



FILOZOFICKÁ FAKULTA
UNIVERZITY KARLOVY
V PRAZE

Diplomová práce

Univerzita Karlova
Filozofická fakulta
Ústav anglického jazyka a didaktiky



Diplomová Práce

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Mistake: curse or blessing? The ELF perspective

Chyba: prokletí nebo požehnání? Perspektiva ELF

Prohlášení autora

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Special thanks

First, and foremost, I would like to thank Mgr. Veronika Quinn Novotná, Ph.D. for providing invaluable academic expertise and kind advice throughout the whole writing process. Without her excellent mentoring and both devotion of time and resources this thesis would be a much more challenging project.

I would also like to express special thanks to Prof. Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro and Prof. Pamela M. Wesely who are both associate professors of linguistics and language related studies at the University of Iowa, Iowa, USA. Their advice concerning the questionnaire design and conducting of the pilot study was very useful and inspiring.

My thanks also go to all the schools, students, teachers and also their supervisors who allowed this research to happen as without their consent of cooperation it would not be possible. Distinctive thanks belong to the institution that assisted not only with the quantitative part of the study but with the observations as well.

Last but not least, I should like to thank to everyone who understood my time constraints and supported me while I was working on my research or when writing my thesis.

Abstrakt

Tento výzkum se zabývá otázkou, jak studenti v českých jazykových školách v současnosti přistupují k výuce anglického jazyka a jaké jsou jejich preference. Studie se na výuku anglického jazyka dívá ze dvou hledisek, z pohledu paradigmatu English as a Foreign Language (EFL) a paradigmatu English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Klíčové koncepty, na které se práce zaměřuje, jsou: chyba, nebo také modifikace, jazykové cíle a potřeby studentů, jazykové modely, jazyková správnost a kreativita (též *linguaging*).

Klíčová slova: EFL, ELF, jazykové cíle, jazykové modely, gramatická správnost, jazyková kreativita, linguaging.

Abstract

The present research focuses on students' attitudes and preferences towards English language learning at Czech private language schools. The study approaches language learning from two perspectives, the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) paradigm and the English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) paradigm. The key concepts discussed are: mistakes, re-labelled modifications, learner goals, learner needs, language models, accuracy and language creativity (or 'linguaging').

Key words: EFL, ELF, learner goals, language models, accuracy, language creativity, linguaging

List of Abbreviations

C-bound	Communication / comprehensibility / culture-bound
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CS	Communicative Situation
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EC	Expanding Circle
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELT	English Language Teaching
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
GA	General American English
IC	Inner Circle
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LE	Learner English
LF	Lingua Franca
LFC	Lingua Franca Core
LFE	Lingua Franca English
N-bound	Norm-bound
NEs	New Englishes
NNES	Non-Native English Speaker
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
OC	Outer Circle
Q1	Question item 1 ¹
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
StBE	Standard British English
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
WEs	World Englishes

¹ The same pattern is repeated for the rest of the question items in the questionnaire, e.g.: Question item 2 (Q2).
Question item 3 (Q3).

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1. Introduction

In recent years, the research on English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) has shown that the language used in lingua franca situations, i.e. when used chiefly among non-native speakers of English, substantially differs from the language used by its native speakers.² Since the number of non-native speakers (NNSs) of English has been growing³ steadily and English is more and more frequently used in international settings, the question of how this trend should be reflected in the teaching practice has become rather pressing. For these reasons, in the last decade⁴, a large number of scholars⁵ have focussed in their research on the field of World Englishes (WEs) and ELF. Still, there remain quite a lot of areas that need to be further explored. The most acute issues within the ELF research domain are issues connected with the implementation of theoretical findings about ELF and WEs in the teaching practice.

The present work aims to describe the relation between ELF and ELF-related attitudes of teachers and, mainly, students in the private English education sector in the Czech Republic. The main focus is twofold. First, it concerns learners' goals and their perception of the aims as formulated and pursued by their teachers in the lessons. Second, it analyses learners', or rather users', attitudes towards accuracy. Further we discuss whether the 'ELF-informed approach' to teaching and learning as outlined by Seidlhofer (see Seidlhofer 2011: 175-209) could be beneficial in the particular situation of private language schools in the Czech Republic. We hope

² Arguably, there are also differences between the use of English in the LF and FL (foreign language) function.

³ Based on the numbers provided by Crystal (1997), Graddol (1997: 10) estimated the number of L2 English speakers to be 375 million, and 750 million of ELF speakers at the beginning of the 21st century (his estimation for L1 English speakers was 375 million). There are also more daring estimations, originally by Kachru (1985), also quoted by Crystal (2003: 107) which predict 320 – 380 million of NS in the Inner Circle (IC), 150 – 300 million speakers in the Outer Circle (OC), and 100 – 1000 million of NNSs in the Expanding Circle (EC).

⁴ For an overview of the steep increase in ELF research over the course of the last 15 years see Quinn Novotná (2012: 46-47).

⁵ McKay (2002), Pölzl (2003), Widdowson (2003), Breiteneder (2005), Rubdy and Saraceni (2006), Alptekin (2007), Jenkins (2007), Kirkpatrick (2007), Prodromou (2008), Ur (2008), Cogo (2009), Dewey (2009), Firth (2009), Jenkins (2009), Klimpfinger (2009), Mauranen and Ranta (2009), Pakir (2009), Sifakis (2009), Kirkpatrick (2010), House (2010), Hülmbauer (2011), Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011), Seidlhofer (2011), Cogo and Dewey (2012), Dewey (2012), Quinn Novotná (2003), Jenkins (2013), and Quinn Novotná (2013).

the results may reveal significant thus far overseen facts concerning the state of foreign language education in the Czech Republic with respect to norms, language models, and goals. Special attention is paid to the theoretical notion of a mistake and how it is covered in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) paradigms. The study should also serve to gather other data that could be useful in determining how students perceive English language learning and whether they are aware of the growing need for being able to use the language in international situations and how that may influence their goals, treatment of accuracy and language creativity.

The thesis is divided into two major parts. The first part consists of the theoretical overview of the concept of ELF, it states, or rather restates, the reasons why it is nowadays necessary to study it. We examine the treatment of language mistakes, language goals and language teaching in general. In order to be able to analyse the data collected in the research, however, it was impossible to focus on ELF theories only. Thus, the theoretical part is contrastive in nature and it includes sections dedicated to the same topics but as understood within the EFL paradigm. The second major part of the thesis is then concerned with the empirical research itself. It provides the methodological background for the research, informs about the design of the study, presents the results and, finally, concludes with a discussion of the findings.

2. Research questions and hypotheses

The research was designed and conducted in order to test three essential hypotheses and several more detailed research questions. The following section presents each of the hypotheses with a commentary as well as all the research questions.

2.1. Hypotheses

- a) There might be a clash between the respondents' beliefs concerning learning goals and attitudes towards accuracy and language creativity and the classroom reality.

It is hypothesized that the beliefs students may have do not entirely correlate with the content and activities of real lessons. Thus, the questionnaires and observations were expected to provide supplementary data to prove this hypothesis and to reveal potential noticeable discrepancies between the reported beliefs and the actual learning and teaching practices.

- b) Students' goals may be different from what the teacher assumes them to be – consequently there might be a clash between the teacher's and the students' expectations.

It is hypothesized that the teachers may not be entirely aware of the goals the students have or, possibly, that they somehow fail to follow how the learner goals may be changing over time.⁶ Thus, what should be observed during the lessons was that the instruction was not (completely) focused on the aims and goals the students stated in the surveys. It is assumed that the teachers may follow a set of goals that they determined themselves and those may not always correlate with the ones of the students. The scope of our study did not include attitudes of teachers towards teaching and learning. Although sometimes they are mentioned or focused on, it is solely for providing reasoning for students' behaviour, motivations, and/or attitudes. Thus,

⁶ This research was not conceived as a longitudinal study; it would, however, be, beneficial to observe the phenomena over a longer period of time in order to be able to follow learners' goals and how they may change over time.

the data collection and analysis represents the point of view of students.⁷ While this may offer only a limited view of the situation, the research and its results are, nevertheless, believed to provide significant report of the possible need for changing the teaching and learning reality. It is also the first study with this focus written in the Czech Republic⁸.

- c) Students and teachers may profit from the knowledge that a successful communication in an international environment also depends on other elements than accuracy.

We assumed that the answers to the survey would provide a basis for determining whether the students and the teachers are accuracy-oriented or not and whether they have goals for using English that require and presuppose such orientation. The expectations were that, perhaps unnecessarily, students and teachers are preoccupied with accuracy whereas their goals and language usage suggest that they may well profit more from focusing on other aspects⁹ that, according to ELF researchers (Jenkins 2000, Kirkpatrick 2007, Hülmbauer 2007 and 2009, Jorgensen 2008, Dewey 2009 and Seidlhofer 2011), characterize successful ELF communication¹⁰.

⁷ It would be, certainly, interesting and relevant to cover teachers in the study itself and include them as respondents of the questionnaires and subjects of the observations. However, the amount of background information, data, and analysis would be well beyond the possibilities of the present thesis.

⁸ There has not been very much EFL-oriented research recorded worldwide that would be devoted to examining the relationship of students' and teachers' attitudes towards goals and accuracy and their conduct during lessons.

⁹ Hülmbauer (2007: 5), for example, points out that there seems to be 'no one-to-one correlation of lexicogrammatical correctness and communicative effectiveness' and she also makes a claim concerning 'effectiveness based on "incorrectness".' Both Hülmbauer (2007, 2009) and Seidlhofer (2011) stress the importance of 'clarity' when ELF users aim at achieving successful communication. It appears that the means of achieving clarity could be roughly distinguished into two groups. First, it is employment of certain communicative strategies (accommodation, code-switching and mixing, other-repetition, synonymy, rephrasing, "let-it-pass"). Second, which is, however, very much interconnected with the first, is using one's language resources the best possible. In linguistic terms, we can cite Seidlhofer's (2011: 99) short list of ways of enhancing clarity: 'giving prominence to important elements, redundancy added or exploited, explicitness [...] increased by making patterns more regular, word classes or semantic relations generally [...] made more explicit.' The key for employing some or all or none of the above mentioned in ELF communication is to follow the main goal, which is *mutual intelligibility* (Seidlhofer 2011: 99). Thus, how much and which strategies and language resources are used depends strictly on the communicative situation and interlocutors involved. Similarly, Dewey (2009: 78) reflects: 'intelligibility does not reside in the language system itself, but it must be achieved through effective, accommodative use of resources.'

¹⁰ Another whole study would be necessary to determine what is ELF-specific and what can be considered as general strategies for successful communication.

2.2. Research questions

The following research questions underlie the general research design of this study:

- a) Are the students aware of the main current usage of English, i.e. ELF?¹¹
- b) Based on direct classroom observations, is the ability to *language* defined by Phipps (2007:1) as ‘having a go (communicating), trying to make sense and getting somewhere against all the odds’, supported in the classroom environment? Is communicative competence preferred over accuracy or not? What does preference for one or the other imply for the teaching practice at private language schools in the Czech Republic?
- c) Is the ability to *language* (i.e. to use one’s resources fully in order to accomplish successful communication) presented to the students alongside with the importance of accuracy or is the latter favoured over the former?
- d) Would goals based on attaining communicative competence and being able to *language* rather than those focused on accuracy help the students with their learning or would it be confusing for them?
- e) Is there a clash between the learner and the teacher goals? Or do students follow their teachers uncritically trusting their judgment?

¹¹ The familiarity of teachers with the notion of ELF was already surveyed by Quinn Novotná (2012). In her questionnaires research, she asked the respondents explicitly about their knowledge of ELF. She reports the following findings (2012: 243): ‘generally, the term “ELF” is not very well-known among Czech teachers of English; in line with this, teachers declare a very low state of awareness of the ELF-related research.’ Our present study builds on those findings in order to add to them, and it employed a different method of data collection as there was no explicit question about ELF asked. Instead, the students and teachers were observed during English lessons and any ELF-related attitudes were inferred from the observations. Thus, we did not analyse whether participants *reported* their knowledge of ELF but whether they *showed* that they are aware of any aspects of its existence.

3. Significance of the study

The significance of the study lies in providing empirical data concerning the current learner attitudes towards learning goals and language mistakes in relation to the two paradigms of EFL and ELF. In spite of the fact that ELF research has been undergoing a major development during the last two decades, there still is, as stated above, much need for more data which would help to conceptualize ELF as a novel teaching paradigm. The issues as to what kind of variety of English ELF actually is, if it indeed is a variety, and how it can be integrated into the classroom practice are yet to be resolved¹².

Although, on the international scale, the research into ELF and related issues has been flourishing, the situation is not the same in the Czech Republic. The number of scholars devoting their time to the topic is scarce. It is often claimed that ELF should be studied and assessed as a variety, or attitude, of its own, without the necessity of evaluating it according to native speaker (NS) norms. It is, nonetheless, useful and, perhaps, even convenient to describe ELF by using comparisons with EFL. After all, EFL¹³ is currently the only well-established teaching paradigm¹⁴, and thus the ELF framework has to be necessarily juxtaposed with it. Essentially, this study, aims at gathering information that is expected to be relevant to both the EFL and ELF applied-linguistic frameworks. Therefore, data concerning ELF may be enriching also for EFL and for English Language Teaching (ELT) in general. We also hoped to see whether there is any

¹² The current discussion with respect to these issues was reflected at the 6th International ELF Conference in Rome (September 2013). Researchers seem to be suggesting that ELF is an **attitude** towards English rather than a language variety per se. Nonetheless, due to the scope and focus of our study this question was not pursued any further. Such discussion is similar to a point presented by Seidlhofer (2011: 7) that ‘conceptualization of ELF is a functional and not a formal one.’

¹³ We somehow subsume English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language under the one term EFL here.

¹⁴ For more on EFL and ELF paradigms see Bolton (2004), Graddol (2006), Jenkins (2006), Breiteneder (2009), Jenkins (2009), Seidlhofer (2011), Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011), Quinn Novotná (2012, 2013).

ELF-like tendency in the current Czech private language education and how this is reflected by the learner goals and their attitudes towards certain aspects of language instruction.

Based on the results, the work tried to uncover what has been happening in the classrooms and how it complies with the beliefs that students reported. A considerable insight was expected to be gained by conducting a mixed-method research, thus, not relying solely either on qualitative or quantitative analysis but, possibly, obtaining diversified data from several perspectives.

3.1. Why ELF?

During the last fifty years,¹⁵ the process of globalization has had a major impact on the economic, political, cultural and also linguistic development around the world. Both business and academia have become increasingly international and as such they have developed a need for an international language¹⁶ that would enable communication without major technical or financial complications. As Crystal puts it (2003: 12), ‘the pressure to adopt a single lingua franca, to facilitate communication in such (international) contexts, is considerable, the alternative being expensive and impracticable multi-way translation facilities.’¹⁷ The language that is already being used as the global lingua franca is, indisputably, English. What may be the next question, however, is which variety of English, or which approaches to teaching English (with different goals and models that are available) lingua franca users are to be offered

¹⁵ According to Crystal (2003: 12) ‘[t]he prospect that a lingua franca might be needed for the whole world is something which has emerged strongly only in the twentieth century, and since the 1950s in particular.’

¹⁶ As Crystal (2003: 13) further elaborates: ‘The need for a global language is particularly appreciated by the international academic and business communities, and it is here that the adoption of a single lingua franca is most in evidence, both in lecture-rooms and board-rooms, as well as in thousands of individual contacts being made daily all over the globe.’

¹⁷ However, there are counter-arguments to this opinion, for example, Gazzola and Grin (2013) claim that it would be more efficient, economical and fair to maintain the European Union’s multilingual policy and employ translation and interpreting services.

It seems that until not very long time ago the majority opinion of both ELT scholars and teachers used to be that the best choice of English for teaching would be one of the standard¹⁸ native speaker variants, i.e. either Standard British English (StBE) or General American (GA). Nonetheless, it is not only those two variants an international speaker comes in touch with. On the contrary, the variation in English encountered globally is literally endless. As mentioned above, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)¹⁹ is one of the major forms or varieties²⁰ of English that appear to be emerging. ELF is closely connected with international communication involving speakers of different nationalities and mother tongues.

Consequently, if it can be stated that there is a new variety of English being used under certain circumstances, and those circumstances facilitate the usage of such a variety on a daily basis all over the world, then it is necessary to research, describe and conceptualize this variety in order to determine its impact on English language teaching. If it is possible to determine closely what ELF is and what its core features²¹ are, then it would be also possible to integrate those into teaching syllabi. Nonetheless, since the status of ELF has not been accepted by a decisive number of scholars and academics, there are many mixed attitudes towards it. Moreover, as discussed above, it is also questionable what the awareness of ELF among language students and teachers really is.

Thus the mapping of the real situation in the classroom and determining whether it is the ability to communicate in international settings that matters to the students is highly important. It is relevant for establishing whether there is any ground for trying to introduce an ELF-oriented

¹⁸ With 'standard' meaning a standardised variant; 'Standard' with a capital 'S' is, on the other hand, used as an abbreviation of 'Standard British English'.

¹⁹ For detailed accounts of ELF see e.g. Widdowson (2003), Breiteneder (2005), Kirkpatrick (2006), Jenkins (2009), Seidlhofer (2011), Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011), Quinn Novotná (2012).

²⁰ See above for the discussion of pitfalls of considering ELF a variety.

²¹ Core ELF features that have been assembled thus far are listed e.g. in Seidlhofer (2011).

or ELF-informed syllabi after its main features become described in sufficient depth and when clearer pedagogical implications are introduced. This is important because if there is such a variety of English as ELF, it should be also factually proven that there are a number of international settings in which ELF is likely to be used.²² Consequently, it would be highly desirable for students to be prepared for international communication. Moreover, learners may show that their goals are related to ELF-likely situations and then it becomes especially relevant for them to be able to learn and use the kind of English typical for such occasions.

So far we have only mentioned a small portion of all the various reasons why it is necessary to study ELF and ELF-related attitudes both independently and in contrast, or comparison, with the more traditional EFL paradigm. Although ELF may be, as Seidlhofer (2001: 133) puts it, a language variety ‘in its own right’ it is not, or it should not be, a model that would be monolithically adopted by everybody.²³ Nonetheless, if there are situations during which English users will benefit from being able to ‘speak ELF’ then, it seems, researching ELF is justified, or rather, necessary and much up-to-date.

