (By the way, a fortnight is two weeks...)

13.5. 99 in: www.wmin.ac.uk/~sfgva/ukus/ukus_text.htm

Stage 3: Application

At this stage your task is to arrange a debate on the superiority of American or British English.

(1) Divide the class into two groups. The two groups start by brainstorming. The task is to come up with as many grounds as possible for why either British or American English is better. Which of them should be taught at school?

(2) When you are prepared for the hot debate, each group chooses two representatives for the whole group. These four people start the debate. The others listen and take notes. After two minutes the representatives have to be changed. The following four people continue from where the first ones stopped. Finally, during the third set of debaters you must reach a compromise.
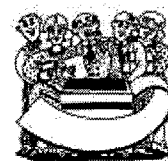
During the debate, do not forget good manners and debate technique! The most important thing is to listen carefully to what the others say. Your victory is guaranteed!

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Take some notes in your learner's diary. In addition to the usual questions on what you think were the highlights of the lesson comment on which variant of English you would like to learn. Is it British, American, Australian or perhaps some other variant of English? Why do you prefer that variant?

(2) If you have a recording of the debate you had at stage 3, listen to it again. If you don't, try to remember what was said and how. If you were one of the representatives of your group involved in the debate evaluate your oral performance with the self-evaluation form. If you weren't among the participants in the debate, give general feedback to those who talked for your group. Give general suggestions without names on how these people could have improved their performance, i.e. their language use and debate technique.

(3) Discuss the following questions in small groups.

- Why does English have such a role in the world?
- Who determines which English is the best one? Why and how?
- What kind of English do you want to learn? Why?

Formality

*W*e *do not speak to everyone in the same way. Old ladies are addressed differently from little boys in the neighbourhood. This lesson will make you consider how you adopt your language depending on with whom you are talking. This variation in use of language is what degrees of formality are about. First you will think about the variation in greetings. Then you will perform sketches with different situations and persons involved. Finally you will try to pinpoint which language forms do not fit in a discussion.*

Stage 1: Pre-task

You have probably noticed that you speak differently depending on the person(s) you are talking with.

(1) In a small group try to come up with as many English greetings as you can.

1. _____	6. _____
2. _____	7. _____
3. _____	8. _____
4. _____	9. _____
5. _____	10. _____

Often five **degrees of formality** are distinguished (listed here from the most formal to the least formal):

- frozen-formal
- semi-formal
- straightforward-normal
- colloquial-familiar
- slang
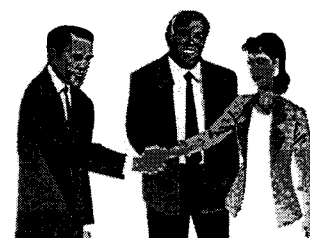
(2) Together with the whole class try to place each greeting into one of these categories of formality.

- Can you find greeting variants for every category?
- On what basis did you do your judgements?

Based on Hawkins 1987:158 and Tinkel 1988:136

Stage 2: Find out more about formality

Our use of language will vary depending on our role in the discussion.

(1) In pairs, devise short sketches on the following situations and perform them to the rest of the class.

When Lisa (16) is on her way back home from school, she finds out that her brand new bike has been stolen from the schoolyard. What do you consider the discussion is likely to be when Lisa explains the situation to the following people:

- Lisa's classmate at school who happens to be present
- the neighbour's little son who asks too many questions
- an old lady whose mobile phone Lisa wants to use to report the theft to the police
- a crowd of onlookers that has gathered in the parking area
- the headmaster of the school, when reporting about the theft
- her best friend at home
- her classmates next day at the lunch break
- the police officer at the police station when reporting the theft

---

(2) After you have performed each sketch, consider the following points in small groups:

- what is the relationship between the participants?
- how formal English is being used?
- do the participants use the same level of formality or is one of them speaking more informally than the other?
- which words and phrases give you hints on the degree of formality?

(3) Consider these further points with the whole class:

- What would happen to language if these sketches were in Finnish?
- How can you convey different levels of formality in Finnish?
- Jot down a few expressions in Finnish for each situation.

Stage 3: Application

At this stage you will experiment on different levels of formality and see how much the language used can reveal from the participants of the discussion.

(1) Write a dialogue between two people. However, at one point of your dialogue, make your characters use the wrong degree of formality.

(2) Circulate your dialogue in the classroom and let your classmates guess who the characters are and what is their relationship to each other. Your friends' task is also to point out the slip in formality.

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Summarise some of the most important insights you had during the lesson in your learner's diary.

(2) At first, decide whether you want to concentrate your reflection on the sketches performed at stage 2 or the dialogue at stage 3. Accordingly, choose either (a) or (b). After this, consider the questions in (3) in pairs.

a) Together with the friend you performed the sketches at stage 2, think back to your performance. You can get some help from the self/peer evaluation form for oral tasks.

- How do you think you succeeded overall?
- Were you satisfied with the language you used? Why / why not? What could you improve in your spoken English?

b) Take a closer look at your dialogue written at stage 3. The self/peer evaluation form for written tasks is of help to you. Pay special attention to how your dialogue succeeded in illustrating a certain level of formality.

(3) List down five situations in which you are regularly. Then consider these questions and compare your views with your friend:

- What level of formality do you use in them?
- How do you decide what expressions to use in each situation?
- Do you use every level of formality? Which of them most often? Which one least? Why is that?

Registers

You don't have to be a genius to tell a sermon from a sports commentary, especially if they are in a language you know. In this lesson you will consider the language of different activities, such as advertising, prayers and fairy tales. In other words, you will become familiar with registers. Register is the type of language used for a particular activity, such as advertisements or the language of the law. First you will look at the language of law and try to understand why it is used. Then you will learn about different registers and their typical features. Finally you will test your friends' ability to tell a difference between a real representative of, say, a fairy tale and your not-quite-right version of it.

Stage 1: Pre-task

Below is an extract from the English Law. Read it and then discuss these questions with your friend.

- Is it easy to understand? Why? Why not?
- Do you know any other situations in which such language is used?
- Do you consider this gobbledegook (= kapulakieli)?
- In what kind of situations is this kind of language appropriate?
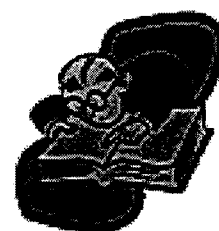
Road Traffic (NHS Charges) Act 1999
Chapter 3 - continued

An Act to make provision about the recovery from insurers and certain other persons of charges in connection with the treatment of road traffic casualties in national health service, and certain other, hospitals; and for connected purposes.

10th March 1999

BE IT ENACTED by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:-

Payment for hospital treatment

Payment for hospital treatment of traffic casualties.

1. - (1) This section applies if-
> (a) a person ("the traffic casualty") has suffered injury, or has suffered injury and died, as a result of the use of a motor vehicle on a road;
> (b) a compensation payment is made in respect of that injury or death; and
> (c) the traffic casualty has received NHS treatment at a health service hospital in respect of his injury.

(2) The person making the compensation payment is liable to pay the appropriate NHS charges to the Secretary of State in respect of the treatment.

(3) "Compensation payment" means-
> (a) a payment made by an authorised insurer under, or in consequence of, a policy issued under section 145 of the Road Traffic Act 1988,
> (b) a payment made by the owner of the vehicle, in a case where the vehicle is one in relation to the use of which a security under Part VI of that Act is in force,
> (c) a payment made by the owner of the vehicle who has made a deposit under that Part, or
> (d) a payment made in pursuance of a compensation scheme for motor accidents, but does not include a payment under section 158 of that Act.

(4) A payment is a compensation payment whether or not it is made-
> (a) in the United Kingdom; or
> (b) voluntarily, or in pursuance of a court order or an agreement, or otherwise.

(5) Regulations may provide that a payment of a prescribed description is not to count as a compensation payment, either generally or in such circumstances as may be prescribed.

Stage 2: Find out more about registers

Register is the term used for referring to a certain kind of language used in certain situations. For example, the language of advertisements differs very much from the language of the church.

Below are some extracts of language used in different areas of life.

(1) Read the texts through and identify it, e.g. whether it is a sermon or an academic piece of writing.

(2) Study the extracts carefully and try to define the characteristics of each text type. Try to find answers to these questions:

- Is this text originally spoken or written?
- What kind of vocabulary is used?
- What are the sentences like?
- What is the reason for using such language in this situation?