3.2. Why mistakes?

There are several areas concerning the English language and its teaching towards which EFL and ELF seem to have adopted rather different perspectives. One of the areas that is especially noticeable, and often commented on, concerns mistakes. A synonym for a *mistake* in the ELF terminology is *innovation*; as such it was defined, for example, by Seidlhofer (2011: 107-109), and widely used as a standard term in the ELF research. It is not very relevant, at this

²² The fact that English is currently predominantly used in its LF function is no longer disputed in academic literature.

²³ This idea is in line with Quinn Novotná’s (2012: 109) discussion of the differences between ‘mono- and polymodel approaches.’ Together with other ELF researchers (Rubdy and Saraceni 2006, Kirkpatrick 2007, Pennycook 2009) Quinn Novotná states that ‘the plurilithic approach seems to be a viable model for the future’ (ibid.).

point, to try to define what a mistake is and whether there is any difference between a mistake and an error, because, as Ur points out (2002: 85), ‘during a lesson it is usually difficult to tell the difference with any degree of certainty’. Moreover, the terminology concerning language deviations is developing fast and the development is not important from the point of view adopted in this thesis because it is descriptive, rather than prescriptive. What is, however, significant is the learners’ perception of making mistakes while using English and how teachers react to it.²⁴ While it cannot be said that mistakes would be non-existent in ELF, the attitudes towards them and towards the way students and teachers judge the language competence based on accuracy is quite different from the view held by the EFL paradigm. True ELF mistakes (not considered as innovative) are only those that impede communication, but this is not considered to be a priori true of any modification from a native standard.²⁵

A detailed analysis of both of the approaches can be found in the subsequent parts of this thesis²⁶ and it will, thus, not be presented at this point. Each paradigm treats errors, mistakes and innovations and their correction or avoidance of correction in a different way and they both have very distinct implications for teaching. Taking into account what has been claimed previously, that English is becoming, or has become the international lingua franca, the treatment of mistakes, or innovations, must be brought to attention. Erring and correcting is an essential part of the teaching practice and it is, often but not always, considered to be a vital part of learning that is necessary for the students to successfully acquire a language.^{27,28} Moreover, if the modern

²⁴ As detailed in the introductory part of this thesis, the opinion and attitudes of teachers are not the primary focus of the research. They are used only in cases when such information were considered as informative in relation to students and, hence, they were also noted.

²⁵ See, for example, Grzegala (2008) and his scale for distinguishing degrees of errors.

²⁶ See Figure 2, and section 5.

²⁷ Edge (1997: 17) summarises the role of mistakes and correction for learning in the following four key points:

- 1) A lot of the things that we call mistakes can also be seen as learning steps. We should be pleased to see them.
- 2) Students should be encouraged to experiment with language so that they can take more learning steps.
- 3) Unless students make mistakes, they can’t work out better rules for how to express what they want to say.

lingua franca is approached through the EFL paradigm, it might be also necessary to investigate learner goals and reconsider the ways of reaching them.²⁹.

3.3. The importance of goals and their relevance to the EFL vs. the ELF paradigms

The kind of language students need to learn in the classroom should be mainly determined by their goals. This unshakeable fact is aptly illustrated in the dynamic learning scheme as proposed by Mothejzíkova (1988); according to this scheme, goals occupy a key position among other teaching factors. Therefore, when comparing two paradigms of English, together with the theory and practice connected with them, it is important to determine goals the students have. This becomes even more important considering the target group of our respondents who are adult learners attending private language schools. Such students are essentially clients and 'language' presents a 'commodity' (Howatt 2004: 357) for them, therefore its presentation must fit their expectations and needs. Naturally, those arise from the situations in which the clients will use English and those in turn determine their goals. Students' goals are relevant when deciding which teaching paradigm may be more beneficial for them. The assumption also is that students' goals are tied to their perception of innovative language use and their insistence on accuracy. It could be expected that the higher level of English the students desire to attain, the stronger the wish to be accurate will be. That, however, should not be the only determinant. It is also necessary to consider the situations in which the students will use the

4) Correction must aim to support learners by giving feedback.

²⁸ Penny Ur (2002: 85) mentions the key role of erring for learning and states that '[m]istakes may be seen as an integral and natural part of learning: a symptom of the learner's progress through an 'interlanguage' towards a closer and closer approximation to the target language.'

²⁹ Jenkins (2006), summarised in Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011: 283-4) (see Figure1), discusses the differences between EFL and ELF paradigms; one of the key points included is the difference between the EFL assumption that 'non-native speakers' goal is to approximate the native variety as closely as possible,' and the ELF view that 'differences from ENL are not assumed to be signs of incompetence, as they are when viewed from an EFL perspective, but are explored as emerging or potential features of ELF.'

language with the existing and expected interlocutors. As many ELF researchers point out,³⁰ it may be questionable whether it is worth teaching students NS models of English if the environment in which they use English is generally international. In that case, there may be difference in the knowledge that the students need to acquire, whether one considers purely linguistic aspects of the language or the social and pragmatic as well. In other cases it might be beneficial to allow the students to strive towards NS models, but select teaching methods and strategies that would be ELF-oriented. There may be situations in which it is even undesirable to focus on NS-oriented accuracy and, thus, the students need to learn how to cope with irregularities and innovations in the language (e.g.: Pennycook 1999, Hülmbauer 2007, Widdowson 2008, Firth 2009, Seidlhofer 2011, or Jenkins 2012).

Admittedly, such strategies and knowledge do not seem to be strongly represented in the mainstream English learning and teaching materials, and often in the classrooms either. Consequently, it is one of the aims of this work to uncover the current state in the Czech Republic. Students' goals are considered to be an extremely important aspect in selecting the language that the students should and need to learn, in determining students' relationship to mistakes, and in learner motivation. Hence, our study was designed so we could observe both students' attitudes and goals as they described them, and the ways in which those goals were explicitly addressed in the classroom. As stated in one of our hypotheses (see point a) above), the assumption was that there might be a clash between the students' attitudes or goals and the classroom practices.

³⁰ For example, House (1999), Pennycook (1999), Brumfit (2001), Leung (2005), Hülmbauer (2007), Kirkpatrick (2007), Phipps (2007), Widdowson (2008), Firth (2009), Cogo (2009), Kennedy (2010), Seidlhofer (2011) and Jenkins (2012).

3.3.1. Motivation and its relation to goals

Learner goals are very much related to learner motivation. As Harmer (2007: 98) points out ‘it is accepted for most field of learning that motivation is essential to success,’ or in other words, it appears to be rather difficult, if not sometimes impossible, to reach one’s goals without motivation. Viewed from a different angle, however, goals may belong among key aspects that, actually, motivate to learning. In this case, goals are considered to be a part of the group of ‘external sources of motivation’ (ibid.), often also termed ‘extrinsic motivation’ (Thornbury, 2006: 137), or ‘instrumental motivation’ (Lightbown and Spada, 2006: 64). Thornbury, similarly as Harmer, also lists goals as one of widely agreed factors contributing to overall motivation (2006: 138).

The fact that goals are crucial for teaching was already made clear in the previous section. However, this is true not only from the point of view of the teacher, who needs to be able to determine learner goals in order to select suitable content for teaching, but, probably more importantly, it is also vital for the learners themselves. Their progress and success is intrinsically connected with the chance to have and follow realistic and attainable goals (as considered by, for example, Kirkpatrick 2006) as it enhances their motivation and, consequently, allows for better learning. The interrelation of the lesson content, goals and motivation was aptly summarised by Lightbown and Spada (2006, in Thornbury and Watkins, 2007: 86): ‘If we can make our classrooms places where the students enjoy coming because the content is interesting and relevant to their age and level of ability, where the learning goals are challenging yet manageable and clear, and where the atmosphere is supportive and non-threatening, we can make a positive contribution to the students’ motivation to learn.’

4. Terminological introduction

In order to determine the scope of this work it is necessary first to delimit several terms, or notions that are at the core of the theoretical part. Each of the presented terms will be further described and discussed in the subsequent theoretical sections. It is vital to introduce these particular terms here and to juxtapose them, and thus establish the comparative nature of this study.

First, a summary of a recently revised detailed description of the relation between EFL and ELF paradigms by Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011: 283; originally also Jenkins 2006: 140 and 142) is presented in order to delimit the two frameworks or paradigms into which the key terms belong:

EFL	ELF
Modern (foreign) languages paradigm	Global Englishes paradigm
NNS are deficient; differences from ENL are sins of incompetence.	NNS are different; differences from ENL do not mean incompetence.
Underpinned by theories of L1 inference and fossilization.	Underpinned by theories of language contact and evolution.
Code switching means a gap in knowledge.	Code switching is a crucial bilingual pragmatic resource.

Figure 1: Differences between EFL and ELF, by Jenkins, Cogo, Dewey (2011)

The key terms listed in Figure 2 present some of the major defining concepts of the two frameworks and of the present study as well. We have divided them into two groups according to whether they fit into the EFL or ELF paradigms:

EFL – English as a Foreign Language	ELF – English as a Lingua Franca
Interlanguage	Languaging
Mistake	Innovation
Linguistic knowledge	Communicative competence
Accuracy	Successful communication

Figure 2: Juxtaposing EFL and ELF

4.1. Concept delimitation

Before it is possible to begin the comparison of the two English paradigms and their approaches towards language teaching it is necessary to devote some time to delimiting certain less familiar concepts. Generally, there is a wide spectrum of terms related to the field of World Englishes and English varieties. Quinn Novotná (2012: 26) gives an exhaustive list of ‘56 terms illustrating the terminological diversity and complexity connected with the spread of English world-wide’. The EFL approach towards the teaching of English has been present for many decades, if not centuries as a subject, and it is assumed that it is one of the notions in ELT that has been deeply established and generally acknowledged. Thus, it is not the aim of this part to elaborate upon EFL as it can be referenced easily (essentially Kachru 1985, and later 1992). Recently, there have been several articles published that offer a summary of relevant information currently available, as well as some implications for the language teaching and an overview of ELF-related research (Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey 2011; Jenkins 2012). Thus, in the following part ELF and related concepts that are relevant for this thesis are characterized and positioned among other approaches, methods and techniques of ELT.

4.1.1. What is ELF and what it is not

As already mentioned, the abbreviation ELF stands for English as a Lingua Franca. The term *lingua franca* can generally be defined as ‘any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language’ (Samarin, 1987: 371). Therefore, ELF is taken to mean a variety of English that is used as a mediating language in situations where it must function as a common language, or one of several ones, of people of multiple nationalities and cultures. The definition given above applies to any language, even those used regionally. The situation of ELF, however, is quite specific in the way that it concerns

a global usage of one single language. There are several other definitions that are more ELF specific that are worth mentioning:

Firth	ELF is a “contact language” between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication. (Firth 1996:240)
House	ELF interactions are defined as interactions between members of two or more different linguacultures in English, for none whom English is the mother tongue. (House 1999:74)
Seidlhofer	ELF is any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option. (Seidlhofer 2011:7)

Figure 3: ELF Definitions

It is very important to realize, as Seidlhofer points out, that such ‘conceptualization of ELF is a functional and not a formal one’ (2011: 7). Thus, the definitions are based on the observed ELF situations and they are descriptive, rather than prescriptive. There also is a possibility that they might be modified as the body of knowledge about ELF grows.

ELF can be also characterized by its speakers. In ELF situations ENL speakers will be a minority. Therefore, the English used is appropriated and shaped by its users who are, in majority, non-native speakers (NNSs) of the language. This has a direct impact on the norms and models applied when communicating in ELF. ELF researchers believe that NS norms and models may no longer be relevant and can, possibly, become even undesirable, if the adherence to NS conventions causes communication break-downs.³¹

Lastly, a significant aspect distinguishing ELF from other regional or local lingua francas is its global nature. Essentially, this means that ELF is a ‘lobal language – its usage is not restricted by countries or by governing bodies’ (Crystal 2003:141). More specifically, ELF is

³¹ For more details on the ‘privilege of the non-native speaker’ (Kramsch, 1997) and ELF communication see, for example: Firth (1996), Kramsch (1997), Brumfit (2001), House (2002), Meierkord (2002), Leung (2005), Pözl and Seidlhofer (2006), Kirkpatrick (2007), Widdowson (2008), Ranta (2009), Kennedy (2010), Björkman (2011), Seidlhofer (2011) and Jenkins (2012).

used beyond national, cultural and ethnic boundaries and it is the choice of the speakers to use English as a LF. It is also used outside of the countries where it is a native language. This is, yet again, crucial when considering the form of ELF in various situations. It is usually much less norm bound than when used strictly with native speakers and in native environments. Thus, as Seidlhofer observes (2011:8) ‘in the world out there ELF has taken on a life of its own, in principle independent to a considerable degree of the norms established by its native users, and that is what needs to be recognized’.

4.1.2. Current state in the world

It seems that ELF has been establishing its position among other English varieties and in the field of ELT mainly during the last two decades. While the ELF variety probably started emerging much earlier, the rapid development of the recent years is mainly documented by the amount of publications, projects and conferences devoted to ELF (for further details see Quinn Novotná 2012: 44). With respect to both theoretical and empirical research ELF has become a vibrant field that has attracted considerable amount of attention and its influence is being considered and discussed in various linguistic subfields (SLA, language models, language ownership, language imperialism, etc.). However, the apparent movement surrounding ELF is somehow one sided. Put more explicitly, there may be a great advancement in theory, but the theoretical findings are still scarcely translated into practice.³² It was Barbara Seidlhofer who, first in her article titled ‘Closing a conceptual gap: the case for a description of English as a lingua franca’ (2001) and again in her book in (2011), was the one to draw attention to the fact that there is a discrepancy between what is happening on the level of language theories and

³² The first, and so far only, of its kind is Robin Walker’s (course)book *Teaching the Pronunciation of English as a Lingua Franca* (2010). It is the first (course)book that provides practical instruction how to teach English in an ELF-informed way and without a strict adherence to exclusively NS norms and models. More recently, Quinn Novotná (2013) published two articles concerning two main-stream English course books that claim to have adopted more international approach. She evaluated the publications from ELF perspective.

discourse and on the level of ELT³³. Since then, she has not been the only one who has noticed this ‘gap’ and it was taken as a basis for further research by the ELF scholars (e.g. Jenkins, Widdowson, Dewey, Cogo). Nowadays, some research appears to be suggesting that the gap has been finally overcome. Nonetheless, while there may be enough theoretical background that has filled in the gap, what is still necessary to decide, is how to apply the knowledge that has been obtained by the research practically in the teaching practice.

The main claim is that while the pedagogic ideas about the language, learning, teaching, language models and sociolinguistic ideas may have been changing and developing in a striking way, ‘the assumptions about the “E” itself in ELT/TEFL/TESOL have remained curiously unaffected’ (Seidlhofer 2011: 14). This means that the perception of the variety of English that should and is taught to the students has not been reconsidered while taking ELF into account. The ‘E’ stands for English as a Native Language (ENL) and having this as the general referent all the norms and language models presented to the majority of students are oriented towards the ultimate goal of attaining, or nearing, native-like knowledge and proficiency. Thus, it would follow that the students are not presented with the language as an instrument they can use for communication and they can shape it in a way they need but as a set of norms and regulations that needs to be attended to if communication is to be successful.

Such approach also seems to be reinforced by common attitudes towards language innovations with NNS as the sources of these modifications³⁴. As Jenkins (2012: 488) presents it ‘nowadays non-native-like forms are characterized in the mainstream second language acquisition and ELT literature as errors: “interlanguage” errors if classroom learning is still in

³³ Summarised in Seidlhofer (2011: 14): ‘In short, English as a lingua franca has not really entered people’s consciousness as a new and alternative concept of “English”. What we are faced with instead is a conceptual gap.’

³⁴ The term ‘modification’ is used as a neutral alternative to mistake (EFL paradigm) and innovation (ELF paradigm). It is in the current thesis that the term is employed in such a way for the first time.

progress, “fossilized” errors if it has ended.’³⁵ If this view is considered to be accurate for a wide number of scholars and teachers, then it really seems that the information researched about ELF in theory does not manage to reach the desired end and it is not being applied in practice. It is one of the aims of this thesis to map the situation in Czech classrooms to see whether there is a gap between attitudes and beliefs and their application in practice for English learners.

Another prominent concern of researchers and teachers often provoked by ELF research is what will happen to the English language if NS norms are abandoned or the insistence on accuracy is loosened.³⁶ However, it must be stressed that such fears are unfounded. The goal of researching, describing and establishing the ELF variety is not to cause linguistic anarchy and/or to abandon NS norm-referenced varieties and models. The goal is to offer yet another objective on which ELT could focus in order to provide English students with the best preparation possible for real life language usage

Although in ELF NNSs are acknowledged as active participants in forming and reforming of the language, it is not claimed that this should and is done in a completely random fashion (see e.g. Jenkins 2009, Seidlhofer 2011). The assumption also is that EFL, ESL and other NS-norm referenced varieties of English can be appropriate varieties and goals for the students if their needs and the environment in which English is likely to be used demands so. Nonetheless, it may often be the case that students would benefit from acquiring ELF and communicative strategies connected with it (see also sections 5.2, 5.4, and 5.6) in order to be able to take active participation in international situations and negotiations. If we considered only the numbers of speakers of English, then ELF ay become especially relevant since as was mentioned earlier in

³⁵ The EFL versus ELF approach to mistakes, or language innovations, is discussed in more detail in the following sections 4.2.4, 5.1, and 5.2.

³⁶ Compare with Jenkins (2012: 491) ‘ELT practitioners and mainstream SLA researchers are concerned – ELF is simply a case of “anything goes” and constitutes linguistic anarchy to the extent that NNES ELF speakers fail to defer to ENL.’

this thesis NNSs (often in ELF situations) have greatly outnumbered NSs and the situation is still developing (see Note 1 in section 1).

4.1.3. Current state in the Czech Republic

The current situation and reception of ELF in the Czech Republic complies with what has been described above (4.1.2). From the pedagogical point of view, generally, there are various concerns expressed about what would become the subject of teaching and how it would be taught. Quinn Novotná (2012: 40) presents several examples of the opinions of Czech teachers voiced in the interviews:

- a) ‘They [ELF proponents] want us to learn and teach some bastardized simple incorrect English,
- b) LFE is some bad English that they are trying to codify or they want to take away from us our good old BBC English,
- c) we must prevent standards from deteriorating.’