Stage 3: Application

Take a closer look at three other registers than the ones mentioned in the exercise at stage 2. For example, you can look at the personal advertisement from a newspaper, a fairy tale, horoscopes, messages sent by mobile phones and TV report from abroad in the news.

(1) Get real examples of each of the registers you chose and write yourselves other ones. The ones you write should have something wrong with them as if the writer did not know what is required for that kind of text. But do not make your "slip in the register" too obvious. In the end you should have three pairs of texts: one of them an original one and the other one written by you with some errors in the style.

(2) Change your texts with another group. Try to decide which of the examples are original and which of them written by your classmates. Give grounds for why you think the other text is a fake.

(1) O God the King of Glory, who hast exalted thine only Son Jesus Christ with great triumph unto thy kingdom in heaven, we beseech thee leave us not comfortless, but send us thine Holy Ghost to comfort us, and exalt us into the same place, whither our Saviour Christ is gone before, who liveth and reigneth with thee and the Holy Ghost, one God, world without end. Amen.

(2) Whereas a proposal to effect with the Society and assurance on the Life Insured named in the Schedule hereto has been duly made and signed as a basis of such assurance and a declaration has been made agreeing that this policy shall be subject to the Society's Registered Rules (which shall be deemed to form part of this policy) to the Table of Insurance printed hereon and to the terms and conditions of the said Table...

(3) The photolytic decomposition of phenylazotriphenylmethane in benzene apparently follows a similar course to the pyrolytic decomposition discussed above. It has been investigated by Horner and Naumann (1954) and Huisgen and Nakate (1954), and was found to involve a primary dissociation into phenyl and triphenylmethyl radicals and nitrogen, in the manner indicated in equation (8).

(4) And the score goes up to 34 for 2. Edrich 22. And Cowdery out this morning, caught Burge, bowled Hawke, 10. And England now, of course, metaphorically speaking, on the back foot. The batsmen still to come, which many of you no doubt will be counting up – and some Englishmen may be glad that Jack Flavell was left out in favour of a batsman – Parfitt next, then Sharpe, then Parkes, then Titmus, Trueman, Gifford, Coldwell. Now a little fussing about someone behind the sightscreen before McKenzie bowls...

(5) My government reaffirm their support for the defence of the free world, the basic concept of the Atlantic alliance, and they will continue to play their full part in the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, and in other organisations for collective defence. They will review defence policy to ensure, by relating our commitments and our resources, that my armed forces are able to discharge their many tasks overseas with the greatest effectiveness and economy...

(6) Ordinary dusting doesn't remove sticky marks. Now Pledge turns your duster into a magnet for dust and marks. With Pledge just a wipe picks up dust and sticky marks. Leaves a real wax shine instantly. So when you dust, turn your duster into a magnet for dust and marks, with Pledge. Worth every penny, because it cleans and shines as you dust. Pledge, form Johnsons.   Adopted from Crystal 1988:97-98

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write some comments on what you thought during the lesson in your diary.

(2) Evaluate your small texts written at stage 3 with the self-evaluation form. Pay special attention to how you succeeded in writing real sounding and looking texts.

(3) Discuss the following questions on registers in pairs:

- What happens if somebody uses the wrong register in a certain situation?
- Are there any differences in the use of registers in different languages?
- Are registers important to learn in a foreign language?

Direct and indirect language

*D*o *you know someone who always hints at things but never says directly what he or she wants? There is a linguistic term for this kind of behaviour: indirect speech acts. We all do it from time to time. It is simply more polite to ask: "Excuse me, do you know where the post office is?" than saying simply: "Tell me where the post office is". Yet, if your partner is witty enough you will get an answer: "Yes, I know." During this lesson you will first think about those thousands of ways of asking someone to do something, directly or indirectly. Then, you will learn about how conversations go and how much we actually leave for the listener to interpret. Finally, you will try this in practice and let your friends interpret conversations in which a lot is left unsaid.*

Stage 1: Pre-task

Discuss with your friend: has it ever happened to you that someone tried to say something to you and you did not understand what he or she meant? What was the situation like? Why do you think you did not understand?

(1) Suppose you are sitting by a window and you start to feel cold and would like to have the window closed. In what kind of situation would you use the following ways of expressing that wish?

> a) Oh, it's so cold here.
>
> b) Would you mind closing the window?
>
> c) Can you close the window, please?
>
> d) Close the window, will you.
>
> e) I wonder if we could close the window.
>
> f) Oh, the window is still open.
>
> g) I really have to be careful that I will not catch another flu this winter.

(2) List down a few other ways of hinting or saying directly that the window should be closed.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Stage 2: Find out more about being indirect

As you noted in Pre-task, there are thousands of ways of saying something, either directly or indirectly. If you listen to conversations between people carefully enough you will notice how indirect we in fact are. We are only so used to interpreting what others say that we don't notice it.

(1) Read this conversation below. At the first sight it looks bizarre and incomprehensible, but at a closer look you can make out a meaning for it. Explain what it is that is talked about.

> A: I have a fourteen-year-old son.
> B: Well that's all right.
> A: I also have a dog.
> B: Oh, I'm sorry.

From Yule 1996:127

In discussions, there are some rules that we usually follow even though we may not be conscious of them. There are four rules: be informative, tell the truth, be relevant, and don't give too much information. In a discussion we expect our partners to follow these and we try to understand discussions as if these rules were followed. Sometimes, however, we break the rules, or at least so it seems.

Consider for example this:

> *Carol:* *Are you coming to the party tonight?*
>
> *Lara:* *I've got an exam tomorrow.*

Is Lara coming or not? What does the exam have to do with the party? Understanding Lara's reply is possible because Carol expects that Lara is relevant and informative.

(2) Look at the conversations below. They seem to make no sense unless you can fill in all the 'information gaps' in the conversation. Explain the conversation and fill in the information that is not said in the conversation but what is essential to understanding what goes on.

Discussion 1:	**Discussion 2:**
A: The grass needs cutting.	A: Hallo?
B: But it's nearly ten o'clock.	B: Bob?
A: He'll wait.	A: I'm not coming tonight.
B: Like last week and the week before.	B: He's already gone.
A: The Robinsons are coming tomorrow.	A: Already?
B: It's starting to rain anyway.	B: Try Ted's.

From: Bolitho and Tomlinson 1980:62-63

Stage 3: Application

At this stage you are supposed to work in pairs or groups of three.

(1) Take examples of the discussions at Stage 2 and write a dialogue or discussion between two or three persons. The discussion should allow many different interpretations, or in other words, it has to leave a lot for the listeners to interpret. Also make some question on your dialogue that covers such themes that are not directly covered in the discussion but what can be interpreted or guessed from the context.

(2) Show your questions to your audience and perform your dialogue in front of the class.

(3) After this, your audience has to answer your questions about the discussion and what was going on in it. They write their answers on a piece of paper.

(4) When everybody has answered the questions, compare the answers to your questions.

- Are all the answers possible ways of interpreting the discussion?
- Are they all different or very similar to each other?
- What is the reason for the different interpretations?

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write a couple of thoughts in your learner's diary. Write also about your experiences with indirect language and how it may lead to misunderstandings or to a total break in communication.

(2) Discuss with the friends you worked with at the previous stage.

- What would your discussion at Stage 3 sound like if you left nothing for the listeners to interpret? Rewrite a short paragraph in your dialogue without any 'gaps'.
- Why do we use incorrect ways of saying things although they sometimes are vague and difficult to interpret?
- Give examples of situations in which you almost always use indirect ways of saying things instead of being direct.