It follows that the teachers in the Czech Republic have a rather suspicious and negative attitude towards the whole ELF paradigm and they do not seem to be considering it as a serious candidate for an introduction into teaching or for influencing their teaching practices.

However, it would probably be a mistake to base an evaluation of a situation only on several personal observations. Thus, Quinn Novotná (2012) also conducted an empirical research, as a part of her larger project, mapping the familiarity with the concept of ELF in general among teachers and with their opinions about including it into ELT. The teachers were asked whether ELF could become a new standard in the foreign language teaching. According to the results obtained, more than half of the participants answered negatively or were not sure what to answer. Moreover, when asked about the Lingua Franca Core

(LFC)³⁷ which is a key aspect of ELF theory addressing possible pronunciation targets, 63 % of the questioned teachers have never heard of it (Quinn Novotná, 2012: 174). The assumption, therefore, is that Czech English teachers are still not much aware of ELF and/or of its meaning and what implications it may present for their teaching practice. Those two points could also be regarded as interconnected as it is often the ‘fear of unknown’ that motivates negative attitudes towards newly discovered approaches almost in any known science.

4.1.4. World Englishes

The issue of World English and World Englishes is a complex one and it is rather undesirable to explain it in detail as it is not the main focus of the thesis. However, it must be stated that, at least as far as the view adopted in this thesis is concerned, ELF is not considered to be a synonym for a World English, although, it may be considered to belong among other World Englishes³⁸. The most basic definition of WEs was provided by McArthur (2004: 5) stating that ‘all English: standard and non-standard, mother-tongue and other tongue, dialect, pidgin, creole, lingua franca, and “Anglo-hybrids“.’ Thus, World Englishes appears to be a superordinate concept which is capable of encompassing the whole variety of English around the world. It does not necessarily refer solely to a global usage of English but it can also cover local and regional varieties as well as informal and slang usage of the language. From this, although basic, account it should be possible to infer that ELF is a much more limited paradigm with specific characteristics, users and language situations that disallow it to become synonymous to WEs. Nonetheless, as mentioned above, the terminological “hotchpotch” is a challenging area. It has become common to misinterpret, misuse or simply use differently terms that may not be simply

³⁷ For a detailed explanation see Jenkins (2000: 123-158).

³⁸ See Jenkins (2009: 24) who also mentions and defines New Englishes.

interchangeable. The terminological complexity that may occur when talking about WEs and other related terms is presented in the table below (Quinn Novotná 2012: 31)³⁹:

World English(es) (WEs) – synonyms (a.)		
World English (WE)	= ⁴⁰	WEs (World Englishes)
	≠	WEs (World Englishes)
originally:	=	OUC (Outer Circle English)
	=	ESL (English as a Second Language)
	=	NE (New Englishes)
	=	nativized varieties / indigenized varieties
more recently:	=	ICE (Inner Circle English) + OUC (Outer Circle English) + ECE (Expanding Circle English)

Figure 4: WE(s) – synonyms (a.)

Similarly to Figure 4 above we can offer synonymous terms to WEs:

World English(es) (WEs) – synonyms (b.)		
World English(es)	=	EIL (English as an International Language)
	=	IE (International English)
	=	EGL (English as a Global Language)
	≠	Globish
	= / ≠	GE (Global English)
	=	a shorthand for <i>English as a world language</i>
	=	New Englishes
	= / ≠	ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) ⁴¹

Figure 5: WE(s) – synonyms (b.)

4.1.5. Learner English

We assume that LE is closely related to the EFL paradigm and it is often the label of LE that the ELF users get for their (functional) variety of English. Essentially, any English that is spoken by a NNS could be regarded as a language in an intermediate stage, on its way towards the complete attainment of the NS standard, therefore, as an interlanguage or a learner language. In this view, Learner English could somehow be perceived as having a lower status than other

³⁹ See also Quinn Novotná (2013).

⁴⁰ Quinn Novotná explains (2012: 30) the use of the mathematical signs as follows: ‘The “=” symbol suggests that terminologically speaking the two equated terms are often used synonymously and/or they refer to the same conceptualization of the terms; the “≠” symbol suggests that the two terms, when analysed in depth, do not describe the same concept and/or they refer to entirely separate phenomena; the “= / ≠” symbol suggests that the two concepts compared are used in some scientific literature synonymously, other times they are differentiated.’

⁴¹ For the discussion of similarities between WE and ELF see also Pakir (2009: 228).

fully developed varieties, mainly in the way that those usually have some native speakers as well.⁴² In some respects, LE may be considered strikingly similar to ELF.

Nevertheless, to equal ELF with LE does not appear to be viable. First, LE is a language that presupposes certain development to a ‘better’ state. On the other hand, ELF may already be a variety and/or a function of English at its final form, depending on the user, and it should not be assigned the label of being an interlanguage. For some it may appear that ELF and LE are synonymous. That mainly depends on which paradigm we chose to follow and whether we decide to evaluate the language used according to a norm or not. Certainly, in any international communication situation the interlocutors would not assume themselves to be using an incomplete or somehow impoverished code⁴³ and it is doubtless that they would be at that very moment consciously striving for attaining a better kind of language than the one they are using in the situation, unless they try to speak differently due to the native status of the interlocutor. If this is the case, and the interlocutors are mostly NSs, then this situation is more likely to be considered within the EFL paradigm (which used to overlap with EIL, viz. Figure 5).

Second, the concept of Learner English requires the existence of a norm or a model towards which the speakers, or users, are moving, traditionally a NS model. As previously stated, this is not the case in ELF settings. ELF users are not aiming at emulating any particular NS model; they are preserving their cultural and linguistic identity that they bring from their L1.

Third, when ELF is used for communication, the speakers are not mere adopters of the code but they become active agents in shaping and forming the code. They appropriate⁴⁴ the language and they make it their own in order to be understood. Consequently, such changes may

⁴² For more about LE see e.g. Ellis (2003), Ur (2002), Widdowson (2003), Sifakis (2004) and Swan and Smith (2011).

⁴³ For a detailed discussion of ‘impoverished language code’ see, for example, Labov (1969) and (1970).

⁴⁴ For more on the term ‘appropriation’ see e.g. Seidlhofer (2011: 64-9).

well not be the ones that a NS would choose to do. Those may include anything from a formal change in derivation of a word to modifications in pragmatic usage of certain utterances or the creation of new idioms and phrases which may be relevant and comprehensible only in the particular situation (for more details concerning ELF characteristics see e.g. Mauranen 2005, Jenkins 2007, Seidlhofer 2005, 2006 and 2011, Firth 2009, House 2009, Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey 2011).

In sum, the concept of Learner English is relevant for ELF because it can be easily used for stating what ELF is not and how it should not be perceived. While there are certain similarities between LE and ELF there are also significant differences that make the two notions clearly distinctive. For completeness, ELF should also not be confused with pidgin, creole, or simplified language, as there are various reasons why none of them could be synonymous.⁴⁵

Crucially, it should be remembered that most of the participants in ELF situations are not mere learners of the language. Many of them may have stopped learning some years ago, but they are active users of English and they share the same rights over its form and use as the native speaker have of ENL.⁴⁶

4.2. Key concepts

There are two crucial concepts connected with ELF that are especially relevant for the present work. They are *linguaging* (and *linguagers*) and *virtual language*. The first term was early described by Becker (2000) and since then it has been adopted and widely used by many ELF scholars (e.g. Phipps, Seidlhofer, Jenkins, Widdowson, Firth, Cogo, Dewey). Similar situation is with the term *virtual language* which was essentially described and elaborated by

⁴⁵ See Quinn Novotná (2012: 71-73).

⁴⁶ It is important to remember that one can be both, a learner and a user. While the former attends language courses in the evenings, the latter goes on business trips to various countries and negotiates with international colleagues and clients.

Henry Widdowson (2003) who was following on the work of Noam Chomsky, among others, about Generative Grammar⁴⁷. The concept of virtual language has become one of the essential tenets for explaining how language innovation and modification in ELF works.

The two concepts are very closely interrelated as one determines the other. It could be said that without virtual language no languaging would be possible and vice versa, languaging and languagers constantly prove that the idea of virtual language is a valid one. In order to see this relationship and to be able to understand how the terms are related to the present work and research a more detailed description is provided below.

4.2.1. Languaging

From the most general point of view, *languaging* could be characterized as creativity with language. It is mostly employed when the user needs to deal with communicative or other language-related situation and has certain language as the only source to operate in. Seidlhofer points out that the term has been used in sociocultural theory as well as in linguistics. She refers to Becker's definition of the concept and claims that *languaging* is regarded as 'an endless social process of orienting and reorienting ourselves to (the) environment' (Becker 2000: 288, quoted in Seidlhofer 2011: 98). Yet a more detailed account that is more related to linguistics and to language aims is provided by Jørgensen (2008: 169) who claims that language users 'language with all their skills and knowledge (and) employ whatever linguistic features are at their disposal with the intention of achieving their communicative aims.'

Jørgensen's quote functions as a very good link between *languaging* and ELF because it explains that *languaging*, basically, means shaping and forming a language in any way the speaker or user is capable of in order to communicate a message successfully. There is no

⁴⁷ For more discussion on that relation see section on Virtual language, 4.2.3.

mention of norms, rules or restrictions that need to be followed when *linguaging* and the only determiner of the form and shape that *linguaging* may seem to be the knowledge and skills possessed by the language user. Consequently, it can be said that the link with ELF starts exactly at this point. Linguaging, similarly as ELF, approaches language production from a non-normative point of view and regards the speakers and users of a language in exactly the same way. Additionally, the creativity that is encoded in linguaging resembles the fluidity of ELF which is inherently found in ELF situations.

Innovations and modifications in the language use were also directly addressed by linguaging. Phipps (2007: 70) emphasizes one very significant point about linguaging when she claims that ‘linguaging betrays weaknesses in accent, in origin, in grammar, pronunciation – it requires a performance that is often an anti-performance or a bad performance.’

Here we can see another important connection with ELF as linguaging appears to have a very similar view on the language performance and its relation to mistakes. What Phipps means by ‘anti-performance’ and ‘bad performance’ is that it is possible to regard instances of linguaging as ungrammatical or wrong, if one wishes to adopt such a view, because it may well contain language forms and usages that are not described in official grammars and dictionaries. Consequently, we can say that if we regard the notion of linguaging from the point of view of ENL, or EFL, oriented linguistics there will be many aspects of it that will be identified as ungrammatical and therefore wrong. However, if one is willing to approach linguaging from the point of view of ELF then it is not necessary, and probably also important, to consider anything as deviant because there is no orientation towards accuracy and exactness but to the overall aim which is to communicate a message successfully.

This observation is also captured by the definition of *linguaging* offered by Swain (2006: 97) in which she notes that ‘linguaging is an action, a dynamic, never-ending process of using

language to make meaning.’ The main goal - to ‘make meaning’ while languaging - resonates with the goals that are achieved when speakers employ ELF. In ELF communicative situations the participants seek mainly to make themselves understood, i.e. to make meaning. They usually diverge from the Standard English norms but this does not impede communication.⁴⁸ Therefore, they are using the language to fit their needs and value comprehensibility over accuracy. They are pursuing a communicative aim more than a language aim⁴⁹. In this view, we can probably quite accurately claim that what speakers of ELF are in reality doing is languaging. Thus, when in an ELF situation, the speakers aim to make meaning regardless of the norms of the language they have been taught about. The speakers draw on their knowledge of the language they have and they shape it as they need to fulfil their communicative aims (for further detail, see Widdowson 2003). This enables the speakers to be creative with the language as they may produce forms that may be considered “non-standard” if viewed from the normative point of view. When languaging, the speakers focus mainly on their communicative aims and may tend to disregard accuracy. Languaging is successful if the communicative aims are fulfilled.

4.2.2. Languagers

If we claim that the usage of ELF means languaging then the ELF speakers are, truly, regarded as languagers. This is significant because it can tell us something about the nature of the speakers of ELF. Generally, it can be observed that languagers or ELF speakers are not afraid to be creative with language because through this they engage with the world around them. They need to use the language for their communicative purposes and in order to do so they may create “non-standard” forms of language. However, this should not be perceived as a disadvantage but as an advantage as they are able to operate the language in ways that allow them to be

⁴⁸ This opinion is also supported by numerous ELF researchers, such as: Brumfit (2001), Widdowson (2003), Jenkins (2006), Alptekin (2007), Mauranen and Ranta (2009), Dewey (2009), Hülmbauer (2009), Seidlhofer (2011).

⁴⁹ Firth (2009: 155) introduces a distinction between ‘task-as-target vs. (standard) linguistic-form-as-target.’

understood and to communicate. Language users are able to make the most of the language resources they have in order to fulfil their communicative needs. Additionally, ELF speakers are not only creative with the language, but they also possess strategies and skills, including metalinguistic ones, that facilitate the flow of communication. They use those strategies to support the other participants in communication and to keep the communication going (general strategic communicative competence⁵⁰, let-it-pass principle, adopting innovative forms of other participants adding and reducing redundancy etc. as described by, for example, Seidlhofer 2005, 2009, and 2011).

As pointed out above, in ELF languaging does not signify only formal language changes but it also means strategies and skills, which could be called metalinguistic or pragmatic, that the speakers employ in order to be understood. This is beneficial for all sides participating as it means that it is possible to rely on more resources than the purely linguistic ones. At the same time, it means that there seem to be more factors determining a successful communication than adherence to norms and rules. The metalinguistic strategies listed above are usually nothing new for the language users as they probably employ them in their first language (L1) too.⁵¹

⁵⁰ Some of them were quoted by Peterwagner (2005: 286-298), e.g.: paraphrase, appeal for assistance, conscious code-switching, approximation, word coinage, literal translation, and miming.

⁵¹ It may be of an interest to mention some general pragmatic principles that should be observed in order to achieve successful communication. Probably the most basic one is the Gricean Cooperative Principle ([1967]1989: 26): 'Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange.' This principle is 'instantiated by general maxims of conversation governing rational interchange (1989: 26-7):

QUALITY: Try to make your contribution one that is true.

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.
2. Do not say that for which you lack evidence.

QUANTITY:

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

RELATION: Be relevant.

MANNER: Be perspicuous.

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.
2. Avoid ambiguity.
3. Be brief. (Avoid unnecessary prolixity.)
4. Be orderly.' (1989: 26-27 in L.R. Horn 2006 in L.R. Horn and G. Ward (Eds.), 2006: 7)

Nonetheless, their possibility of use needs to be stressed already when the users learn the foreign language as the link between the strategies present in their L1 and L2 may not be automatic.⁵²

4.2.2.1. Relevance of languaging in ELT

In ELT, the significance of languaging, and communicative strategies that usually come with it, is very high. It is, yet again, connected with learning goals, but also with students' motivation and teaching content. What seems to be implied by the definitions provided is that languaging allows the speakers to communicate against all odds, whether it means depending on linguistic or metalinguistic skills. Said differently, learning to language prepares the students for nearly anything that may occur in communication. Another aspect is that when we focus on languaging, the pressure of being accurate and according to a norm is lifted. This is very important, especially, for learners who find English challenging in form or who feel daunted by expressing themselves in fear of being, or even only sounding, wrong and therefore ridiculed. Languaging discards such feelings and worries as it is not formally but content-focused. In relation to the form of the message there is no judgement passed when languaging, as it is the meaning of it that matters. As long as that can be comprehended by the interlocutors, expectedly other languagers, there seems to be no need to be stressed out. If such an approach to language use could be adopted in classrooms, it seems reasonable to assume that the students would find learning much more motivating.

There is another aspect of languaging that influences motivation that is also connected with the previous point. It is that learning to language is a goal that is, actually, attainable.⁵³ Unlike becoming a native speaker with perfect pronunciation, form and knowledge of grammar, learning

⁵² The importance of the link between language awareness, pragmatic strategies and successful communication in multilingual and multicultural settings was discussed in Dunková, Grosser, Quinn Novotná (2013).

⁵³ By contrast, 'unattainable objectives' are mentioned by for example by Brown 1996, Kirkpatrick 2007, Jenkins 2000, Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2011). For example, Kirkpatrick (2007: 382), claims that '[t]he major problem for learners is that a native-speaker model is unattainable for the overwhelming majority of school-based language learners in expanding circle countries.'

to be creative with language and to use strategies enabling better comprehension is something that any NNS can do. Moreover, the only referents to which languagers can be compared are probably themselves or other NNS speakers. If we perceive them as languagers or ELF speakers, they are on a par with each other, at least when still in the classroom environment. After all, languaging needs to be learned not only by NNSs but by NSs as well, since it presents a different kind of use of language than ENL does. Thus, it is through languaging that NNS and NS can be brought together and, finally, made equal. This observation, once more, circles back to the connection between languaging and ELF, as Jenkins (2012: 487) also claims that ‘ELF (unlike EFL) is not the same phenomenon as English as a Native Language (ENL), and therefore needs to be acquired by L1 English speakers too.’ Although it must be admitted that NS, having English as their first language, thus being able to use it as a native language, might find the process of learning ELF, about ELF and about the related strategies, somehow simpler or smoother than NNSs, it is not claimed that they would be already equipped with such knowledge and skills only because they are native speakers.⁵⁴

In conclusion, languaging is a way of using a language that is very similar to the way ELF is used. Thus, we can claim that ELF speakers language and they are, in fact, languagers. Languaging has several important characteristics that are in agreement with the characteristics of ELF and that makes the two notions closely interconnected:

- i. The code used during languaging is viable to being reshaped as the speaker needs or the situation and/or interlocutors require.

⁵⁴ A whole different issue is whether NSs are prepared to learn anything about ELF in order to help NNSs in communication. On the other hand, recent research of Quinn Novotná, Grosser, and Dunková (2013) confirms that there are instances of NSs accommodating to their NNS interlocutors.

- ii. Languageing allows for making use of the whole spectrum of linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge and skills a speaker possesses, thus, it enables them to exploit their resources as much as possible.
- iii. Languageing is not norm-oriented.⁵⁵
- iv. Languageing can be learned by everybody, not only NNSs of a given language.
- v. Learning to language presents a realistic goal at which a student can aim without the fear of never reaching it.
- vi. Languageing can have a very positive impact on the motivation to use a foreign language as well as it can dilute or dispel completely the stress factor often connected with communicating in and learning an L2.