Introduction
Features of language
Language learning
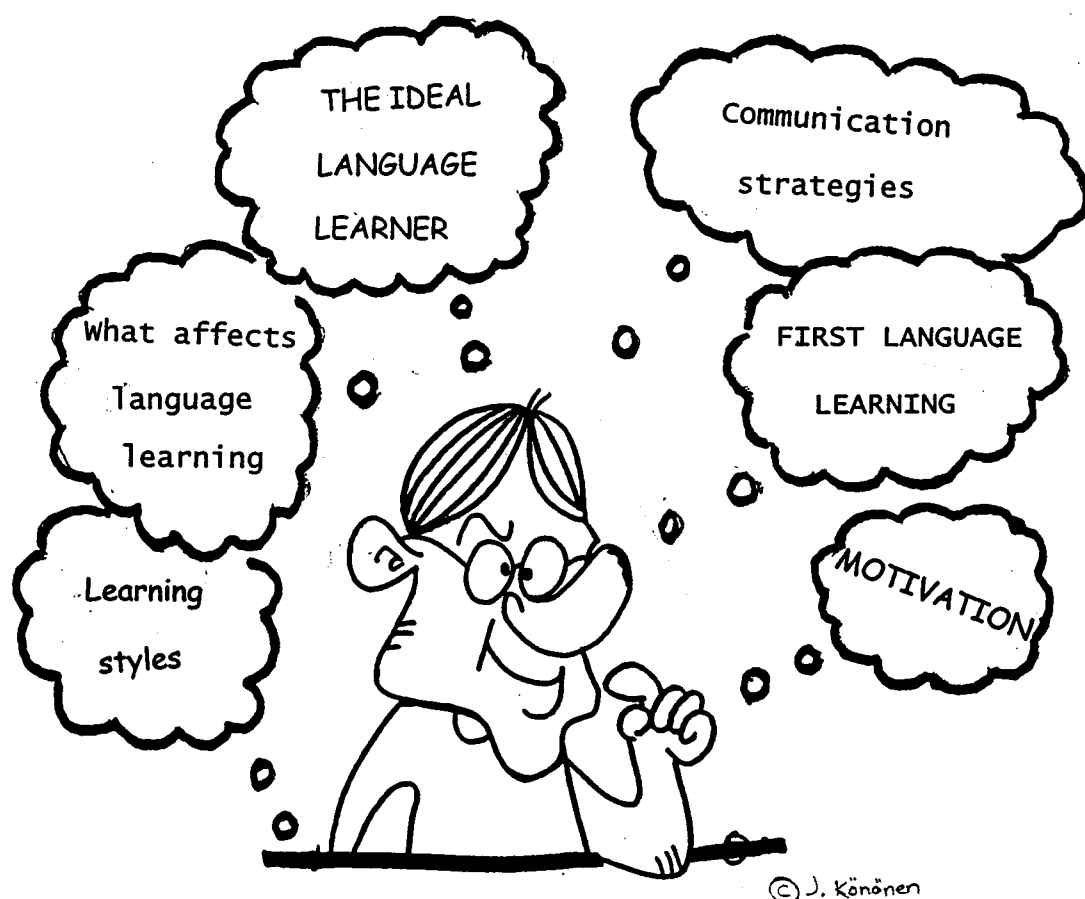
What affects language learning

*I*n this lesson we will peek into to the world of foreign language learning. How come that some people simply seem to learn faster and better than others? It must have something to do with the age of the leaner. Or perhaps with intelligence. Or has it? During this lesson you will consider what factors affect foreign language learning. You will first consider some common beliefs about foreign language learning. Then you will discuss some of the factors that might have an influence on learning foreign languages and finally, you will answer some tricky questions by radio listeners on foreign language learning.

Stage 1: Pre-task

You have surely heard people talking about learning foreign languages. Perhaps you have some ideas about it and how it proceeds. Below are a few common beliefs about foreign language learning. Consider them together with your friend. Whether you agree or disagree with the statements, give reasons for your opinions.
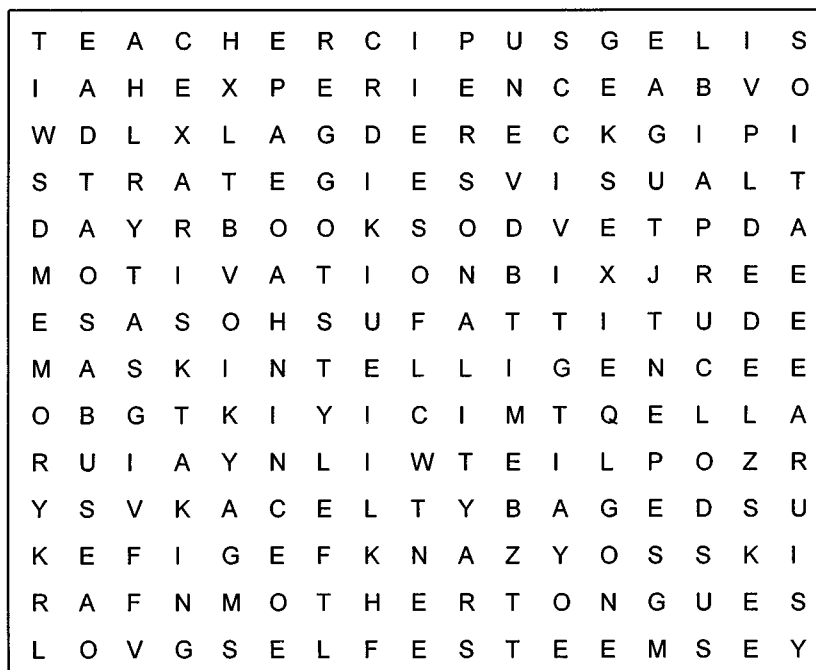
> 1. Only talented students should consider learning foreign languages.
> 2. You can learn a new foreign language in one month.
> 3. It is very difficult for adults to learn a new language.
> 4. Small children can learn any new language without much effort.
> 5. Girls are better than boys in learning foreign languages.
> 6. Intelligence plays an important role in foreign language learning.

Stage 2: Find out more about factors affecting foreign language learning

At the previous stage you discussed whether some statements about foreign language learning are in your opinion true or false. At this stage you will discuss in more detail some of the factors that affect foreign language learning.

(1) In the box below there are fifteen words hidden. All of them are related to foreign language learning. Find them and write them down. Decide whether these factors in your opinion affect foreign language learning.

(2) Discuss in small groups what kind of effect (if any) these factors have on language learning. Remember to give reasons for your decisions and examples to support your views.

(3) Discuss your ideas with the whole class.

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T  E  A  C  H  E  R  C  I  P  U  S  G  E  L  I  S
I  A  H  E  X  P  E  R  I  E  N  C  E  A  B  V  O
W  D  L  X  L  A  G  D  E  R  E  C  K  G  I  P  I
S  T  R  A  T  E  G  I  E  S  V  I  S  U  A  L  T
D  A  Y  R  B  O  O  K  S  O  D  V  E  T  P  D  A
M  O  T  I  V  A  T  I  O  N  B  I  X  J  R  E  E
E  S  A  S  O  H  S  U  F  A  T  T  I  T  U  D  E
M  A  S  K  I  N  T  E  L  L  I  G  E  N  C  E  E
O  B  G  T  K  I  Y  I  C  I  M  T  Q  E  L  L  A
R  U  I  A  Y  N  L  I  W  T  E  I  L  P  O  Z  R
Y  S  V  K  A  C  E  L  T  Y  B  A  G  E  D  S  U
K  E  F  I  G  E  F  K  N  A  Z  Y  O  S  S  K  I
R  A  F  N  M  O  T  H  E  R  T  O  N  G  U  E  S
L  O  V  G  S  E  L  F  E  S  T  E  E  M  S  E  Y
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1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

7. _____

6. _____

7. _____

8. _____

9. _____

10. _____

11. _____

12. _____

13. _____

14. _____

15. _____

🎭 Stage 3: Application

"This is Radio 74! Phone us now and ask our experts about any topic that interests you. We'll get experts here to answer your question. Just phone in now. The number is: 74-74-00-74. Call us now!"

Radio station 74 is now looking for experts on foreign language learning. Your class has been chosen for this demanding task since it has shown tremendous expertise on the topic. The topic of the phone-in programme is foreign language learning and factors affecting it. Many people have already in advance sent questions on the topic and this is the time for a phone-in programme.

Choose five pupils from your class to form the board of experts who answer the phone calls and try to answer as well and as thoroughly as they can. The rest of the class act as callers with tricky questions on what affects foreign language learning. Record your radio programme for later listening. Below are some examples of the roles for the callers. Make up some more of them!

Mrs. Yetta Zimmerman
She is a 78-year-old lady with no previous knowledge of any foreign language apart from her native language, English. As a small child her granny used to speak some Yiddish to her, but she has forgotten it all. Now after her husband died she would like to start learning languages. However, she hesitates a bit due to her fairly high age.

Mr. Frank Hollyfield
He is a middle-aged man who has a very powerful wife, Esmeralda. She has said to him that men cannot learn foreign languages, which Frank can easily believe since his wife is considerably better at speaking, especially when they have a fight. Now Frank's neighbour has invited Frank to a language class. Esmeralda, of course, objects to this, but Frank would for once have the last word and he seeks experts' advice on this matter.

Lady Camilla Weatherby
She is the wife of an earl with lots of money and influence. Some five months ago she got interested in languages and has since then learned six languages. She claims to speak all these languages fluently but her friend, Lady Diana, says she cannot believe that. Lady Camilla is sure of her skills and phones in as self-assured as always.

Will Hammersmith
He is a schoolboy from Leeds. He has to face a difficult problem now concerning his education. They have an option to learn a foreign language and Will is really interested in Latin and Julius Caesar. However, his friends have sometimes called him stupid and he fears that he is not bright enough to learn Latin. In addition, his grades are not too good, either. Would Latin be waste of time for him?

Mrs. Emma Williams
This proud mother just phones in to tell about her wonderful daughter, Yasmin (2½ years). Already before Yasmin was born, Emma used to listen to Spanish language course tapes. After the birth of the baby Emma has played Spanish tapes to her for two hours a day. Now, at the age of two and a half, her daughter can speak Spanish as well as her mother tongue, which is much since according to her mother, Yasmin's mother tongue skills are far beyond the normal skills of a child of this age. At the same time Emma herself has not learnt much of Spanish despite continuous listening of the same tapes. Isn't it just so amazing that children can learn foreign languages so easily!

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Take notes in your diary. Consider especially the factors that you think have the strongest effect on your learning.

(2) Listen to your recorded radio programme. Cast lots on who you give feedback to. Evaluate this person's oral performance making use of the peer evaluation form.

(3) Discuss these questions with your friend.
- Are there any other factors than those mentioned here that could have an effect on foreign language learning? What are these? What kind of effect do they have?
- Are there any people who are not able to learn a foreign language? Why?
- If you fail in a language exam, how do you explain this to yourself? What are the reasons for your failure?

Learning styles

You have certainly noticed that the way you learn best is different from that of your best friend or your sister or brother. This lesson will familiarise you with learning styles. Learning style is the way of learning you tend to use and the use of which leads to the best result. During this lesson you will first fill in a questionnaire on learning styles. Then you will find information on how you tend to learn and how you could improve your learning. Finally, you will make a poster for other language learners so that they can find out their preferred way of learning.

Stage 1: Pre-task

To get a better understanding of yourself as a learner, you need to find out the way you prefer to learn. By doing so, you will be able to develop strategies which will help you to learn. The following test is a short, quick way of assessing your learning style.

Answer each question as honestly as you can. For each statement, choose either *often*, *sometimes* or *seldom* by circulating the suitable option.

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1. I can remember more about a subject with a lecture with information, explanations and discussion.

    often   sometimes   seldom

2. I prefer information to be written on the chalkboard, with the use of visual aids and readings. often   sometimes   seldom

3. I like to write things down or to take notes for visual review.

    often   sometimes   seldom

4. I prefer posters, models, or actual practice and some activities in class.

    often   sometimes   seldom

5. I need explanations for diagrams, graphs, or visual directions.

    often   sometimes   seldom

6. I enjoy working with my hands or making things.

    often   sometimes   seldom

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7. I am skilful with and enjoy developing and making graphs and charts.

        often   sometimes   seldom

8. I can tell if sounds match when they are presented in pairs of sounds.

        often   sometimes   seldom

9. I remember best by writing things down several times.

        often   sometimes   seldom

10. I can understand and follow directions on maps.

        often   sometimes   seldom

11. I do better at academic subjects by listening to lectures and tapes.

        often   sometimes   seldom

12. I play with coins or keys in pockets.

        often   sometimes   seldom

13. I learn spelling better by repeating the words out loud than by writing the word on paper.   often   sometimes   seldom

14. I can better understand news by reading about them in the paper than by listening to the radio.

        often   sometimes   seldom

15. I chew gum, smoke, or snack while studying.

        often   sometimes   seldom

16. In my opinion, the best way to remember is to picture something in your head.

        often   sometimes   seldom

17. I learn spelling by "finger spelling" words.

        often   sometimes   seldom

18. I would rather listen to a good lecture or speech than read about the same material in a textbook.

        often   sometimes   seldom

19. I am good at working and solving jigsaw puzzles and mazes.

        often   sometimes   seldom

20. I hold objects in hands during a learning period.

        often   sometimes   seldom

21. I prefer listening to the news on the radio rather than reading about it in the newspaper.

        often   sometimes   seldom

22. I obtain information on an interesting subject by reading relevant materials.

        often   sometimes   seldom

23. I feel very comfortable touching others, hugging, handshaking, etc.

        often   sometimes   seldom

24. I follow oral directions better than written ones.

        often   sometimes   seldom

After you have filled in the questionnaire compare your results with your friend. In which respects do you differ from each other? In which respects are you similar?

Stage 2: Find out more about learning styles

Now you can score your answers and find out what type of learner you are.

Scoring directions:

Score your points based on the scoring table. You get 5 points for each *often*, 3 for *sometimes* and 1 point for *seldom*. Write down your points in the table next to the corresponding question number. Then add up your points in each column to get the final score for each learning style.

Often   = 5 points

Sometimes = 3 points

Seldom = 1 point

Scoring table:

Visual learner		**Auditory learner**		**Tactile learner**	
Question number	Points	Question number	Points	Question number	Points
2		1		4	
3		5		6	
7		8		9	
10		11		12	
14		13		15	
16		18		17	
19		21		20	
22		24		23	
Total points		Total points		Total points	

Your highest score is your preferred learning style. For example, if your scores are 15, 32 and 25 for visual, auditory and tactile learning respectively, you are a visual learner. However, you also have features of tactile learners. If your scores are similar that means that you learn in many different ways.

Visual learner. If you are a Visual Learner, then by all means be sure that you look at all study materials because you learn from seeing words. You remember and understand information and instructions if you read them. Use charts, maps, filmstrips, notes and flashcards. Practice visualising or picturing words/concepts in your head. Write down everything so that you can review it quick and often.

Auditory learner. If you are an Auditory Learner, you may wish to use tapes because you learn from hearing words spoken. You understand oral explanations better by reading aloud or moving your lips as you read. Tape lectures to help you fill in the gaps in your notes. But do listen and take notes, and review your notes often. Sit in the lecture hall or classroom where you can hear well. After you have read something, summarise it and practice it aloud.

Tactile learner. If you are a Tactile Learner, write words down as you are saying them because you learn best when you have the opportunity to do 'hands-on' experiences with materials. Facts that must be learned should be written several times. Keep scratch paper always with you for this purpose. Taking and keeping lecture notes is very important. Make study sheets. Working on experiments, handling and building models, touching and working with materials provide you with the most successful learning situation.

Discuss with your friend.

- What might be the reason if you cannot identify a single learning strategy for yourself?
- What are the pros and cons of this?

Stage 3: Application

Prepare posters on learning styles in small groups. Each group chooses one learning style. In your poster, give tips on how your schoolmates could learn more efficiently.

(1) Create a small-scale inventory on the learning style your poster is about or describe the characteristics of the learning style in other ways so that your readers can identify their preferred learning style.

(2) Give tips on how this type of learners could improve their learning. Hang your posters on the walls in the language classroom.

Example:

Are you a visual learner? TEST NOW!

Tick, if you agree with the statements!

> I learn a word better, if I see it written.
> I don't mind learning on my own.
> I understand better what I should do if I see it on paper.

If you ticked all three statements, you are a visual learner.

Here are some tips on how you could improve your learning:

1) Take notes!

2) Draw and make tables on the material you should learn!

3) Form an image of what you should learn!

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Take notes in your learner's diary. Write about yourself as a learner and the strategies you use to learn a foreign language.

(2) Discuss in a small group.

- What kind of learner are you?
- What is, in your opinion, the best way to learn for you?
- Would you like to alter your learning style? In what way and why?

Motivation

This lesson is about motivation. You surely know what it means when someone is highly motivated to do something. On the other hand, a lack of motivation is often used as an excuse for not doing something or doing it poorly. First you will consider and list down your reasons to study English and compare your motivation in other subjects you study at present. Then you will test your motivation and learn more about types of motivation. Finally, you will conduct a survey among your schoolmates to find out what kind of motivation they have to study English.