4.2.3. Virtual language

It has been already stated that both ELF and languageing give rise to forms of language that, from a certain point of view, could be considered non-standard. While this is true, it also seems legitimate to claim that such non-standard forms are still, crucially, in English and they are possible to be recognized as such. Therefore, the question arises why it is so and how it is done that the employed language innovations and modifications are still, at least in most cases, in English without explicitly adhering to any agreed norm. It is obvious that there is a relation between ELF and other English varieties. The underlying reason for this, however, may seem quite unclear. The answer is that it is because of virtual language. Any language that contains variation, thus literally every living language, is also a virtual language. Widdowson (2003:28) explains this claim in the following way: ‘the language has the necessary phonological and morphological resources for making new words should the need ever arise – available as a potential/virtual presence in the code.’

⁵⁵ Termed in Sifakis (2006: 154) as N-bound.

Consequently, virtual language is the capacity behind any variation of language use, whether it is ENL, ESL, EFL or ELF, or any other language other than English. It could be said that without virtual language there would be only one kind, or one variety, of any given language. However, this assumption can only be held if we claim that any existing representation of a virtual code is not its complete exploitation. As Chomsky pointed out, ‘any attempt to construct a finite set grammar for English runs into serious difficulties and complications at the very outset’ (1957: 20).⁵⁶ In other words, it seems that no language variety is able to use everything that is available in the virtual code.⁵⁷ That is the cause of different varieties of English emerging constantly. Each variety exemplifies only some of the aspects of the virtual language behind it. In this sense, another claim made by Widdowson (2003: 48) becomes extremely relevant, and it is when he states that ‘the encoded (standardized) language by no means exhausts its own resources.’ What is meant then is that the standard language, in our view the ENL, is only one variety of the virtual code and there is a vast potential for other varieties to emerge that may look, in some ways, very different than the standard form while still belonging to the same language. This situation then prepares ground for yet another claim posited by Widdowson (2003: 48) that ‘non-conformist usages are evidence for virtual language’ because they exemplify the ‘potential for making meaning immanent in the language which has not hitherto been encoded’. Thus, the fact that it is possible to take ENL and modify it into forms and usages that are unattested or considered deviant from the N-bound perspective demonstrates that there is such a thing as virtual language and that it presents a potential for creativity in a language. As virtual language is supposed to be the same for any variety of English there is an explanation for the seemingly non-random creativity that the ELF users have, so far, shown to employ. It may be the truth that ELF

⁵⁶ Chomsky (1966: 9–10) also stressed that ‘a distinction must be made between what a speaker of a language knows implicitly (what we may call his *competence*) and what he does (*performance*). A grammar, in the traditional view, is an account of competence.’

⁵⁷ See Firth (2009) on inherent variability of ELF.

is not following any ENL, or NS norms and rules, that, however, does not make it alien from English, since the norms that ELF, and all the other varieties, must be observing are not the ones of ENL but of virtual English.⁵⁸

This brings us to the discussion as to why the proponents of ELF deem it necessary to reconsider the notion of a *mistake* and substitute it for *innovation* (see section 3.2), especially when one considers ELF and not language used in classrooms.⁵⁹ Together with ELF users not being learners, what speaks for their speech to be identified as innovative, rather than erroneous is the fact that what is, actually, meant are NOT errors, as would be true if the reference code was ENL, but innovations, or modifications well within the scope of the rules of the virtual language of English. While most of the morphological, phonological, syntactic, semantic and other rules in the ENL may be the same as those of the virtual language, their scope, as it is defined in grammars, is definitely not all-encompassing. Thus, while an ELF speaker/language user may produce a lexical item that a NS would disregard as faulty because it is not attested in a NS dictionary, the morphological rules the speaker applied for the creation of such an item may be, and often are, exactly the same as in the ENL. What differs, is the application and the freedom with which the users can apply such rules.

In sum, a virtual language is a theoretical concept that appears to be underlying any given language. It represents the set of rules, assumptions, and recommendations that are constantly present behind any explicit use of language, e.g. speech and written communication. All varieties of a given language can be considered to be explicit representations of one virtual language. Those may be quite distinct from one another and each of the varieties may have a different

⁵⁸ For more on WEs and codification issues see e.g.: Jenkins (2009: 91-100), Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011: 296). For her take on codification of ELF see Quinn Novotná (2012: 200-1).

⁵⁹ For the origins of the term ‘innovation’ see Bamgbose (1998), Seidlhofer (2001). The following researchers propose reconsidering of the concept of a mistake: Breiteneder (2005), Cogo and Dewey (2006), Hülmbauer (2009), Pitzl (2009), Seidlhofer (2011).

linguistic and social status, but this does not seem to matter. Therefore it should not even be said that some variety of a language is ‘better’ or more serious than another only because it has been codified, and/or accepted as a standard. If we adopt the outlook that there is a virtual language and that there is a connection between any number of varieties of one language, then - in having a common referent – all those varieties become equal. Thus, when talking about ELF, it should not be judged according to NS English but according to general rules of the relevant virtual language. Then it is not difficult to understand Widdowson (2003:52) when he states that ‘English [ELF] [is] not a variety of one language anymore – (it is) a variety of a virtual code – a new kind of virtual code, (language)’.

4.2.4. Innovation

In the previous section we introduced the term *innovation* and claimed that it is widely used in the ELF discourse. It seems only appropriate to try to explain what this terminological discrepancy between ELF and other English varieties means and, thus, also prove why this distinction is believed to be necessary.

As mentioned above, it appears to be difficult to call language innovations *mistakes*, *errors* or *deviations* in a general sense. It is quite possible that in one sense they are exactly those, but in others they are probably not. This is why a different terminology was proposed and is being adopted at least by a part of the academia. If we, therefore, call something a *mistake* or *deviation* what we are doing is not, as often assumed, stating a general truth, but only comparing a given form or use of a linguistic item to the way it is used in the native variety. Many things ELF speakers produce really are errors, or deviations, if the only norms and models we would be

orienting to were ENL⁶⁰. If, however, we allow the existence of virtual language and see ELF communication as languaging, then it is hardly possible to regard unattested forms and usages as erroneous. When those are projected onto the ‘norms’ of virtual language, suddenly, it does not seem there is anything wrong with them. Put differently, as Seidlhofer (2011:108) presents it, ‘phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic innovations – all such innovations are unattested in StE but legal in terms of English phonological/phonotactic, morphological and syntactic systems.’

Thus, ELF innovations are normal, or standard, when it is possible to speak about ELF in its own right and not only comparing it to other English varieties, mostly ENL. It may be that NSs would protest against many of the usages and forms employed by ELF speakers, but the crucial point, as suggested repeatedly above, is that it should not be relevant. Seidlhofer (2011: 107) supports this view by observing that ‘innovations in ELF context might not be adopted by ENL speech community but they have been adopted by various other groupings.’ Consequently, such innovations are applicable and useful for some groups of speakers while not for others, as it is common with any other linguistic or social variety of a language. Moreover, it seems wrong to evaluate ELF innovations according to ENL norms because they are not claimed to come from ENL but from ELF. What follows is, as has been already proposed, that ELF and its innovations should be regarded as a language variety in its own right.

The last point that also should be mentioned regarding innovations are the motives of the speakers for using them. This is significant because it is another aspect that proves that innovations are not mistakes, errors or deviations. The main reason why ELF speakers, whether

⁶⁰ However, this does not mean that there are no learners and users who do not orient themselves towards the ENL as a model. They may wish to live in some of the Inner Circle countries, for example, and therefore they require substantial correction and aim at approximating to the NS model.

consciously or unconsciously, innovate is that they want to be understood. The comprehensibility of the message is the most important aspect in communication and it directs the level of innovation. This, clearly, cannot be said about the mistakes that are produced, for example, by a language student in a classroom as those are usually not meant to enhance the clarity of their message. Consequently, it is assumed that ELF speakers are not erring when using English the way they do, but they are innovating. In fact, they are exploiting the virtual code to its maximum limits in order to create, possibly, new and unattested forms in the native variety while trying to make the communication as easy and transparent as possible. Innovations are context and situation driven and that also means that they may vary significantly among speakers and situations, but still usually without abandoning the rules and directions of the virtual code.

In short, the terminological discrepancy between innovations and errors, mistakes, or deviations is necessary. It is necessary because without it we would be unable to describe the way in which ELF as a variety functions and we could not focus on the language its users employ. Naming language creativity as erroneous does not open any door to further understanding because it points back only to ENL and EFL approaches. Those, as we have seen, are not useful when considering the ELF paradigm because ELF and its innovations are not, or at least should not be, regarded as a defective version of ENL because, plainly, such a comparisons are unfounded (for more detail see House 1999, Sifakis 2004, Mauranen 2005, Cogo and Dewey 2006, Jenkins 2006, Phipps 2007, Widdowson 2008, Hülmbauer 2009 and 2011, or Seidlhofer 2011).

4.2.5. Language variation

If we look at innovations from the sociolinguistic point of view, then what we are actually discussing is language variation. Therefore, we consider it necessary to elaborate briefly on it in order to show what the relation between the two concepts is.

Although there have been claims that language may function as ‘a perfectly homogeneous medium’ (Sapir, 1949: 10), quite early on, it has also been recognized that ‘[n]ew cultural experiences frequently make it necessary to enlarge the resources of a language’ (ibid). In the case of ELF it may be the global use of English and its adoption by a significant number of NNSs that caused the need for higher creativity in the language.

The fact that language is, in reality, a highly heterogeneous entity has been recognized, among others, by Labov (1972) and Chambers (2009). Labov (1972: 203) reveals that ‘we have come to the realization in recent years that this is the *normal* situation – that heterogeneity is not only common, it is the natural result of basic linguistic factors.’ Therefore, he is stating that variation and variability of a language is inherent in its nature and he goes as far as to say that a perfectly homogeneous system would actually be the ‘dysfunctional’ one. (ibid).

Chambers (2009: 12) then confirms this by reminding us that ‘the fact that variation exists in language remains as obvious as Schuchardt and Sapir said it was.’ Thus, once more, he was supporting our idea that ELF innovations should not be regarded as anything unusual or deficient because they are ‘mere’ representations of language variation. Chambers (2009: 30) also provides an interesting comment regarding communicative competence when he describes it ‘as an entity independent of grammatical competence (and presumably the other organs of the language faculty).’ We understand this as him saying that not only is language variation a natural phenomenon but the fact that it may lead to grammatical modifications does not mean that it

hinders successful communication. This idea strongly resonates with language innovations and variation as viewed by the ELF paradigm.

5. Mistakes, goals and language teaching – an EFL/ELF contrastive study

The following section of the thesis focuses on comparative descriptions of relevant concepts as they are viewed by two paradigms of EFL and ELF. Such overview is necessary for establishing clearly the scope of the research and also for determining which aspects of the two paradigms will be closely examined. It serves as a framework for the kinds of questions asked in the survey and for setting the criteria used for the evaluation of the observed lessons. The descriptions are presented in a dichotomy and it is always the more traditional approach that is presented as the first one, or at least it is perceived as a traditional one in this work. The titles of each section inform about which variety and attitude is being examined. In the case of EFL, we present the descriptions as applying to both EFL and ESL because the concepts that are discussed are usually approached in the same way in those two paradigms. ELF approaches and attitudes are presented separately.

5.1. EFL approach to mistakes

Traditionally, mistakes are perceived as deviations from a norm.⁶¹ In the case of EFL (and ESL)⁶² it is the native speaker norm towards which the paradigm is oriented. Thus, to produce a mistake means that one diverts from the NS standard usage of a language. Usually, when speakers or learners produce such a mistake, they aim at correcting it or at being corrected by someone else. Therefore, the ultimate aim is to produce a mistake-free language that conforms to the language of NSs of the language.

⁶¹ See Figure 2.

⁶² For the purpose of this thesis the EFL and ESL paradigms are subsumed under one and labelled EFL. This is due to the comparison being mainly relevant between ELF and EFL and not between EFL and ESL.

Making a mistake is regarded as an opportunity for learning in the EFL paradigm⁶³. However, mistakes are not intended to stay in the speech, as already mentioned above; the goal is to eradicate them. If a student or a speaker of an L2 keeps producing a certain kind of a mistake over and over again then the feature of his language is considered to be in a fossilised state, i.e. the mistake is deeply rooted in the speaker's use of the language. Such cases are common to all levels of language users and learners, and in this situation their language is regarded, often by themselves, as being deficient compared to the language of NSs. As expected, it is native speakers who are the model users of English in this paradigm and their norms are the point of reference.

Creativity is possible and accounted for in the EFL paradigm. It is a norm-oriented kind of creativity, which means that students are taught how to form words, use synonyms and other strategies in the same fashion as NSs do. Creativity beyond this point is regarded to be erroneous, which means that, for example, in the case of word-formation, the learners study the productive processes that are used by native speakers. Students are also taught some rules about creativity, again, in order to conform to the native-oriented norm. This approach also suggests that the adherence to norm is crucial, hence accuracy of speech is strongly emphasised. Adherence to norms means comprehensibility with reference to the native users of the language, thus any non-adherence is potentially thought to inhibit understanding.

Swan (2011:62) provides a compact definition of the perception of mistakes in the two paradigms with reference to NSs as language models. Within the EFL paradigm '[utterances] are obviously incorrect – [when they] conflict with English grammatical patterns, and a native speaker, however tired or distracted, would be unlikely to produce similar utterances.'

⁶³ Similarly as it is regarded as a sign of learning in the L1 acquisition as discussed by Edge (1997: 13-17).

Thus, as stated above, the main point of reference are native speakers and the way they use English. It is not only when a NNS produces a mistake, as understood by EFL, that they are violating a grammar rule, they are also marking themselves as distinct from the NSs and that is undesirable in the EFL paradigm.

Swan (2011:70) further hypothesizes why it is that the EFL paradigm and its prescriptive attitudes towards language have been the major way of teaching and learning: '[p]rescriptive attitudes reflect people's instinctive desire for linguistic standardization, and this is clearly beneficial. A society will work more efficiently if all of its members understand one another easily, and the establishment of a standard language may be essential if this is to happen.' Swan seems to be somehow relying on the human psychology, when he claims that it is a natural desire and instinct for people to look for a system in a language. He also addresses a point mentioned earlier concerning the importance of establishing, and possibly also nurturing, a standard variety of language with the same rules for all its users since that is the best way to ensure clear and easy understanding.

5.2. ELF approach to mistakes

The ELF paradigm adopts a less normative approach towards the evaluation of mistakes. As presented in the section 4.2.4, some of ELF scholars have introduced a completely new terminology regarding mistakes in the language produced by its NNSs in ELF situations.

The general claim about ELF and its attitude towards mistakes is summarized by Seidlhofer (2011: 35) when she observes that some things may be incorrect only when judged from the point of view of NS norms. Thus, in ELF it is not the NSs and their norms that are the reference for language users. It seems that when this bound is broken, many linguistic features in the production of NNSs may not, or need not, longer be regarded as erroneous. Therefore, users

must have a different norm or referent to which they orient. We believe that it is the situation that dictates the norms and also the interlocutors who can influence the language quite significantly, both in style and in the (non-)adherence to norms. ELF is used to fulfil various functions in very diverse environments and with a great variety of participants. As Seidlhofer (2011:95) claims, ‘the linguistic features [function] as indicators of the various functions ELF fulfils in the interaction.’

Since the models and points of reference are considered to be different in ELF situations than they are in EFL, there arose a need to adjust the terminology as well in order to signal the distinctiveness of those approaches. Therefore, the term *innovation* has been coined by ELF-oriented scholars and has become a standard ELF term. Thus, what could be considered as erroneous by the EFL paradigm is, actually, considered to be innovative in ELF and, consequently, not undesirable. It is the users’ creativity that seems to be also reflected in this terminology. That would suggest that there is no distinction between ‘possible’ and ‘impossible’ creativity as in the EFL paradigm; any form created by NNSs that has a certain purpose is regarded as a creative one, it can be labelled as an innovation and is seen as absolutely legitimate⁶⁴. Another reason for the terminological change has probably been the fact that the term *mistake* is a very misleading one. The language user may be making no mistake by using an unattested form if the situation and the interlocutors require it. Moreover, the innovations ELF speakers produce are very often quite similar in ways. It is not any random words or structures that ELFers (English-as-a-Lingua-Franca users) would be changing, but they appear to operate, in most cases, according to a certain key. This key is considered to be found in the virtual

⁶⁴ Pronunciation Variations and Coinages (PVCs) is a label used for tagging creative forms in the VOICE corpus. For a more detailed account see Quinn Novotná (2012: 59) or VOICE Mark-up conventions at http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/documents/VOICE_mark-up_conventions_v2-1.pdf, accessed 20.12.2013.

language that is the connection between ELF and other varieties.⁶⁵ The virtual language ensures that most of the innovations ELFers produce are still in agreement with the virtual rules of English. As emphasized above, this does not mean conformity to the norms of the Standard – of NSs, as this is only one set of rules, in other words, a selection from the virtual language.

Lastly, the insistence on accuracy is not so prominent from the point of view of ELF. This is, possibly, connected with a different set of priorities the ELF users have. Seidlhofer (2011:35) states that ‘intelligibility depends on much more than on linguistic accuracy.’ Therefore, ELF does not comply with the claim of the other paradigm about accuracy being the essential factor for intelligibility and understanding. It appears that there must be something else than accuracy the ELF users focus on. This is closely connected with the difference between the EFL and ELF users’ goals that will be discussed in a later section. At this moment, the major point is that EFL and ELF approaches also differ in the value they place onto accurate production.

5.3. EFL language goals

In Europe, the explicit goals for TESL and TEFL are stated in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The framework provides reference for the abilities and skills⁶⁶ each level of an English learner or user should exemplify or be lead to when achieving the desired level. The goals, aims and abilities of each level are described from various points of view including general descriptions of abilities for every level, detailed analysis of the skills and knowledge needed at a particular level, expectations concerning accuracy, fluency,

⁶⁵ See, for example, the recurrent patterns found in different samples of ELF as reported by Jedynak (2011).

⁶⁶This is how English Profile research project describes Reference Level Descriptions which have been created for English: ‘Whilst the Council of Europe guidelines and the existing work of the T-series take a “horizontal” approach, focusing on each level separately, English Profile follows a “vertical” approach: it will concentrate on the description of learning goals in specific areas of the English language (e.g. vocabulary, grammar, language functions, etc.) across all CEF levels, using empirical data from learner corpora and curricula. Coverage is likely to evolve over time, and it is not envisaged that all levels will be described to the same degree from the beginning.’ See www.englishprofile.org, accessed 28.11.2013.

comprehensibility, creativity, and also from the point of view of the style or momentary situation and the interlocutors.