Stage 1: Pre-task

Think about your motivation to study English. Do you study it because you have to or because you are interested in languages in general?

(1) List down the top five reasons why you study English. Be honest, even though you would think it is not appropriate to think the way you do.

(2) For comparison, list down also the top four reasons you study e.g. Swedish, maths or history. If there are differences in your motivation, can you explain why they exist? Discuss with your friend.

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*I study **English** because...*

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

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*I study **Swedish / maths / history** because...*

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Stage 2: Find out more about motivation

Above you listed down some reasons for studying English. At this stage you can test yourself more thoroughly and see what type of motivation you have.

(1) Fill in the questionnaire on motivation, honestly and carefully.

(2) After filling in, identify your prevailing motivation type. If you have many reasons for studying, you may get points in all of the motivation types.

(3) When you get your result (the motivation type in which you have most points) write down your result on a piece of paper (anonymously).

(4) Collect all the papers in the class and make a summary of the motivations that prevail in your English class.

Why are you studying English?

Using the table below, check your responses to find out how you are motivated. Answering is simple: if you agree with the statement, tick it. If you do not agree, leave it blank.

I study English ...

1. to get qualifications for my future job or career

2. to get more pay

3. to feel more self-confident

4. to contribute more to society

5. because I enjoy learning

6. because it is something I have always wanted to do

7. to go on to further study

8. to please my family

9. to impress my teachers

10. to prove I can do it

11. to fill in time until I do something else

12. to challenge my thinking

13. to develop my intelligence

14. to make better use of my time.

Scoring:

The questionnaire deals with four types of motivation:

1) **Vocational** - you want to gain qualifications to improve your employment prospects.

2) **Academic** - you want to increase your knowledge and skills, perhaps to prepare for further study.

3) **Intrinsic or self-motivation** - you have your own personal reasons for wanting to succeed.

4) **Extrinsic or outside influences** - you are being driven by other people - your parents and family perhaps, or your employer.

You get your score by comparing your answers with this table. For example, if you agreed with question number two, circle the two crosses in this table. Question two represents both vocational and extrinsic motivation, so you get one point for both of them. When you have gone through all your answers, add up the number of circulated crosses in each column to get the total point for each motivation type.

Question	Vocational	Academic	Intrinsic	Extrinsic
1	x			
2	x			x
3			x	
4	x		x	x
5		x	x	
6			x	
7		x		
8				x
9				x
10			x	
11				x
12		x	x	
13		x		
14			x	
Your scores	___ out of 3	___ out of 4	___ out of 7	___ out of 5

Interpreting Your Results:

Vocational motivation. Studying to improve your job prospects can be positive. If you yourself have undertaken to study for vocational reasons, you probably have clear goals for your future, are ambitious and highly motivated, and probably well organised. If, however, you are studying to get higher qualifications in response to pressure from your parents or teachers, or in an attempt to hold on to a studying place; if your heart is not in it and that you are struggling with the work, that can be very difficult.

Academic motivation. Lucky you! You probably love writing essays, look forward to exams, and do your own follow-up reading, just for fun. You probably want to spend the rest of your life studying or teaching - or both. Well, great! It is unlikely you will make huge amounts of money - you probably do not care about that - but the rest of the world needs you.

Intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic or self-motivation is the strongest form of motivation. You have your own reasons for doing things and so you have a very good chance of succeeding, particularly if you are well organised.

Extrinsic motivation. If you had a high score in the extrinsic motivation questions and a low score in the intrinsic motivation questions, this could mean that you are having problems. Maybe you are being pressured into doing a course you are not interested in or for which you have little aptitude. Maybe the subject is a requirement and your real interest is in other subjects. Or maybe it is not a good time for you to be studying right now.

Remember, however, that your motivation can change. You can change your attitude and make things more motivating for you. If you feel that you are not motivated enough, consider what you could do about it!

Adapted from 24.6. 1999 in: http://webnz.com/webnz/checkers/question2.html

Stage 3: Application

Return now to Stage 1 and the list of reasons for studying English.
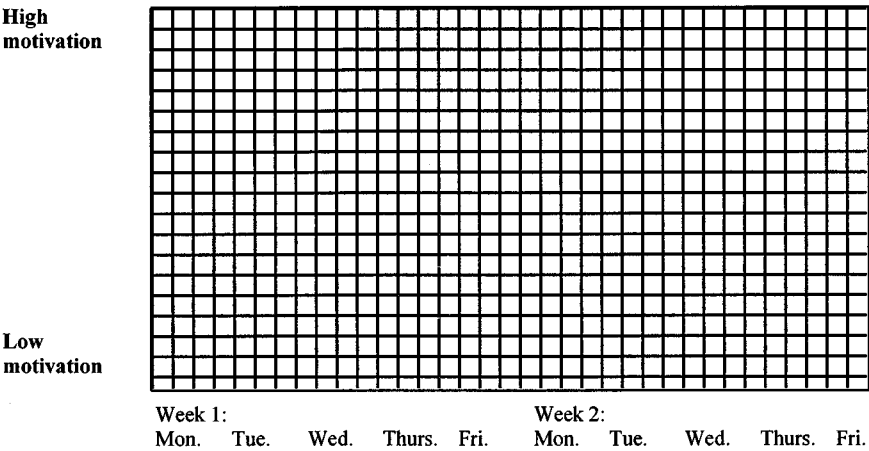
(1) Collect all the reasons given in your class for the study of English.

(2) Widen your knowledge by interviewing other pupils at your school on the same theme: why study English.

(3) Then analyse the results and indicate the ten most common reasons for studying English.

(4) Make a poster on the most common reasons to study English. As the editors, choose your favourite five ones and hang the finished poster on the wall of your classroom.

Stage 4: Reflection

For a period of two weeks, consider your motivation to study English. After each English lesson, write a few words about how it feels to study English at that moment. In addition, present the changes in your motivation with the chart in which you draw the line to the appropriate height you think best describes the highs and lows in your motivation. Add this page to your learner's diary.

Day	Comments

High motivation

Low motivation

Week 1:
Mon.   Tue.   Wed.   Thurs.   Fri.

Week 2:
Mon.   Tue.   Wed.   Thurs.   Fri.

From: Ellis and Sinclair 1989:19

Communication strategies

*W*hen *you have to communicate in a foreign language, you will certainly face situations in which words that you know simply are not enough. Yet, you have to get your ideas across to your partner. Communication strategies are the various strategies you can use to get yourself out of these problem situations. At first you will realise that even though you don't know a language at all you can still make out something of a text. Then you will learn to recognise communication strategies in a discussion. Finally, you will learn what kind of strategies your friends use when they are in short of the right word.*

Stage 1: Pre-task

Understanding a foreign language is often difficult. However, even though you do not even know the language you may be able to get the main idea. The situation is even better if you are familiar with the language and there are only some words you do not understand.

The dialogues below are in Slovak.

(1) Read them in pairs and try to figure out what is going on. Use all strategies you can think of to make sense of the texts.

(2) Put together all the information from all groups in the class.
- How much of the text do you understand?
- What strategies did you use to get the meaning of the texts?

Ako sa máte?

Jozef: Dobrý deň. Vy ste Viera Ondurošová?

Viera: Áno. To som ja.

Jozef: Teší ma. Ja som Jozef Novák.

Viera: Ste Američan?

Jozef: Nie! Ja som Angličan. Vy ste Slovenka?

Viera: Áno! Samozrejme! Ja som Slovenka. Máte kufor?

Jozef: Àno! Mám. Tu je.

Viera: Tak dobre. Poď'me. Auto čaká vonku.

Chcem ísť do kina

Janko: Ahoj, Viera, ako sa máš?

Viera: Dobre, Janko. Kam ideš?

Janko: Idem do mesta k bratovi. Varí obed. Nechceš ísť so mnou? Práve čakám na autobus. Poobede ideme do parku. Potom chceme ísť' plávat'.

Viera: Ale ja chcem ísť' do kina. Dávajú nový americký film, ktorý chcem vidiet'. Je vraj skvelý a veľmi napínavý.

Jenko: O čom je ten film?

Viera: O politike a o prezidentovi. Vystupuje tam môj obľúbený herec a tiež jedna veľmi krásna herečka.

Janko: Ktorá?

Viera: Nepamätám si jej meno. Večer idem na koncert. Hrá Slovenská filharmónia. Hráju Beethovena a Schuberta.

Stage 2: Find out more about communication strategies

Below is a classification of communication strategies. Study it and make sure you understand all the strategies.

A. Reduction strategies are attempts to do away with a problem. They involve the learner giving up part of his original communicative goal.

1. Avoiding the structure the learner does not know or is not certain of.	He made him to go ... → He asked him to go...
2. Avoiding a topic or a speech situation because the learner does not know suitable words.	He plays ... → He does sport

B. Achievement strategies are activated when the learner decides to keep to the original goal but compensates for insufficient means or makes the effort to retrieve the required item.

1. The learner does not ask for help.

a) The learner makes use of a language other than the language of the discussion.

- The learner uses other language than the language of the discussion.	I don't have any *Geschwister*.
- The learner translates a word literary.	Danish 'grøntsaker' (=vegetables) → 'green things'

b) The learner makes use of alternative foreign language forms.

- The learner replaces one word with another word.	'rabbit' → 'animal'
- The learner replaces one word by describing it.	He cleaned the house with a ... → it sucks in air
- The learner replaces one word by making up another word.	'gallery' → 'picture place'
- The learner develops an alternative plan.	'I have two ...' → I have a brother and a sister'

2. The learner asks the partner for help.

a) The learner asks for help.	'What is this?'
b) The learner does not ask for help but indicates the need in other ways, e.g. by pausing.	

Adapted from Ellis 1985:184-185

After you have studied the communication strategies mentioned in the table it is time for a little game in pairs.

You certainly remember the game Memory from your childhood. We will now return to that time in the dusk of history. However, this game is not quite the same. The difficulty is that the cards you have to find and match are not similar. You have to establish the right link between the two cards. In one set of cards there are simple words, such as *library*. In the other set of cards there are examples of sentences in which a communication strategy is used instead of the right word. For example, the right pair for *library* is "*Why don't you go to the book place?*" When you have found the right pairs you also have to name the strategy used to convince your partner that your two cards belong together.
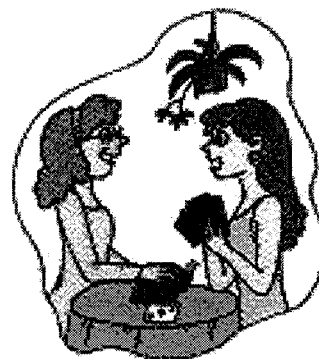
Despite of this minor difference to the traditional game the rules are the same as in Memory. You can reveal two cards at a time, and if they match, you can have them. If this happens you get extra turns as long as you are able to match the two cards you reveal. If your try is not successful the turn goes to your partner. Continue the game as long all the pairs have been found. The one with more cards is the winner.

To start the game cut the two sets of cards out of paper, mix them since on the paper they are in the right order and turn them the blank side up on a table.

Stage 3: Application

Alias is a game you are certainly familiar with. In fact, its main idea is using communication strategies when you try to explain a word to your partner without mentioning the word in question. Notice that the players are not allowed to use gestures. The better and quicker you are in explaining the words, the more successful you will be.

(1) Let your friends from another class play *Alias* in English. You may want to give them a bit easier words than in the Finnish version because the play will be in a foreign language. Record their play.

(2) Afterwards, try to identify the strategies they used in explaining the words.

(3) For comparison, you can record a normal Finnish language game, too, and identify the strategies.

- Are there any differences in the strategies used?
- If there are, can you explain why?
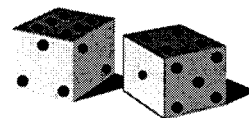
Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write a few lines in your learner's diary. Add some thoughts on how communication strategies might be useful for you.

(2) Discuss communication strategies in a small group.

- In what kind of situations is the use of communication strategies acceptable and good? Are there any situations in which you should not use communication strategies?

- Give examples of situations in which you have used communications strategies efficiently in a foreign language.

- Do you use communication strategies efficiently when you come across with a communication problem?

- Are communication strategies used only in foreign languages?

BALL POINT PEN	→ I'm looking for my *pen*.
BALLOON	→ Look, an *air ball*!
DIARY	→ Have you taken my *day book*?
DRUG STORE	→ I need aspirin from the *medicine shop*.
FRIDGE	→ Put the coke in the *ice cupboard*, please.
GLASSES	→ Have you seen my *glasögon*?
GUINEA-PIG	→ I have a *small pet*.
LIBRARY	→ Why don't you go to the *book place*?

MOBILE PHONE	→ My sister bought a new *telephone*.
MOTORWAY	→ Let's drive through the *Autobahn*.
NEWSPAPER	→ Have you read today's *tidning*.
ONE-FAMILY HOUSE	→ The park is next to a *building*.
PARROT	→ My uncle brought *a bird* from South America.
PENGUIN	→ There we saw ... *they're black and white*.
POOR	→ He is ... *doesn't have money*.
RAILWAY STATION	→ I went to...*where the trains are*.
VACUUM CLEANER	→ Clean your room with the *dust sucker*.

The ideal language learner

W*e all would like to be perfect learners who learn easily and quickly, whatever we decide to take up. During this lesson you will first consider what is characteristic of the ideal foreign language learners and (if they exist) what kind of persons they are. Then you can test whether you would be one of these much-envied people. Furthermore, you will consider the characteristics researchers have claimed to be typical of good language learners and form your own opinion of these. Finally you will stretch your helping hand to a friend in need and offer your advice on how to learn a foreign language (almost) effortlessly.*

Stage 1: Pre-task

What are perfect language learners made of? What kind of person is an ideal language learner?

(1) Draw Laura / Larry the Language Learner.

- Is s/he a girl or a boy?
- What does s/he look like?
- How old is s/he?
- What kind of personality does s/he have?
- What is it that makes him/her so perfect in learning languages?

Try to cover as many aspects in your drawing as you can.

(2) When you are ready, tell about Laura / Larry to your friend and compare your ideal language learners? Do they have anything in common? What is different?

Stage 2: Find out more about ideal language learners

Fill in the questionnaire below to find out whether you are an ideal language learner. Answer honestly to get a realistic picture of yourself.

Are you an ideal language learner?

Circle the answer that describes how you approach language learning.

A: always   O: often   S: sometimes   R: rarely   N: never

1.	I try to get something out of every learning situation even if I do not like it.	A	O	S	R	N
2.	I am like a detective, I look for clues that will help me understand how language works.	A	O	S	R	N
3.	I choose learning situations that are suited to my way of learning.	A	O	S	R	N
4.	I think about what I have learned.	A	O	S	R	N
5.	I try to think in English.	A	O	S	R	N
6.	I try to develop good techniques to practise listening, speaking, reading and writing.	A	O	S	R	N
7.	I try to do something bout my special problems.	A	O	S	R	N
8.	I pay attention to pronunciation.					
9.	I compare what I say with what others say to see if I am using correct English.	A	O	S	R	N
10.	I try to develop good techniques to improve my pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.	A	O	S	R	N
11.	I overcome my feelings of frustration and lack of confidence.	A	O	S	R	N
12.	I ask people to correct me if I make a mistake.	A	O	S	R	N
13.	I can laugh at my mistakes.	A	O	S	R	N
14.	When I do not know I guess.	A	O	S	R	N
15.	I pay special attention to grammar.	A	O	S	R	N
16.	I do things I do not usually do to gain more information about English.	A	O	S	R	N
17.	I choose activities because I am already familiar with the ideas.	A	O	S	R	N

18. Besides English class, I plan activities that give me a chance to use and learn the language.	*A*	*O*	*S*	*R*	*N*
19. I can figure out my special problems.	*A*	*O*	*S*	*R*	*N*
20. I pay special attention to vocabulary.	*A*	*O*	*S*	*R*	*N*

Scoring:

A: always	= 5 points	R: rarely	= 2 points
O: often	= 4 points	N: never	= 1 point
S: sometimes	= 3 points		

These statements come from foreign language researchers. Write down your scores in each of them.

1. The good language learner finds a style that suits him/her.

    Questions number 1 and 3. Your points _____ / 10.

2. The good language learner is actively involved in the language learning process.

    Questions number 7, 16, 17, 18 and 19. Your points _____ / 25.

3. The good language learner tries to figure out how the language works.

    Questions number 8, 15 and 20. Your points _____ / 15.