It is not always explicit that the framework takes native speaker norms and NSs themselves as the background for the descriptions. However, there are several instances of directly defining an aim or ability by referring to NSs:

UNDERSTANDING A NATIVE SPEAKER INTERLOCUTOR	
C2	Can understand any native speaker interlocutor, even on abstract and complex topics of a specialist nature beyond his/her own field, given an opportunity to adjust to a non-standard accent or dialect.

Figure 6: Example description of goals according to CEFR (CEFR 2001: 75)

Significantly, the example in Figure 6 also shows that CEFR falls into the EIL paradigm as it refers to a possibility of the language user to be in a situation when a NS uses a non-standard accent or dialect – therefore, allowing for variety within native English(es).⁶⁷

Although CEFR sets aims, goals and level characteristics for the whole paradigms it is essentially the basis for most of the teaching materials and it is usual to inform English teachers about the benefits of becoming familiar with the framework. Consequently, the aims and goals of individual classes and students are often formulated in a similar way. One of the divisions that CEFR uses is separating the language ability into four skills, this would confirm Widdowson's (1978:1) claim that 'aims of a language teaching course are very often defined with reference to the four language skills: understanding speech (listening), speaking, reading and writing.' It is assumed that the general experience of the majority of students and teachers is that the division of the focus on these four skills really is commonly applied to language courses.

Similarly, as in the case of the approach towards mistake, the two paradigms place significant value on accuracy, and define aims in terms of accuracy as well. A word commonly used is *grammatical*, referring to the kind of production that is desirable for NNSs to make. In

⁶⁷ For more discussion on this issue see e.g.: Quinn Novotná (2012: 29-30).

using such a term the framework implies a bottom-line set of rules that determine the notion of grammaticality and according to which each utterance can be evaluated. Since there is an overall sense of regarding the Standard Native English variant as the referential one and the NS as the key model, it can be assumed that the set of rules and norms is, essentially, the native-speaker one.

5.4. ELF language goals

The nature of defining goals in the ELF paradigm is somewhat different. The first criterion that needs to be acknowledged is, as Seidlhofer (2011:54) notes, that ‘people who intend to use English as a world language have different goals than learners of other foreign languages.’ This already suggests that there should be a discrepancy between the goals of this and the EFL paradigm. Basically, it can be claimed that the crucial difference between EFL and ELF goals is in the background that motivates their formulation. While in EFL it is the native-speaker norms that are in the background, in ELF it is successful communication and communicative ability that are key. This claim is explained by Hülmbauer (2007: 09) when she says that ‘speakers choosing lingua franca for communication seek pragmatic clarity – communicative efficiency and grammatical correctness are not taken as being in a straightforward relationship whereby the former can be guaranteed by the latter.’ Thus, the main overall aim or referent towards which users of ELF and the paradigm itself orient when setting any goals is communicative success based on efficiency and clarity. It is not, however, expected that those will be achieved only by adherence to NS norms and by adherence to correctness, or accuracy. Since EFL regards accuracy very highly, we can see a second significant contrast between the ELF and EFL paradigms. In ELF, accuracy is not perceived as a core element of efficient and successful communication and, therefore, it is not emphasized as a key goal. Such view is supported by Alptekin (2007: 267) when he observes that ‘a goal is for students to

communicate intelligibly – involves a reasonable degree of accuracy – but should not prioritize accuracy at the expense of communication.’ Consequently, it seems that instead of the insistence on accuracy, it is the insistence on intelligibility that strongly characterizes the approach of ELF towards goals.

A goal which is also strongly emphasized in the EFL paradigm is the use of language for communication. However, it appears that both those approaches and ELF tackle the issue in a slightly different way. EFL claims to see learning language for communicative purposes as a very desirable goal and CEFR highlights the importance of teaching and using English actively and communicatively. Still, there is an expectancy of being communicative according to what is standard for NSs. In other words, students and users need to use the language for communication in the same way as NSs do. That differs in the ELF approach. As Widdowson (1978: 15) points out ‘it is not very satisfactory to speak of the aims of a language course in terms of the ability to speak, understand, write and read the words and structures of a language. We might do better to think instead in terms of the ability to use the language for communicative purposes.’

Despite the fact that Widdowson had individual courses in mind we assume that it is possible to generalize this claim to the whole ELF approach and goals. Widdowson appears to imply that it is not the perfect and correct knowledge of forms and skills as they exist in the native language that makes up a relevant and useful aim. It should be the desire to communicate successfully that directs the setting of goals. We understand this as a call to introduce the interlocutors and the situations in which English is used when setting a goal both for learning and using it. Thus, when students prepare for an environment in which interactions will be happening with interlocutors that do not expect any adherence to NS norms of English this should not play a crucial role in determining and describing the goals the students need and want to achieve.

5.5. EFL and language teaching

Based on the previous characteristics of some of the key concepts each of the paradigms, or approaches, we try to sketch a rough overview of how EFL appears to treat language teaching.

Generally, language teaching, the training for it, planning and execution evolve around the fact that ESL and EFL are N-bound paradigms and everything should be directed at acquiring or nearing a NS-like competence. Thus, the reference and the language rules used in the classroom and taught to the students are focused on learning as close version to the Standard as possible. It is necessary to stress that only a close version is possible to achieve since acquiring a completely native-like ability to use a foreign language is usually considered as unattainable (e.g. Kirpatrick 2006).

Moreover, it is common that the language the students use in the classrooms or anywhere else while they are still active participants of the learning process is not the same language as the final form for which they are striving. One point is that there may be a varying number of deviant forms in such language, and as it was mentioned, those should be eradicated before the ultimate goal is reached. Selinker (1972: 35) mentions another significant aspect of this distinction between learner and non-learner language. He calls attention to the term often used for the language of learners and provides a brief explanation of it as well: ‘[i]nterlanguage – a separate linguistic system of a learner that differs from the system of the native speaker of the target language.’

This brings us to another important concept in the EFL paradigm, that of the native speaker (NS). The students in English courses that are EFL methodology based aim at making the students skilled in being as native-speaker-like as possible and the methodology, activities and also tests are all influenced by this. It is explicitly acknowledged that the status of the

student in the classroom is one of somebody who is only practicing a language and who is preparing and polishing it in order to be used in the real world. If this process is successful the learner, who becomes a user, of the language should be able to produce the foreign language as if they were a native speaker. Thus, norms and rules are openly native-based, creativity is allowed only up to the point where it is identical with the creative processes employed by native speakers, communicative ability is practice in order to be able to interact with native speakers and being able to do that is seen as one of the greatest and most desirable achievements; mistakes can and are used as means for learning from one owns production but, essentially, they are to be eliminated and the production of the foreign language should become mistake free, or in other words, completely native-like.⁶⁸

5.6. ELF and language teaching

As in the previous section, according to the characteristics of the ELF paradigm some general statements can be said about pro-ELF language teaching practices. What such language instruction aims to provide for students is quite similar to an observation made by Kramsch (1998: 27) about what is really important when one tries to evaluate a competent language user: ‘Not the ability to speak and write according to the rules of academy (...) but the adaptability to select those forms of accuracy and those forms of appropriateness that are called for in a given social context of use.’

Thus, teaching that bears ELF in mind, needs to offer the student a variety of levels and approaches to accuracy and appropriateness of the language and explain how to use them in relation to the communicative situations (CS) and interlocutors. Consequently, it is not one kind of norms and models that the pro-ELF teaching should be focusing on but it needs to foster a full

⁶⁸ Although it may also be problematic to claim that NSs always produce completely mistake-free and accurate language.

repertoire of them for the students to use it when it is necessary. Any variety of English that may seem unattested in comparison to the Standard or forms that may be considered deviant by native speakers also belongs among those. It may be important for the students to know when it may be useful to actually adhere to native-speaker norms of English, but the important factor is that this is not considered to be the only correct way in ELF teaching.

Not surprisingly, the concept of interlanguage is not used in the ELF paradigm and any kind of language at any level and given point is considered to be a legitimate in its own right. This is caused mainly by the fact that it is usually not compared to anything, or not, at least, to the way another variety of English looks and is used. Instead, it is commonly projected onto the situation and the participants. As it follows, the appropriateness of any code used is judged according to them. In this way NNSs are no longer seen to be on a lower level than NSs and their language skill are no longer perceived as deficient. That allows for other cultures and norms than the NS ones to be brought into the classroom and possibly used as resources for learning. As pro-ELF teaching methods should prepare the users for using the language in multiple settings and with a wide range of people it almost becomes cultural education as well^{69,70}. It is not only the native culture of the foreign language, in this case English that is considered to be relevant. Other cultures, of the students, the teachers, the expected interlocutors and environments can be discussed and used as resources. This opens many possibilities both for the teacher and the students in choosing what to focus on and what can be taught and taught about. Generally, we could claim that the greater variety and diversity the better. It seems natural that the more

⁶⁹ Multicultural approach is, for example, introduced by J.A.Banks in *An Introduction to Multicultural Education*, (2008).

⁷⁰ Sifakis also devised a term English as and Intercultural Language – regarding English not as being international but mainly intercultural. He also distinguishes between N-bound teaching approach which prioritizes regularity, codification and standardization (2004: 153), and C-bound approach emphasising cross-cultural comprehensibility between learners as a communicative goal in itself rather than notions of accuracy and standards (ibid). However, it should also be mentioned that the cultural relations of ELF and the notions of N-bound and C-bound have so far been only theoretical concepts and they are still waiting for application.

resources a language user can use in production (including vocabulary, communicative strategies, international terminology, non-verbal behaviour, knowledge of any particular cultural characteristics), the higher their chance in achieving successful communication is.

To recapitulate the theoretical part of the present study, first, the purpose of the research was stated together with three major hypotheses (section 2). We also explained why it was vital to study ELF, as well as, its relation to mistakes, or modifications, and to teaching practices (section 3). This was followed by terminological overview as we felt it necessary to establish ELF, as opposed to, or next, to EFL and describe its situation around the world and in the Czech Republic (section 4.1). We also instantiated and elaborated on the key terms that are highly significant for the focus of our research (section 4.2). Lastly, we contrasted the key concepts and how they are understood and perceived by the two EFL and ELF paradigms (section 5).

In the following part we move over to the empirical research itself generally introducing the methodology used and explaining our motives for employing it (section 6.1). Next, more comprehensive portrayal of the methods and subjects of the quantitative and qualitative components of the study are provided (sections 6.2 and 6.3). The pilot study and its analysis that lead to the final quantitative research design is also introduced and described in a quite detailed way (section 6.2.3) within the subsection covering the quantitative inquiry. Finally, the research findings of both parts (quantitative and qualitative) are presented, cross-referenced (section 7) and discussed (section 8), with the work being completed by conclusions deduced from the data obtained and echoing our initial hypotheses (section 9).

6. Research project

6.1. Methodology

6.1.1. Introduction

In the present study, we decided to gather data using mixed-method research (see Creswell, 2003: 208) combined with features of a descriptive research (see Dörnyei 2007: 209, Chui 2007: 50, Singh and Bajpai 2008: 171, Stangor 2010: 14, Gravetter and Forzano 2012: 363, Johnson and Christensen 2012: 366). The research comprises of a quantitative component represented by online questionnaires and of a qualitative component ensured by in-class observations. Although the study sets as its goal to test several hypotheses and to answer a set of research questions it is, essentially, a descriptive research study as it, generally, aims at capturing the current situation of learner goals and their approach to mistakes in relation to EFL/ELF in the environment of private language schools in the Czech Republic. This chapter explains the motivation for using the mentioned kinds of research methods; it introduces the selected group of respondents and provides basic theoretic background influencing the research design.

6.1.2. Quantitative study

We wanted to collect a sample of at least 100 respondents and, therefore, we decided to collect this data by the most convenient and economical method, i.e. by online surveys. This method is both affordable and it is also beneficial time-wise as we decided to use an online platform used for carrying out the survey which allows analysing large sets of data without any need of transcribing the answers, the SurveyMonkey. We selected the named platform because it offers a free trial version, and therefore we were able to test its suitability for our research. A second major reason was because the paid version provides very sophisticated software for data analysis and cross-referencing.

The sample of questionnaire respondents consisted of students and former students of English language courses at private language institutions in the Czech Republic. The respondents were selected through convenience sampling in which, as characterised by Weathington et al. (2010: 205), ‘the individuals’ behaviour determine whether they could become a part of a study sample’. Thus, it is not, as in the case of random sampling, a situation in which all the members of the population would have the same chance to participate. In this case, the behaviour of the respondents that determines participation is whether they are or were English students at a private school. The convenience sampling was selected mainly because it enables to gather data from relevant respondents in relation to the content of the research. It was also the least difficult way to approach the potential participants through the schools (more detail see section 6.1.2, note 71). Thus, the convenience sampling presented a useful approach to obtaining the necessary number of participants. The majority of the respondents consisted of students who were learning English at the time of the data collection. This information is relevant when considering the size of the sample. As Dörnyei (2007: 99) summarizes, ‘in the survey research literature a range of between one per cent to ten per cent of the population is usually mentioned as the magic sampling fraction, with a minimum of about 100 participants.’

According to the report of the Czech Statistical Office (Statistická ročenka České republiky 2012: ‘23 Education’) concerning the number of students enrolled to study English at the private language schools in the Czech Republic, 8 340 students of English in the school year of 2011/2012 (the number of potential participants of the research). Thus, when we consider the size of our quantitative sample to be 230 participants we arrive at a portion of 2,76 % of all the members of the target audience. In this respect, it appears that the size of the sample allows us to

consider those quantitative results to be relatively generalizable onto the whole population of students of English at private language schools⁷¹.

The quantitative part of the research consisted of an online questionnaire distributed by contacting a number of private language institutions⁷² which then shared the web-links with their students. The questionnaire was offered in Czech to ensure complete understanding by the respondents. Originally, however, the questionnaire was designed in English.⁷³ The survey consisted of 12 questions with various question design that will be discussed in detail in section 6.2.2.

6.1.3. Qualitative study

Through the research we also intended to address the issue of the quality of the data, in other words, the quantitative data sample provides only limited possibilities of data analysis and data depth. Thus, to collect more in-depth data we decided to organize a small number of observations in order to compare them with the results obtained from the surveys.

The second half of the research consisted of 10 hours of in-class observations at the schools where some of their students participated in the first part of the study, the questionnaire survey. To ensure comparability of all results, the observations were conducted according to an

⁷¹ The reported overall number of students reported by the Statistical Office should not be considered exhaustive. In order for it to be fully informative it would be necessary to determine the method of counting of the students – e.g. whether the office contacted language schools or only a random sample of them. It is also possible that private freelance teachers were not covered. Thus the number provided is the only official count of English learners at private institutions that is available.

⁷² The language schools were contacted by e-mail, and some of them were contacted in hope of cooperation due to previous work experience of the author in them. However, none of the author's previous employers (three schools) was willing to cooperate. The number of schools contacted was 39, and 8 out of them agreed on participating in distribution of the questionnaire links to their students through mass emails or by sharing it on their official Facebook page and asking their students to fill the questionnaire in. The rest of the schools either did not reply to the request for cooperation or they refused it. The names of the institutions that consented to participating in the research are not disclosed as it was negotiated for them to remain anonymous.

⁷³ The original English pilot study version and the revised Czech version for the study proper may be found in Appendix 1 and 2, respectively.

original observation sheet devised specifically for this research (see Appendix 3). Each observation followed a standardised procedure as specified in the observation sheet and focused on lesson aims, students' needs, norms, accuracy, languaging, the lesson content and language resources, thus, determining the evaluated criteria to be analysed.

6.1.4. Mixed-methods approach

The two research methods used in this study has been selected for satisfying two complementary aspects of data collection. The first one is the amount of data collected, and the possibility of generalisation of the results that is connected with it. The second one concerns the quality and informative value of the data.

As Chraska (2007: 163-164) observes, there is one drawback that is commonly named in connection with questionnaires used for research, and that is they do not serve for collecting data about what the respondents are really like (pedagogical reality) but how they see themselves (or the pedagogical reality), or how they would like to be seen by other. Thus, by using questionnaires it was impossible to gather 'first-hand' information because the answers were always subjective, thus, they were influenced by the respondents' points of view or desires.

Consequently, we also decided to employ a second method, this time a qualitative one, and gathered data during our classroom observations as well. In this way the current research could be characterised, according to Dörnyei (2007: 173), as 'QUAL + QUAN' mixed-method research model. More exactly our research can be described as 'combining self-report and observation data' (ibid.) and as such, the research design enables us not only to self-report but also the data collection 'through external observation of the individual' (ibid), thus, without their personal bias. In this way, the attitudes of the respondents, in our case learners (and possibly users), can be compared with the classroom reality. We hope that such a comparison allows us to

gather sufficient information to sketch an accurate image of the current situation of learning and teaching at the private language schools in the Czech Republic. Detailed accounts of the design of both our questionnaires and the observation sheet can be found in sections 6.2.2 and 6.3.2, respectively.

The results from the questionnaires and observations are compared and contrasted in order to form an informative picture of the Czech students' attitudes towards learning goals, language mistakes, or innovations, which can be also referred to as modifications, and related to the two paradigms of EFL and ELF. Finally, a summary description of the current situation is provided and possible implications for further research are suggested.

By conducting the above described research we hope to add to the information bank created by EFL and ELF related researches so far and we also help to uncover learner attitudes and opinions towards learning English. We consider such data relevant for determining future needs of EFL and ELF related research in the Czech Republic; they can also be valuable for English language students, teachers and methodologists. When selecting the content of lessons and courses and also the form of delivery, it is important to consider learner goals and attitudes towards language so that they can be offered them suitable services. We hope this research could be novel and revealing in this respect.

6.2. Quantitative study

6.2.1. Respondents

The subjects of the study were English language students attending public courses at various private language schools in the Czech Republic. It was assumed, also from the personal experience of the author as a language teacher at such institutions, that the majority of the respondents would be of Czech nationality or, at least, living in the Czech Republic for a significant amount of time in order to be able to answer a questionnaire designed in Czech. Moreover, even if some of the students in the courses were international, it would not disrupt the results in any way as the present study, first and foremost, intended to record and describe an **authentic** state of affairs among the students of English in the private language schools. Consequently, if the reality was that there was some portion of the students originating in other countries than the Czech Republic then their contributions were considered valid and relevant as well.