4. The good language learner knows that language is used to communicate.

    Questions number 6 and 10. Your points _____ / 10.

5. The good language learner is like a good detective.

    Questions number 2, 4, 9, 12 and 14. Your points _____ / 25.

6. The good language learner learns to think in the language.

    Question number 5. Your points _____ / 5.

7. The good language learner tries to overcome his/her feelings of frustration and lack of confidence.

    Questions number 11 and 13. Your points _____ / 10.

Your total score _____ / 100.

Which of these characteristics or typical ways of handling a situation mentioned above you find most important?

(1) Make a list for yourself of the top five characteristics ideal language learners in your opinion have. You can also include other important characteristics than those mentioned in the questionnaire.

(2) Compare your list with that of your friend. Together make a new list of five characteristics of the ideal language learner.

(3) Do the same in a bigger group, for example with four people and try to reach a compromise on which the most important characteristics are.

(4) Finally, the whole class votes for the top five characteristics of an ideal language learner.

My top five characteristics of ideal language learners:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

My class's top five characteristics of ideal language learners:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

Stage 3: Application

You have a foreign friend, Michael, who has gone to Venezuela as an exchange student. This friend of yours cannot speak a word of the local language. You receive desperate e-mail from him in which he asks for your advice on how to learn the language more easily and quickly. What advice can you give him? Is there anything to be done? Reply to him and try to comfort him with some good advice.

Date: Wed, 8 Sept 1999 16:17:51 – 0700 PDT

From: Michel Semmler <michael.semmler@yahoo.com>

To: Maija Laakso <maija.laakso@lukio.fi>

Subject: Desperate calling

Hi there!

I managed to get here OK and my host family is OK too. I only have one problem. How on earth am I supposed to learn this damned language? So far, after four weeks of stay in here, I can only say hello and thanks. Understanding what people say is even more difficult. I can't make out a word of what people say. It's all Hebrew to me. I'll starve to death because I can't say that I'm hungry. Miming just isn't enough in some cases. I'm becoming desperate. Be a friend in need and give me some advice. You surely know something about foreign language learning because you study them so much at school.

- Mike

Do you Yahoo!?

Get your free @yahoo.com address at http://mail.yahoo.com!

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Consider yourself as a learner and write a short description of you as a learner in your diary. To what extent are you 'a perfect language learner'? How could you develop into a better one?

(2) Show your response to the desperate Michael to your friend and let him or her evaluate it with the help of the peer evaluation form.

(3) Make an action plan for yourself in which you set a scheme for yourself on how to gain at least some of the characteristics typical of ideal language learners. Do not try to achieve everything at the same time, but make a long-run plan and proceed slowly.

First language learning

Have you ever envied babies and small children who seem to acquire their mother tongue so effortlessly and quickly while you sit in the classroom learning English or other foreign languages for years and still cannot always understand what people say to you in the post office abroad? In this lesson we will discuss first language acquisition, in other words how babies learn their mother tongue. First, you will think about the differences between first (mother tongue) and foreign language learning. Then you will get to know what seem to be the prerequisites of learning the mother tongue. Finally, you will get familiar with what is called baby talk and analyse it.

Stage 1: Pre-task

If you have younger sisters or brothers or other small children who have recently learned to talk, you have good experience of how children learn their mother tongue. Discuss with your friend.

- What is small children's speech like?
- What do they learn first?
- Give examples of the language children use. What are the first words they use? What kind of sentences do they produce?
- If you can remember one, tell an anecdote from your childhood and your mother tongue learning. Did you say something funny that made adults laugh?

Stage 2: Find out more about first language learning

There have been some unfortunate children who have lived in such circumstances that they have not been able to learn their first language normally. Read the descriptions of these children and their situations and discuss in small groups.

- Why do you think Isabelle and Genie were not able to learn the mother tongue normally?

- What do we need to learn a language normally as children?

Isabelle

Isabelle was the illegitimate child of a deaf-mute. She was discovered in the 1930s in Ohio, when she was six-and-a-half. She had no speech and made only a croaking sound. She had spent most of her time with her mother in a darkened room, but once she was brought out into contact with users of language, she rapidly learned to talk and by eight-and-a-half had caught up with children of her own age.

Genie

Genie was isolated from human language while she was growing up. Her father kept her confined and without language contact, so that when she was discovered - after the onset of adolescence - she was unable to speak. Genie had great difficulty in learning to speak after she came into contact with language.

From: Tinkel 1991:29

There is still some dispute among researchers what exactly is the way how children learn their first language. There are those who think that children merely imitate what they hear. Imitation is involved to some extent, of course, but the sentences produced by children show that children do not just imitate adult speech. From whom would children hear *Cat stand up table* or any of the sentences like these they produce? Consider also these examples:

A my pencil.   *Mommy get in my ladder.*   *Cowboy did fighting me.*

Adult: *He's going out.*
Child: *He go out.*

Another theory suggests that children learn to produce "correct" sentences because they are positively rewarded when they say something right and negatively rewarded when they say something wrong. This view assumes that children are being constantly corrected for using "bad grammar" and patted on the head when they use "good grammar". Even if this happens (it seldom does), how do children learn from such responses what it is that they are doing right or wrong? Besides, all the attempts to "correct" a child's language are doomed to failure. Children do not know what they are doing wrong and are even unable to make the corrections when they are pointed out to them.

Consider example 2:

Child: Want other one spoon, Daddy.
Father: You mean, you want *"the other spoon."*
Child: Yes, I want other one spoon, please, Daddy.
Father: Can you say: "the other spoon"?

Child: Other ... one ... spoon.
Father: Say ... "other."
Child: Other
Father: Spoon.
Child: Spoon.
Father: Other ... spoon.
Child: Other ... spoon. Now give me other one spoon?

It seems that both of these two theories fail in explaining how children learn their first language. Neither of these views takes into account the fact that children are constructing their own rules. Different rules govern the construction of sentences as the grammar is learned. Consider, for example, the increasing complexity of one child's negative sentences.

The examples have been recorded from a child learning English. What do you think the 'grammar rules' are that this child is applying to negative sentences?

- The first stage:

  No heavy

  No want stand head

  No the sun shining

- The second stage:

  He no bite you.

  I no taste them.

  I can't catch you.

  I don't /no want some food.

- The third stage:

  I don't want no milk.

  I don't see no cat.

- The fourth stage:

  I don't want any food.

Adopted from Fromkin 1983:332-334

Stage 3: Application

"Baby talk" is a term used to label the word forms that many adults use when speaking to children. Examples in English are *choo-choo* for 'train' and *bow-wow* for 'dog'. Baby talk seems to exist in every language and culture. At least two things seem to be universal about baby talk: the words refer to certain kinds of things (e.g. food and animals) and the words have simpler sounds than the adult forms (for example, *tummy* for *stomach*).

(1) List all the baby talk words you can think of in Finnish.

(2) Compare your words with your friend's suggestions.

(3) Then classify your words according to what they refer to.

From Fromkin and Rodman 1988:358

Stage 4: Reflection

(1) Write a few lines in your learner's diary. Consider the question what makes first and foreign language learning different.

(2) First and foreign language learning are different, at least the results are often different. It is difficult to learn a foreign language as well as one's first language, the mother tongue. Consider the following questions in a small group.

- How can parents help their children in learning the first language?

- List down some of the differences and similarities between first and foreign language learning.

- Can you learn a foreign language as well as your first language? In what kind of circumstances?

A learner's diary

- Some helpful advice on what to write about

You should have a separate notebook for your diary. If you have never kept a diary and you are not used to it, taking notes there should not become a burden to you. You should, however, write something after every lesson to prevent you from becoming rusty. A few lines after each lesson is enough, but feel free to write as much as you like. It would be good if you could write in English. Write freely what comes to your mind and do not worry about the right grammar. Even your teacher will not be correcting your mistakes. The main thing is that you have something to say.

Sometimes you will be given some time to discuss the points you have written down with your friend. Your teacher may read and comment on your diary a few times during the course. Therefore, you can ask questions if you are afraid of asking them publicly. Make your diary look like you, add pictures, poems, comic strips or anything you think might make it feel more like yours.

The questions below are meant to help you to get started, but if you have any other comments or observations on the topic do not hesitate to write about them, too.