The focus group was selected by convenience sampling (see Dörnyei 2007: 99). There were 39 institutions approached altogether and they were the first private main-stream language schools returned by Google search engine. In fact, in the first round the author contacted 17 language schools and when the return was low I decided to research online contacts for at least the same number of institutions. Thus, eventually, a reminder email was sent out to those who did not reply back to my first notice and approached 22 new subjects that I did not write to before.

There was no age limitation of the focus group and, basically, whoever was frequenting the courses of the contacted institutions could participate in the study. The questionnaire was written in Czech in order to ensure maximum understanding of the respondents. The responses were collected through help of the language schools who were asked to approach their students,

via e-mail or in lessons, and ask them to complete an online questionnaire. The participation was completely voluntary and there was no means by which the author could influence which students would and would not partake in the research.

Additionally, a Facebook group was created inviting Czech students of English at language schools to fill in the questionnaire as well. It was estimated that about one quarter of all the respondents⁷⁴ to the survey was contacted through Facebook. While it may be questionable whether the participants found on Facebook were truly authentic current students, this method of recruiting respondents was employed in order to enhance the number of participants. We hoped to collect a vast amount of data to be able to generalize about this particular focus group. The Facebook page also explicitly stated that the inquiry was intended strictly for current students. If, during the analysis, some of the open responses suggested that a participant was not, actually, studying English at the moment, then, for the sake of reliability of the results, their answers were eliminated.⁷⁵

6.2.2. Methods

As already stated, the questionnaire was administered through an online survey and analysis platform SurveyMonkey (viz. section 6.1.2). In the current subsection, we discuss the design of the questionnaire and motives behind it in more detail.

Out of the twelve questionnaire items the last question was formulated so as to collect demographic (sociolinguistic) data. This question was not placed initially since according to Chraska (2007) and Dörnyei (2007) it is recommended to include the factual and demographic

⁷⁴ There is no means of determining exactly how many respondents participating were contacted via Facebook or through the schools.

⁷⁵ While the research was completely anonymous, therefore it was not possible to discover the identity of respondents with ambiguous answers related to their students' status, it was possible to track individual responses by the means of IP addresses used when connecting to the survey platform. The function of tracking answers according to a single respondent is part of the research platform SurveyMonkey.

information questions finally. Consequently, there were, in fact, ten content items and two factual items⁷⁶ as the first question was a disclaimer and the last one, as already mentioned concerned personal and linguistic details. The disclaimer was included in order to ensure that all respondents were aware of the survey being anonymous and they consented that their participation in the study was voluntary.

Among the ten content questionnaire items there were five varying kinds of scales and five multiple choice questions. All questions and scales were mixed up (Dörnyei, 2007: 111) in order to ‘create sense of variety and to prevent respondents from simply repeating previous answers.’ The scale items consisted of five-point Likert scales and semantic differentiation scales in ratio 2 : 3. The decision to use scales was made in order to gather more information than from closed-ended questions therefore, as Rasinger points out (2010: 62), ‘replacing the former “yes”/“no” option – but also [determining] the extent to which [the respondents agree or disagree with a statement, find it more or less important].’ Another benefit of scales was that each option on the scale can be given a number and, thus, it is relatively easy to quantify and ‘count’ the answers while still gaining more insight into the matter, as mentioned above.

The multiple-choice questions were used because it was proved by the pilot testing that they were efficient for obtaining data about students’ learning history and preferences. In order to give those questions more open-ended character ‘clarification questions’ (Dörnyei, 2007: 107) were included with all multiple-choice items and with some of the scale items as well. This was done in order to permit ‘greater freedom of expression’ of the respondents, especially, when relevant respondents’ comments could be expected.

⁷⁶ Dörnyei (2007: 102) classifies questionnaire items in a different fashion. He regards all items requiring the respondents to report facts about their demographics, socio-economic status, and language learning history as ‘factual.’ Then he distinguishes ‘behavioural’ and ‘attitudinal’ items examining what respondents do and what their opinions are, respectively. However, in our research it is more important that 10 questions related directly to the hypotheses while the 2 remaining ones were purely statistical.

It should also be remarked that the pilot study has shown the research design being, essentially, effective and efficient in the sense of gathering data pertinent to the research hypotheses and questions. However, there was one aspect that could not have possibly been discovered by the piloting as it was originally done with the questionnaires written in English. For the study proper we translated the final version of the questionnaire and that was then distributed among the potential respondents. Later, the analysis of the data showed that some participants may have had a slight problem with the wording of question 8, or more exactly, with comprehending the sense of the question. This issue is further discussed later in the section reporting changes applied to the questionnaire design after having conducted the pilot study (see 6.2.4).

6.2.3. Pilot study - language models, goals, attitudes

In order to test the question design of the main survey a small-scale pilot study was conducted. The essential aim of the pilot questionnaire was to see whether the respondents find the questions comprehensible and sensible. Moreover, the pilot questionnaire was done also to discover if the participants' answers can provide the desired insight into their attitudes, goals, and values connected with studying English. A variety of answers was expected to prove that the participants were forced to actually think about and evaluate their opinions and also that they have understood the question and the formulation of the given choices. Several of the participants were also approached and asked in person, whether they found the survey confusing or difficult in any other way. This is also significant for the design of the final product and together with the results from the pilot it will be also considered when finalising the survey.

6.2.3.1. Research background

The participants of the pilot study were students and former students of English as a Foreign or Second language, therefore, they either studied English primarily in their own country or immersed into a culture of an Anglophone country, in this case the USA. A small number of the students was also from the Czech Republic, as they were attending lessons of some of my former colleagues who agreed to help me with the pilot and asked them to fill in the online questionnaire. Nonetheless, the majority of the respondents were volunteers mainly from the University of Iowa, which I was attending at the time when the pilot study was conducted. They were primarily selected because the critical criterion was for the respondents to be a current or a former student of English language, foreign students at the University of Iowa fulfilled this condition, and it was much more convenient to ask students there than to try to gather the same number of respondents over emails in the Czech Republic.

In the study proper, we target mainly Czech students of English, hence, the main difference laid was that the respondents of the pilot study were of multiple nationalities. This should not skew the results in any relevant way, however. Also, during the large survey the participants will not be allowed to be former students, as it is one of the goals of this work to map the **present** situation in the Czech Republic⁷⁷. In the pilot study we did not insist on this condition since its main goal was to test the design and functionality of the questionnaire. The results from the pilot study may have certain relevance in relation to the overall issue of this thesis and we will attempt to place them into the context as well but the main contribution of the

⁷⁷ We believe that it would decrease the reliability of the results and not be up-to-date if former students participated too.

pilot questionnaire is not in the research data per se but in its ability to test the form and content of the survey.

6.2.3.2. Discussion of results of the pilot study

6.2.3.2.1. Age, gender and the level of English

The pilot questionnaire was accessed by 29 participants through an online research tool SurveyMonkey. One participant did not agree with the initial disclaimer question and four respondents did not continue with the survey after the disclaimer. Therefore, there were 24 participants who answered all questions in the pilot survey.

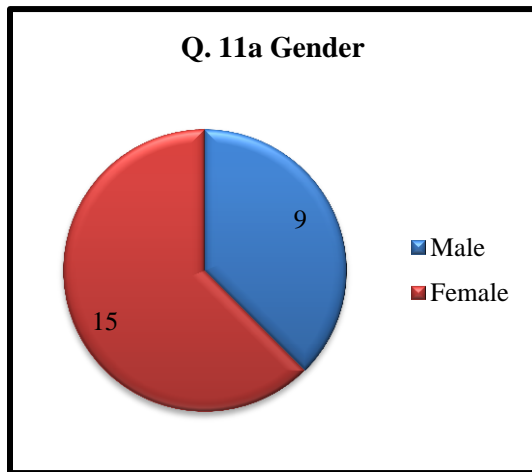


Figure 7: Q11a Gender

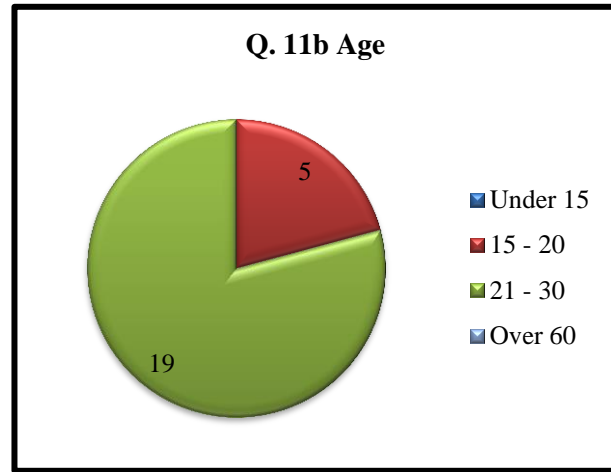


Figure 8: Q11b Age

In the set there were 9 males (37,5 %) and 15 females (62,5 %) and their age ranged mostly from 21 – 30 years old (19 participants, 79,2 %); 5 respondents were in the age span 15 – 20 years old (20,8 %).

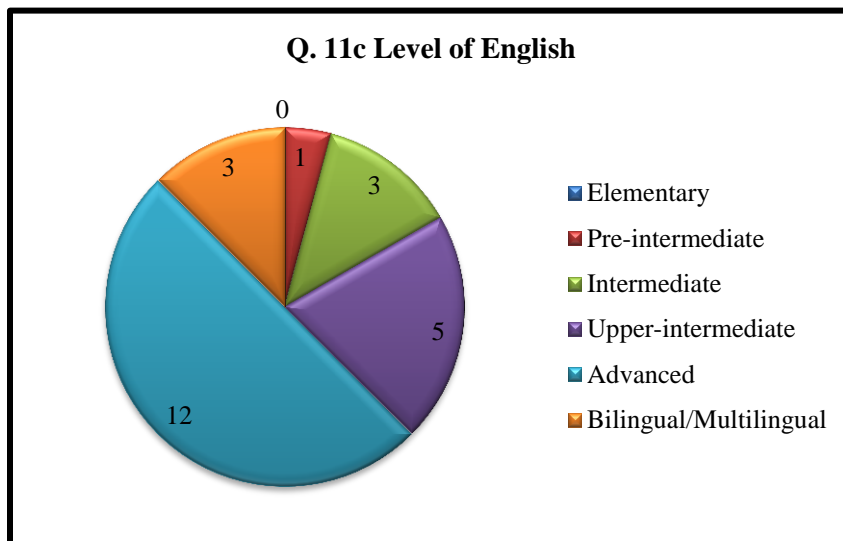


Figure 9: Q11c Level of English

The respondents were also asked to self-evaluate their level of English and the highest number reported being on the advanced level (12 participants, 50 %), next on the upper-intermediate level (5 participants, 20,8 %), on the intermediate level or bilingual / multilingual (3 participants each, 12,5 % each), and one respondent reported his/her level as pre-intermediate (4,2 %).

6.2.3.2.2. Goals for learning English

The second question of the survey, following the disclaimer, is the first question of a set concerning learner motivation and goals for learning English. The question is intended to show whether the students are, or will become, users of English mostly with native or non-native speakers, or both. The underlying motive for such an inquiry is to see which variety of English may be useful to learn for the students. If the audience of the learners was mostly NSs, then it would seem more appropriate to teach them some Inner-Circle (IC) variety of English⁷⁸ according to EFL paradigm. On the other hand, if the audience is expected to be international, it

⁷⁸ The choice of a specific variety may be influenced according to what nationality the NS interlocutors are. In this case, since the pilot research was conducted in the USA, we would expect that if the audience was, in majority, American, the variety suitable/convenient for learning would be General American.

may be worth considering teaching the students according to the ELF paradigm since it can be also assumed that the variety used in the interactions would be ELF, or ELF-like.

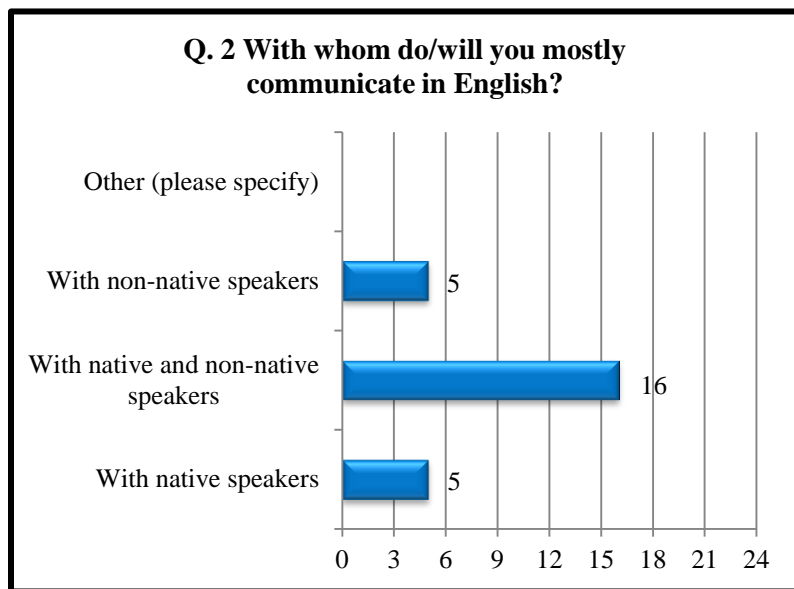


Figure 10: Q2 Common Interlocutors

Most of the pilot study participants state that their most common or most commonly expected audience would be both NSs and NNSs (16; 66,7 %). Therefore, if what they report can be regarded as realistic, it would suggest that a blend of approaches and methods from the two paradigms would be the most suitable choice. This may be relevant information about the situation among international learners and users of English between 15 and 30 years of age. That means that in this sense the results are not as relevant for the present study as it focuses on the Czech Republic. Nonetheless, it is important for the question design and it shows that the question about interlocutor constellations can be significant for selecting a suitable teaching approach.

6.2.3.2.3. Communicative situations

Similarly to Question 2, the third question provides information about the environment and situations in which the learners and users use or think they will use English. The significance of their answers lies in the fact that if teachers were to be better informed about their students' current or future use of English, they may be better equipped to select the best fitting teaching approach for them. It may also help to select with more precision suitable vocabulary, grammar and skills, as well as appropriate teaching methods and strategies.

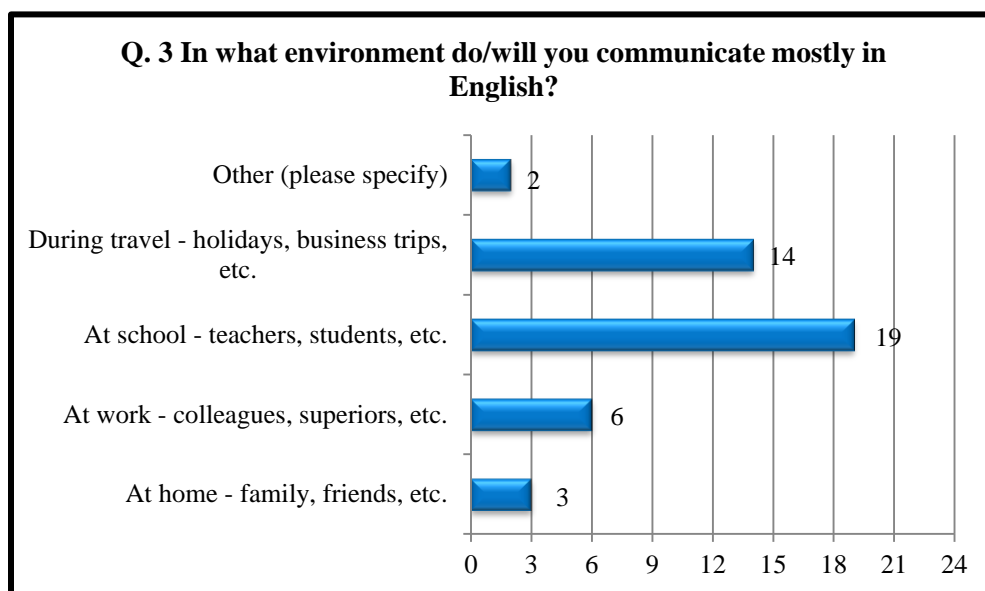


Figure 11: Q3 The Environment for Communication

The most common setting in which the pilot study respondents employ English is school (19, 72,2 %), quite closely followed by travel (14, 58,3 %). Home, work, and other settings were mentioned much less frequently. The result was not surprising considering that the majority of the respondents attended an English speaking university on a regular basis. However, if we were to draw implications for teaching based on such results, it would be important for selecting the grammar, vocabulary, level and style of the language instructions suitable for users who need the

language in the named environment; e.g. when the highest number of respondents uses English in school then the focus of learning could be mainly on ESP or EAP.

As in the previous question, this data is informative about an international group of students and users from 15 to 30 years of age. Although five of the respondents of the pilot were Czech, they were in a minority. Therefore, the main point is that the question can provide relevant information for the present study.

6.2.3.2.4. Language models

Question 4, unlike the previous two questions, is more directly and explicitly aimed at testing one of the hypotheses. Learners' models are extremely relevant to learners' goals and aims. They can also indirectly inform about the learners' and users' attitudes towards language modifications, as we may assume different attitudes from the NS-norm oriented users and from NNS or international varieties of English.

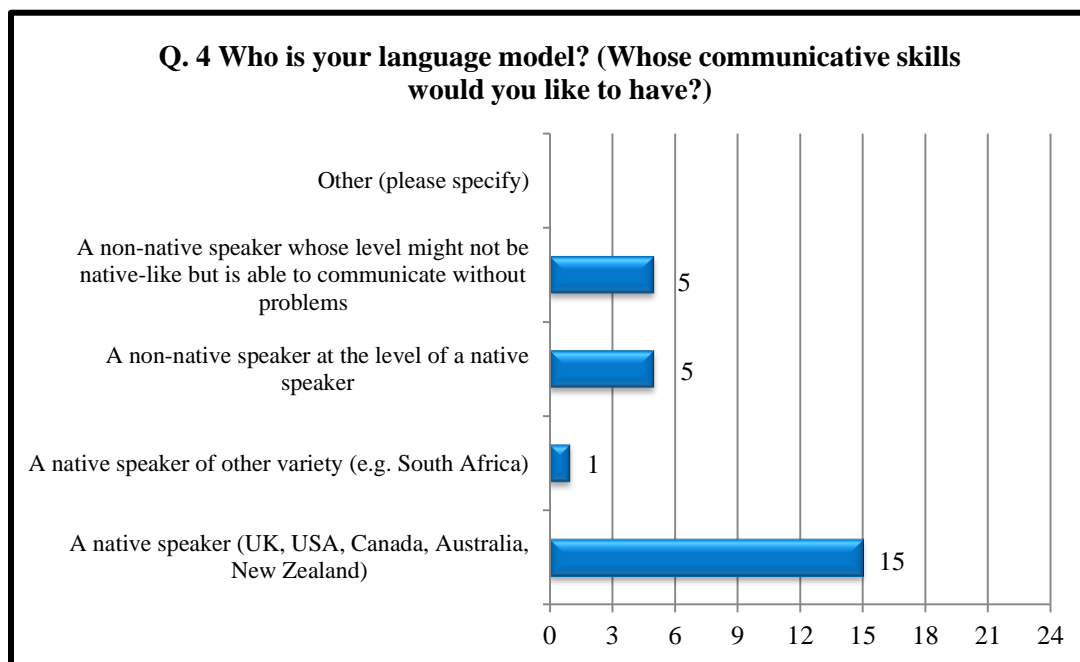


Figure 12: Q4 Language Models

The results of the pilot study show that the majority of the respondents, i.e. 15 (62,5%), still follows NSs of major standardized varieties of English as their models. Thus, they aim at obtaining a native-like or near native-like competence. Consequently, it could be hypothesised that they would be heavily oriented towards accuracy of their production. While the mostly preferred model of respondents is obvious, it appears that there is also another attitude, and that is the orientation towards NNSs as the language models. Altogether, 10 respondents (41,6 %) stated that their models are NNSs who are at least able to communicate effectively. While it is true, that half of the 10 respondents still want these NN speaker models to be at the level of a native speaker, it could be assumed that their tolerance to variation is higher than of the larger group. It would be interesting to pursue this matter further and examine whether this assumption was valid or not and toward which specific aspects of language the respondents show tolerance.⁷⁹ Nonetheless, as such investigation is too far from the scope of the present study we do not focus on it in more detail.

This may be informative for the teacher as it can explain some of the learner or user innovations or tolerance towards the creativity of the others. If we cross-reference the answers of the 10 NNS model oriented respondents with their replies in Questions 3 and 2, we can see that 8 of them (i.e. 80 %) answered their interlocutors are or will be both NSs and NNSs or NNs only. Also, in Question 3, in which it was possible to choose and mark one or more options, the most common environment of communication in which the respondents use or will use English was at school (8 answers), followed by travel (4). Altogether our 10 respondents provided 15 answers. This means that it is almost always the same respondents who show attitudes oriented towards interlocutors, situations and models which are also relevant for the ELF paradigm. Thus, those

⁷⁹ E.g. since the NNSs who have obtained advanced level of competence in English commonly still show traces of their native language phonetics and phonology would the respondents be more receptive towards variation in accents, intonation, stress and rhythm, or not?

participants show consistency in their answers which would suggest their orientation towards or usage of the ELF (functional) variety. Consequently, they may profit from being taught in an ELF oriented paradigm more than from the standard EFL courses, as they can be regarded as ELF speakers.

6.2.3.2.5. Learning motivation

Questions 5 differs from the previous ones because it is a scale question in which the respondents need to evaluate the importance of several reasons for studying English. The results in the table are presented as averages, thus, they show summaries of ratings each of the participants gave to every one of the reasons. In this case, the higher average a reason has the lower importance it received from the respondents.

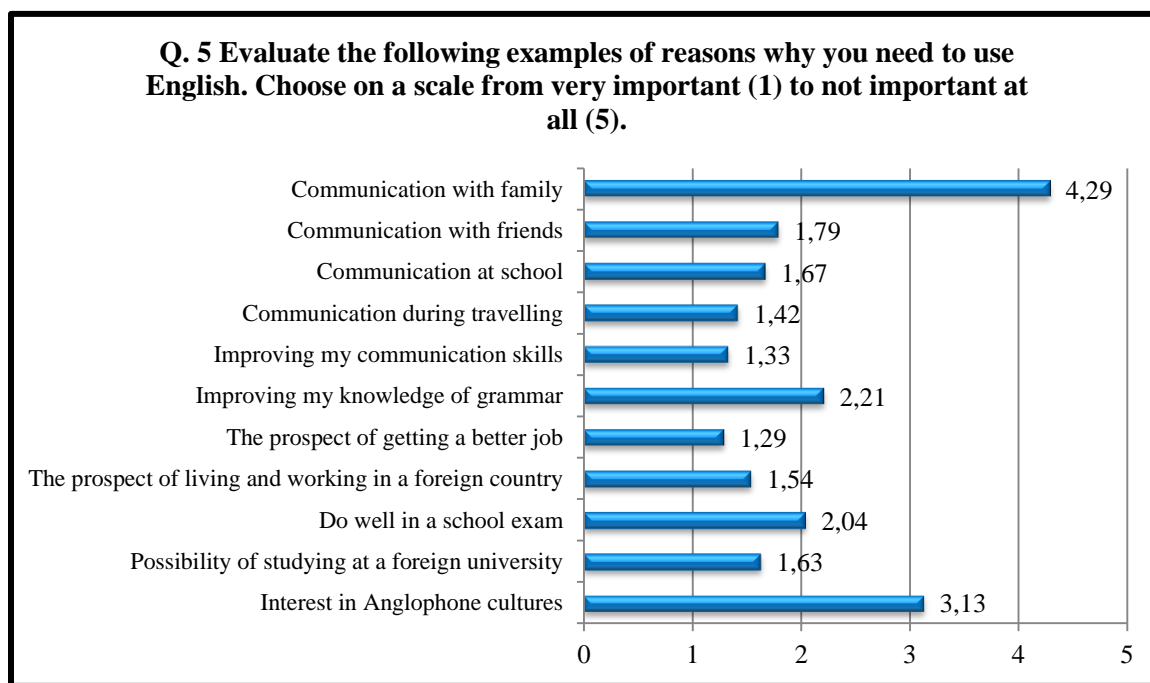


Figure 13: Q5 Learner Motivation for Using English

Figure 13 shows the results of the pilot study and reports that the respondents stress mainly the use of English in their real lives; e.g. for study, work, and travel purposes. Overall, the answers imply that the stress is on using the language in a practical way and on communication

(as ‘Improving my communication skills’ ranked the most important of all the reasons). It also may be interesting to point out that an improvement of knowledge of grammar was the third least significant reason for learning and using English⁸⁰.

This question is another one that provides information about the aims and motivation speakers of English have for using it. Once again, the responses can also be helpful from a practical point of view, can be applied practically, have a potential impact on course design such as evaluating the content of English lessons as the reasons for learning show where and in what situations the speakers are likely to use the language. The question could be also cross-referenced with the previous ones to see if the consistency of the answers of the apparently ELF oriented respondents holds here as well. However, as the results are not directly relevant to the main focus of this thesis this such comparison will not be performed. Nonetheless, it is important to see that the cross-tabulation of different questions may provide more relevant information as it proves the functionality of the question design.

6.2.3.2.6. Language goals

Question 6 presents very interesting results about the respondents’ language goals. The majority of the students aims at attaining a competence that is not strictly on the level of a NS.

⁸⁰ This may be especially suggestive if it could be concluded that ‘knowledge of grammar’ equals the respondents’ emphasis on accuracy. Nonetheless, such statement cannot be inferred as there are more aspects to accuracy than only the grammatical one.

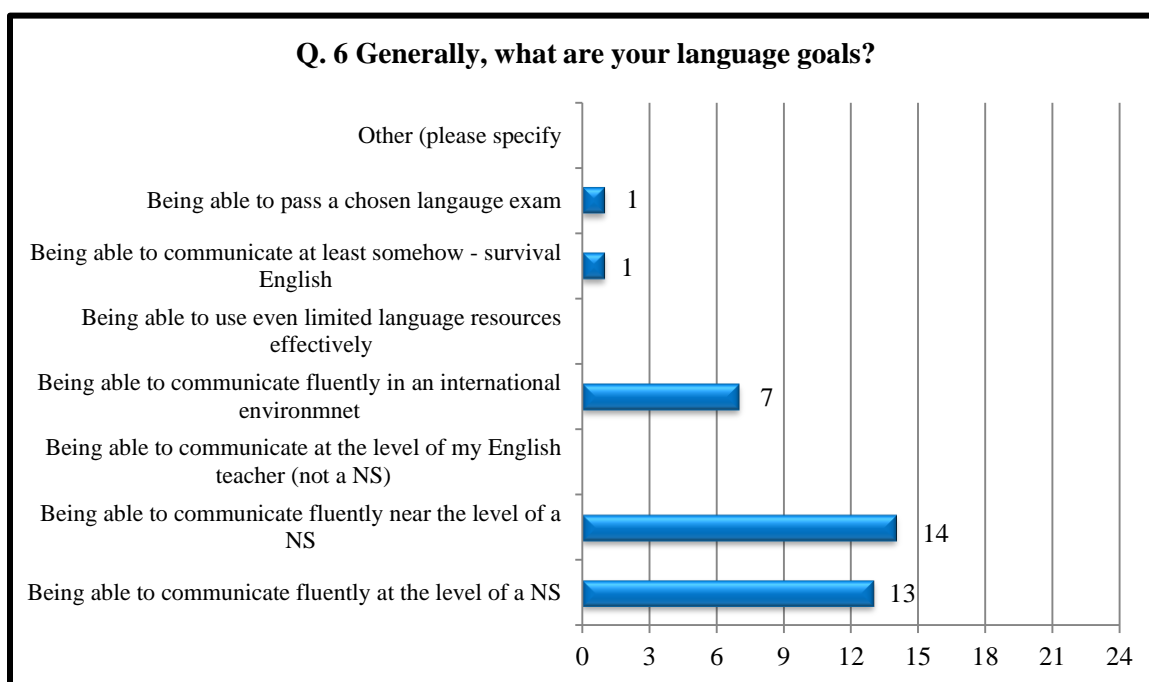


Figure 14: Q6 Language Goals

While the difference between native-like and near native-like may seem to be negligible, we consider it as a relevant one. Moreover, there were 7 respondents (29, 2 %) whose goal is to communicate in an international environment, thus, clearly not placing emphasis on native norm orientation. What is the most significant information provided by the results, is, however, that the question seems to be comprehended well by the participants and it can hence generate relevant and interesting results. Thus, it is also suitable for the purpose of this research as it aims at gathering information needed for testing another one of our hypotheses.

6.2.3.2.7. Accuracy versus fluency

Question 7 is expected to produce results that will inform us about the learners' and users' attitudes towards mistakes, innovations and language creativity. It is assumed that respondents who place emphasis on accuracy would be more norm-oriented than the other group. However, the piloting of the question could not ensure whether the respondents understood the two terms. Therefore, we considered including two short definitions of the terms or exchanging the

terminology for something more transparent. As far as the relevance of the question for the study was considered, it seemed to add to the data so far gathered because it addressed the first and third of our hypotheses stated in section 2.1. Consequently, the question was evaluated to be relevant for the research.

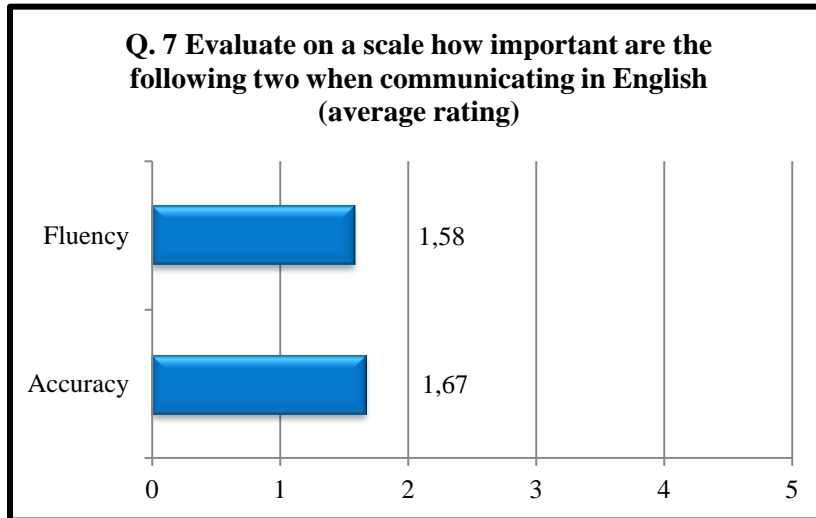


Figure 15: Q7 Accuracy vs. Fluency

From the pilot study it seemed, that the respondents favoured accuracy slightly more over fluency (higher the average rating, greater the value of fluency or accuracy for respondent). That appeared to be fitting to the picture which was emerging so far. The majority of the respondents were probably NS-norm oriented, but we also observed a developing attitude which suggested a pro-ELF orientation.

6.2.3.2.8. Evaluation of language goals

Question 8 is conceived such as to foreshadow what may be observed in the classrooms. In more detail, whether and how teachers determine learners' goals which should be in connection with classroom practices and with the goals the learning is assumed to lead to.

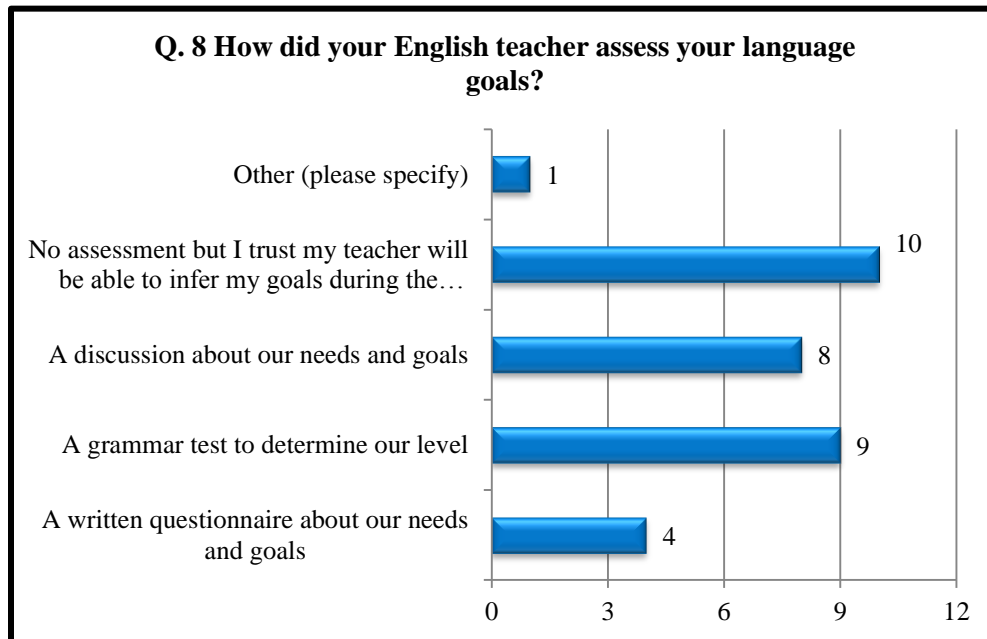


Figure 16: Q8 Evaluation of Language Goals

The majority of the respondents in the pilot report that the teachers either did not do any formal assessment or used a grammar test to determine the student' level which cannot be considered to be very informative neither of their goals nor the temporal framework during which they want to achieve them. This would suggest that the knowledge the respondents' teachers have or had about their needs was not gathered first hand or in a rather limited way. Such a situation could be regarded as representative for current public language courses and it could be expected that a similar state of affairs will be discovered in the Czech Republic.

Nonetheless, the number of respondents who seem to report having been subjected to a proper needs analysis, whether written or spoken, is not negligible. This would point towards the

teachers' aiming at determining sensible and suitable learning outcomes for their students and it could mean that the clash between the learners' and the classroom goals would not always be observed.

6.2.3.2.9. Attitudes to correctness and language norms

a) The relationship between goals, mistakes and innovations

The second last question was, again, aimed at mapping the respondents' opinions about their goals and language creativity and innovations. In the pilots study we decided to use the term 'innovation' instead of 'mistakes' in order not to presuppose any negative attitudes towards language creativity and languaging.⁸¹ Nonetheless, finally, for the main study, which was conducted in Czech, the term was abandoned. It was done simply for the reason of the low possibility of the respondents being able to distinguish between the terms 'innovation' and 'mistake'. The term 'innovation' was considered to be potentially confusing for the respondents. Consequently, a neutral term, 'modification' (in Czech 'modifikace') was employed that was not adopted from either of the two, EFL and ELF methodologies.

The question was a five-point Likert Scale⁸² and it is not only interesting to look at the averages (the higher the average, the higher the agreement of the respondents with the statement) but at the individual answers for each of the statements as well. It can show us how many responses the question yielded and what their distribution was. While average answers can provide overall information about the level of identification of the respondents with the

⁸¹ Somehow, Jenkins' claim (2009:51) was taken into the account that one very significant signs of international English was the ,right to innovate without every difference from a standard native variety of English automatically being labelled 'wrong:'. We found this relevant as we are surveying attitudes towards international English, its use and, possibly, teaching as well.

⁸² The Likert Scale was selected because it is more informative than simple Yes/No answers. It does not provide only the basic bipolar distinction between the respondents agreeing or disagreeing with a statement, but, similarly as mentioned by Litosseliti (2010: 62) there is additional information provided by the possibility to indicate 'the extent' to which they identify with the statements. Hence, allowing a finer differentiation between the respondents' attitudes.

statements, only the individual answers could possibly uncover any developing trend and it is also possible to identify and cross tabulate which answers and from whom were frequent. Thus, this question is a useful part of the survey because it allows several ways of analysis and it can produce different sets of data. It can also be cross-referenced with some of the previous questions in order to see whether the goals and opinions reported are consistent throughout the whole survey. Consequently, the overall reliability of the survey can be tested.