- How did I feel during the lesson?
- What was the most important or interesting point to me during the lesson?
- Were there any questions or comments that came to my mind during the lesson?
- What did I think about this theme before this lesson and what do I think about it now?

Self / peer evaluation forms

Written tasks

- What are you especially satisfied with in your text? Why? _____

  _____

- What did not succeed so well? Why? _____

  _____

- Is the grammar OK? What could be improved? _____

  _____

- Is the vocabulary appropriate? _____

- Is the text understandable and easy to read? _____

  _____

- Are the ideas and opinions explained clearly? _____

- Is the structure of the text clear? _____

- How could you improve your text? _____

  _____

Oral tasks

- Overall impression: _____

- Manner of presentation:

  - eye contact to the listeners _____

  - liveliness of the presentation _____

  - speaker's voice: audible and clear _____

  - language easy to understand _____

  - pronunciation easy to understand _____

  - fluency of the speaker _____

- Contents of the presentation:

  - arguments and ideas clearly grounded _____

  - argumentation and ideas easy to follow _____

An answer key and notes to the teacher

Prototypes

In the Pre-task for the association game the teacher reads the following words aloud for the whole class with some 15 seconds pause between the words:

1) a vehicle
2) a fruit
3) a piece of furniture
4) a pet
5) a plant

6) a flower
7) a toy
8) a building
9) a vegetable
10) a drink

Euphemisms

The right answers for the euphemisms quiz at stage 1 are:
1 a, 2 e; 3 a; 4 d; 5 e; 6 b; 7a; 8 f; 9 b; 10 b; 11 a; 12 b; 13 c

Idioms and metaphors

The right answers for the idiom quiz at stage 2 are:1c; 2a; 3c; 4a; 5b; 6c, 7c

Jargon and slang

The right answers for the Winespeak matching exercise are:
1. i, 2. a, 3. c, 4. j, 5. e, 6. b, 7. h, 8. g, 9. k, 10. f, 11. l

Change of language over time

The Modern English translation for the Middle English text at stage 2 is:

My dear husband, I commend myself to you, and want you to know that, last Friday before noon, the parson of Oxnead was saying Mass in our parish church, and at the very moment of elevating the host, James Gloys, who had been in town, was coming home past Wyndham's gate. And Wyndham was standing in his gateway with this man John Norwood by his side, and his other man, Thomas Hawes, was standing in the street by the gutter. And James Gloys came with his hat on his head between both his men, as he usually did. And when Gloys was opposite Wyndham, Wyndham said 'Cover your head!' And Gloys retorted, 'So I shall for you!' And when Gloysl had gone on three or four strides, Wyndham drew out his dagger and said, 'Will you, indeed, knave?' And with that Gloys turned on his, and drew out his dagger and defended himself, fleeing into my mother's place; and Wyndham and his man Hawes threw stones and drove Gloys into my mother's house, and Hawes followed into my mother's and threw a stone as big as farthing-loaf into the hall at Gloys, and then ran out of the place again. [...]

Dialects

Suitable material for the Pre-task comes from the book *English accents and dialects: an introduction to social and regional varieties of British English* by Arthur Hughes and Peter Trudgill (1979). London: Edward Arnold. Also some English textbooks may have some tapes in various dialects. Furthermore, matriculation exam listening comprehension tapes are sometimes recorded in other than British or American English. The London dialect is excellently introduced in G. B. Shaw's play *Pygmalion* or it's film version *My Fair Lady* (1964, director G. Cukor), which might be used as materials for this exercise.

World English

Suitable listening material for the Pre-task is for example the book *International English: a guide to varieties of standard English* by Peter Trudgill and Jean Hannah (1984). London: Edward Arnold, which is accompanied by a tape with examples of dialects. Because the task is rather difficult in itself it might be made easier for learners by choosing varieties that differ a lot from each other. Such varieties on this tape might be for example R.P., Australian English, US English, West African English and Indian English.

The right answers to the Australian slang quiz at stage 2 are:

1. Toilet 2. Friend 3. Woman 4. Outback 5. G'day 6. Telling the truth
7. Chicken 8. Money

Registers

The right answers to the text extracts at stage 2 are:
1) prayer; 2) life insurance proposal; 3) chemistry textbook; 4) radio sports commentary; 5) formal speech, opening of Parliament; 6) TV advertisement

Factors affecting language learning

The words that appear in the word box at stage 2 are:

Age	Experience	Mother tongue	Risk-taking	Strategies
Attitude	Intelligence	Motivation	Self-esteem	Style
Book	Memory	Personality	Sex	Teacher

Communication strategies

The English translations for the Slovak texts at stage 1 are:

Text 1:
Jozef: Hello. Are you Viera Ondurusová?
Viera: Yes. That's me.
Jozef: Pleased to meet you. I'm Jozef Novák.
Viera: Are you (an) American?
Jozef: No. I am English. Are you Slovak?
Viera: Yes! Of course! I'm Slovak. Do you have a case?
Jozef: Yes. I have. Here it is.
Viera: Right, then (so, good). Let's go. The car's waiting outside.

Text 2:
Janko: Hello, Viera, how are you?
Viera: Fine, Janko. Where are you going?
Janko: I'm going to town to my brother's. He's cooking lunch. Don't you want to come with me? I'm just waiting for the bus. In the afternoon we're going to the park. Then we're going to the park. Then we want to go swimming.
Viera: But I want to go to the cinema. They are showing a new American film, which I want to see. It is apparently excellent and very exciting.
Janko: What is this film about?
Viera: About politics and also about the president. My favourite actor is performing there and also a very beautiful actress.
Janko: Which (one)?
Viera: I don't remember her name. In the evening we're going to a concert. The Slovak Philharmonic is playing. They are playing Beethoven and Schubert.

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8 CONCLUSION

A major aim of this study was to argue for explicit teaching in foreign language learning and LA. At the same time, the shortcomings of the communicative approach became clear: this approach to foreign language learning has neglected the need for explicit linguistic knowledge. The LA movement originated from this situation with a particular emphasis on reflection on language. The background of LA movement was outlined from the historical point of view and the factors that contributed to its spreading were presented. The following section defined LA. The scope of LA was described with the help of the five domains of LA. The objectives and effects of LA work were presented with the help of these domains.

After that, the study focused on the practical side of LA work. First, LA was placed in the curriculum to bridge foreign and mother tongue teaching. LA methodology and elements of good LA activities were then described. The previous suggestions for LA course contents were then outlined. Of these suggestions, the proposal by Mittins (1991) featuring characteristics of language forms the basis for the first part of this material package. The major aim of this part is to draw learners' attention to language and its characteristics and point out the common core of both mother tongue and foreign language teaching. The second part of the material package focuses on language learning, another major theme in previous LA courses abroad. This theme should support foreign language teaching and provide learners with new strategies and tools for learning languages. Furthermore, learners are encouraged to discuss their previous foreign language learning experiences.

Finally, the use of a learning cycle in LA work was suggested. The model used in this material package consists of four stages which each has separate goals. The first stage introduces the theme of the lesson and makes it possible for the learners to share their attitudes and previous knowledge about the topic with each other. The second stage provides learners with more information of the topic with an opportunity to explore and make their own observations on

language. Application at the third stage requires putting the knowledge into practice in various creative or writing tasks. The final stage concentrates on reflection on what was learned. This includes both self and peer evaluation when appropriate. Moreover, this stage raises further questions on the topic to be discussed.

A limitation of this material package is that it is only of an introductory nature. The topics in the material package are rather examples of the themes that could be covered in LA work than a comprehensive list covering the whole scope. It is therefore left to the teacher to complement and adopt the materials to suit the needs of the learners. A further restriction is that this material package has only been able to provide LA materials for one secondary school course. Ideally, LA should be part of every language course from primary school onwards. Therefore it is clear that one course alone cannot meet the requirements of making learners aware of language. It is hoped that despite the limited scope of this material package it will give foreign and Finnish language teachers alike new ideas on language teaching.

Since this material package does not cover one of the three major content areas of LA, language use or more traditionally, grammar, a future task would be designing LA teaching materials to fill in that gap. LA oriented grammar teaching could offer fresh perspectives on learning and teaching of grammar, especially at the advanced level, where learners are able to analyse language use and compare different data sources. Another certainly useful future task in the area of LA would be designing materials that would be based more on the ideas of Critical Language Awareness. This approach would have interesting links to other subjects than only languages, such as history or religion.

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