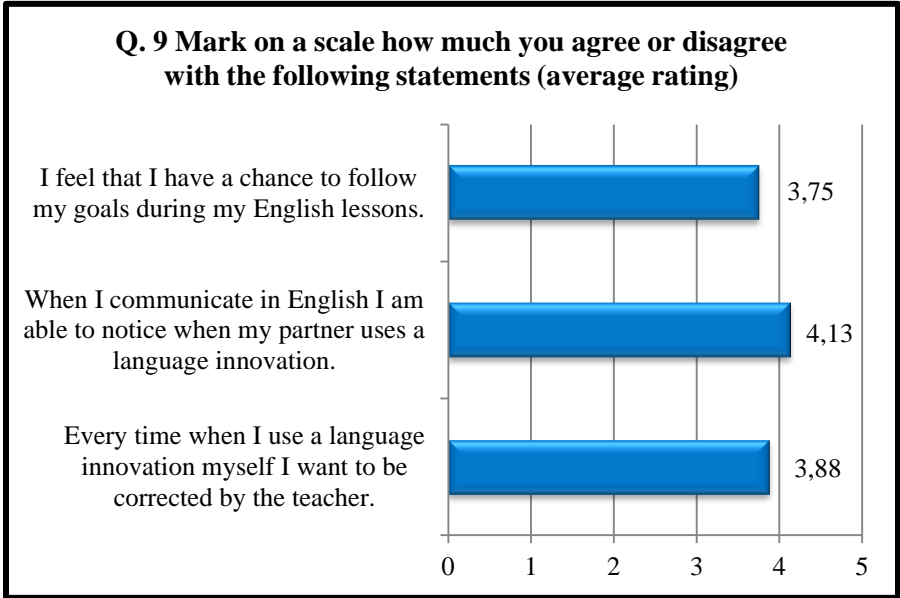


Figure 17: Q9a Goals, innovations, mistakes – average rating

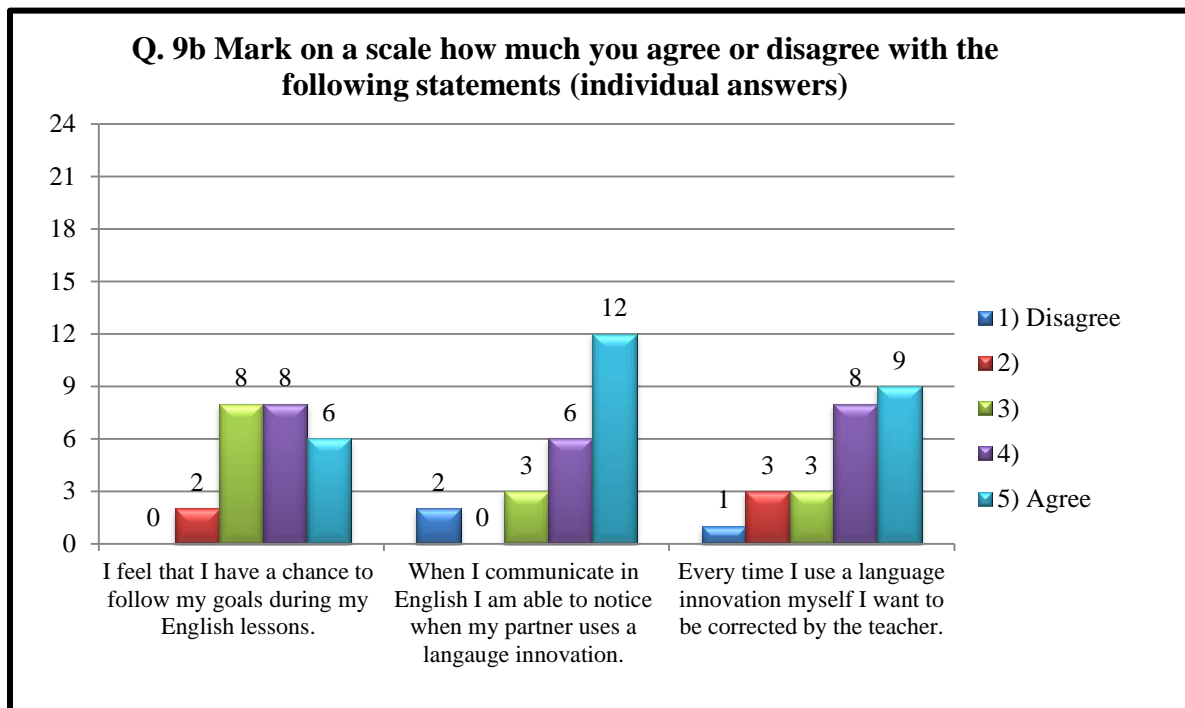


Figure 18: Q9b Goals, innovations, mistakes – individual answers

The results from the questions show that, in general, the respondents rather agreed with all three statements. The weakest agreement could be noticed in the case of the first statement which concerned the relationship between respondents’ goals and the possibility of attaining them as a result of classroom instruction. Interestingly, from the individual answers we can observe that quite a significant number, i.e.8 of 15 participants were on the brink of disagreeing with the statement (on the five-point scale they evaluated the statements as 3, thus, they neither agreed nor disagreed with it). Yet again, such a result can create certain expectations towards the planned classroom observations.

The next two statements in Question 8 contributed to the data set concerning the participants’ attitudes towards innovations. They asked them about noticing of innovations and also about the way they approached their own language creativity. It is disputable, whether the noticing factor meant less or more tolerance towards language innovation. Therefore, it was necessary to reconsider the wording of the question in order to disambiguate the results. The fact,

that 12 of the respondents claim they are able to notice modifications, cannot be interpreted either way – as a means of accommodation to the interlocutors (ELF-oriented), or as a sign of placing emphasis on accuracy (EFL-oriented). This finding influenced the design of the final version of the questionnaire as the participants were additionally invited to further comment on their attitudes (likes and dislikes) towards modifications and correctness. The last statement can, again, be examined during the observations as well and in the case of the pilot study majority of the respondents seem to place quite a lot of value on their own accuracy and expect the teachers to do the same. These points towards operating within EFL paradigm as the basis for teaching as it is N-bound and accuracy oriented.

Last, the question also included a possibility for the respondents to write comments about the way they like to be corrected. Such answers should provide more in-depth information about how much and in what situations the respondents want to be accurate. One of the participants of the pilot study reported that s/he likes to be corrected “(a)fter the end of my talk. Don't want to be interrupted” which appears to show a strong desire to communicate and to communicate fluently. It also diminishes the chance of every modification to be noticed by the teacher and thus it may mean higher level of tolerance towards creativity. Such an approach could, possibly, serve as an initial step towards the ELF paradigm.

b) Language preferences

The last question concerns attitudes towards N-bound norms in relation to the respondents' desire to express themselves.

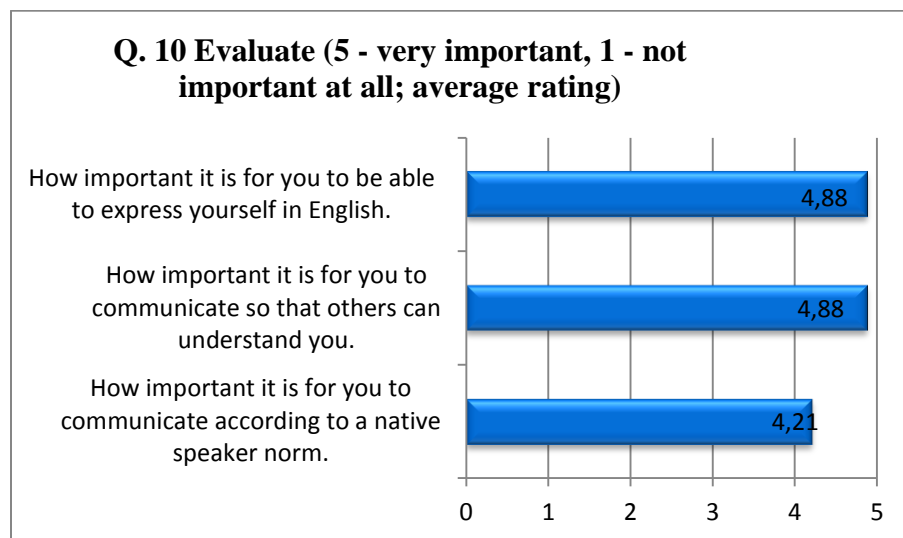


Figure 19: Q10 Language preferences

The results of the pilot study show that, while all of the three statements appear to be relevant for the respondents, it is the native speaker norms and communication according to them that is considered the least important. Hence, the results could suggest some level of tolerance towards variation and mainly emphasis on successful transfer of content. Once again, a cross-tabulation and cross-referencing with other questions could be performed in order to see whether the answers have been consistent. Thus, we could confirm or disprove whether there is an emerging pro-ELF orientation among the group of respondents. Nonetheless, such a conclusion would correlate with findings reported by Quinn Novotná (2012).⁸³ It was important to realize that such a varied cross-examination of data was possible as it was also used during the analysis of the data obtained from the full-scale study, and it can generate more in-depth information

⁸³ Her study reports similar attitudes towards variation and communication success as suggested by the data from our Question 10. However, Quinn Novotná examined those issues from the point of view of teachers, not students as it is the case in the present study.

significant for the testing of our hypotheses. It should, once more, enhance the reliability and validity of the whole survey.

6.2.3.3. Concluding remarks

In conclusion it can be said that the main function of the pilot study, to test the question design of the survey, has been fulfilled. Possibilities of cross-tabulation and cross-referencing of the individual questions have been discovered and certain issues with several of the question items were also observed. Therefore, the pilot study served as a basis for changes that needed to be made in the main survey in order to collect reliable and valid data useful for an in-depth analysis.

As far as the content of the results is considered, it has been stated at the beginning of this section that the results are not directly relevant to the study proper of this thesis as they do not represent answers of Czech respondents only. Thus, some development of pro-ELF attitudes has been marked but it cannot be yet evaluated whether the situation could be generalized to the chosen environment of this research.

6.2.4. Study proper

Having carried out the pilot study, the information obtained relating to the questionnaire design was reflected and there were several changes made to the final version. Then, the survey was translated into Czech and uploaded to the same online survey interface, SureyMonkey.

The modifications of the questionnaire concerned mainly the Likert scale point, originally Question item 9, as it was assessed that the one of the statements was thematically and conceptually unrelated to the other two (one focused on goals, the other two on language modifications and attitudes towards them). Thus, the item was divided into two separate ones, leaving the goal-related statement on its own and supplying an evaluative statement concerning

students' attitude to modifications used by others (for the final questionnaire design see Appendix 2).

Another possibly significant issue with the research design was discovered after the study proper was conducted. As it was mentioned in section 6.2.2 there was an issue with wording of the item 8. In the translation of the original we decided to use the word “určil” as an equivalent to the English verb “to assess.” While the sense of the question was clear to the author, some of the participants did not find it as obvious (for exact numbers see section 7.1). They comprehended the verb in the sense of “to decide” or “to dictate”, although, what was meant was really “find out” or, as in the English version, “to assess.” It should be acknowledged that this could have influenced the results of this particular questionnaire items as some of the respondents would, probably, have answered differently, had they understood the meaning of the question in the item as it was intended.

In the next subsection the details of the quantitative research design are presented, followed by a section devoted to the research findings.

6.3. Qualitative study

6.3.1. Respondent population

The subjects of the qualitative part of the research were students of one of the language schools⁸⁴ participating in the study. As it was already stated in the description of the quantitative data collections, it was not as simple as expected to attain language schools for participation in the research. In the case of the management of the in-class observations it was even more challenging to find a co-operative collaborator. Due to several unexpected circumstances surrounding the research progress, we were force to conduct all observations at one institution,

⁸⁴ In order to ensure anonymity to the participants of our study we do not specify any of the schools by their name.

which, however, proved to be a beneficial solution because it was convenient due to schedule negotiation and the data were considered suitable for comparison with the quantitative findings as the school took part in the questionnaire survey as well.

Once again, there was no restriction on the age or nationality of the respondent group, although during the pre-observation negotiations it was specified that courses dedicated specially to children and teenagers would not be of interest. Nonetheless, the age of the students present at the lessons was varying, and the range would be estimated somewhere between 17 and 65 years old. There was also no limitation of the nationality of the students, as it was expected that majority would be Czech.⁸⁵

What was, however, set before the observations began, was the minimal proficiency level in English of the students. It was considered necessary for the attendants to be at a communicative level in order to register and assess some of the aspects that were being examined (such as the teachers' treatment of mistakes, the learners' self- / other-mistake consciousness, whether the communication in the lesson seemed more accuracy- or fluency-oriented; for details see the observation sheet in Appendix 3). The minimal level of proficiency of the courses was set to B1 as this is the first level that, together with B2, is under the label of 'Independent User' in CEFR. Moreover, the framework also provides the following characteristics of a B1 user and their communicative abilities (CEFR: 24): 'Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.' Hence, it was presumed that users with such abilities would be able to produce more

⁸⁵ Especially since, there was no public information about any kind of international nature of the language institution under concern. Also, the management and the head of the English department did not supply any such information.

“authentic” language and not, predominantly, short, simple phrases and sentences, potentially, learned by heart.⁸⁶

6.3.2. Method

The decision to accompany the quantitative research with a qualitative component was made in order to supply facts that would not be reported through a third party, but which would be observed directly. In other words, it was felt as necessary not to base the whole study strictly on attitudes reported by respondents. Although, students’ attitudes were presented as the main focus of the research, it appeared to be beneficial to have some data from field that captured the actual students’ practices. As Silverman inquired (2006: 43): ‘And how do “attitudes” relate to what we actually do – our practices?’ It was also assumed that conducting a mixed-method research would increase its reliability and validity.

The observations were used in order to determine whether it was possible to conclude that the students’ behaviour in class concurred with their attitudes towards language learning, their goals, attitudes to mistakes, or modifications, and their corrections, as well as, students’ reported preferences for accuracy versus communicative fluency. The presumption was that the kind of comparative work between the data gathered through the two research instruments would provide more insight into the matter than only quantitative data would enable.

The selection of the institution where the observations were carried out was not random. First, the school belonged among those, whose students were invited to fill in the questionnaire.

⁸⁶ It is also important to realize, that nowadays ELF is being re-considered mainly as a functional variety, and it is observable in the communication of users, rather than learners. Consequently, there is, in a way, a natural need for participants who are at least somehow proficiency and/or fluent users and as such are able to carry some kind of communication. Similarly, the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) selected participants for recording as certain level of English, as they focused the corpus around ‘speech events.’ That criterion required respondents who were, actually, able to engage in one. (See: http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/page/corpus_information), accessed 18.12.2013)

Secondly, the institution was considered to be rather suitable for drawing comparisons since their attendees all fitted into the focus group of the study.⁸⁷ Nonetheless, it also applies that the whole research was sequential with the quantitative part and analysis being done before the observation study. Additionally, when considering the number of participants in the two components and the importance each was given, then our research could be considered to emphasise the quantitative method with the qualitative one being supplemental.⁸⁸

I conducted 11 hours and 15 minutes of observations altogether. In reality, this meant observing five different courses for 135 minutes each. The courses were of varied levels (B1 general English, B2 general English, FCE preparation, C1 general English, CAE preparation) and they were taught by four different teachers. The B1 and B2 was taught by the same person, a Czech teacher, while the FCE preparation, and C1 general English course were taught by a different teacher each, however, both of them being Czech as well. Lastly, the CAE exam course was led by a native speaker of Standard British English. Overall the author observed 41 students who participated in the lessons and they were divided in the following way:

Course	Number of participants	Teacher's nationality
A) B1 General English	13	Czech (NNS)
B) B2 General English	8	Czech (NNS)
C) FCE Exam preparation	5	Czech (NNS)
D) C1 General English	4	Czech (NNS)
E) CAE Exam preparation	11	British (NS)

Figure 20 Participants and teachers at the observed courses

The situations and behaviour which were observed were recorded by means of field notes which were written into a prepared semi-structured observations sheets (see Appendix 3). Those

⁸⁷ As instantiated by Creswell (2003: 185): ‘The idea behind qualitative research is to “purposefully” select participants or sites that will best help the researchers understand the problem and the research questions.’

⁸⁸ The importance and benefits of mixed-method research in classroom settings was reported, for example, by Allwright and Miley (1991: 67), who stated that ‘[f]rom all that we have said on the topic, it should be clear that we see most value in investigations that combine objective and subjective elements, that quantify only what can be usefully quantified and that utilize qualitative data collection and analysis procedures wherever they are appropriate.’

included space for basic factual information as well, such as the number of students, sex, approximate age, and nationality of the teacher, the reported and observed level of the class, as well as, a note on whether a course book was used and what kinds of interaction patterns were employed during the lesson. This was followed by four separate sections with items that were related to the research hypotheses and which may or may not have been observed.⁸⁹ The four categories focused on the following aspects o: course and lesson aims; students' needs; norms, accuracy, languaging; and lesson content, language resources. Each category contained several items which were to be ticked or crossed, depending on whether they occurred or not, and there was substantial amount of space reserved for additional comments.

Lastly, during the analysis of the data recorded in the observation sheets there was no subsequent numerical coding. We believed that, in order to keep the nature of a mixed-method research, the instrument and its analysis should both be approached qualitatively. Thus, we did not try to quantify the gathered information. Consequently, more of a narrative and numerical analysis should be expected in the successive subsections of the present study.

⁸⁹ This observation design could be partially related to frequency and sequence analysis as describe by Chraska (2007: 155).

7. Research findings

The present section introduces the data and results obtained from the two parts of the research. Sub-sections devoted to each of the research instruments both begin by providing general demographic and factual information about the respondents and participants.

Then the gathered evidence is presented. In Section 7.1 the quantitative findings are grouped as they relate to the research hypotheses. The qualitative data are described following the division of categories from the observation sheets. They are, additionally, also related to the hypotheses of our study (see section 7.2).

The last section (7.3) concerning the presentation of findings focuses on combining the data collected by the two different instruments and highlighting significant links between them. Accompanying the quantitative result with more qualitative and first-hand information should provide desired more in-depth insight. Moreover, such arrangement serves as a basis for answering our first hypothesis.

7.1. Quantitative study

Initially, general information about the participants such as their sex, age, level of proficiency, country of origin and occupation are presented. Overall the questionnaire was accessed by 318 respondents out of which 230 completed the majority of the question items and 228 finished the whole survey. This resulted in a response rate of 71,7%. In order to determine response bias (as discussed by Creswell 2003: 160) the findings underwent cursory scanning by months when the questionnaire collection was conducted. The data gathering began at the end of July and it was stopped in the middle of December. The most prolific months were August (82 respondents) and followed by even stronger November (195 respondents). When we examined the results of those two months we discovered that there was no obvious deviation in the

proportion of answers for each questions. Hence, it could be concluded that the threat of respondent (or non-respondent, actually) bias appeared to be minimal.

The sex, age and proficiency level characteristics of the focus group can be seen in the following charts:

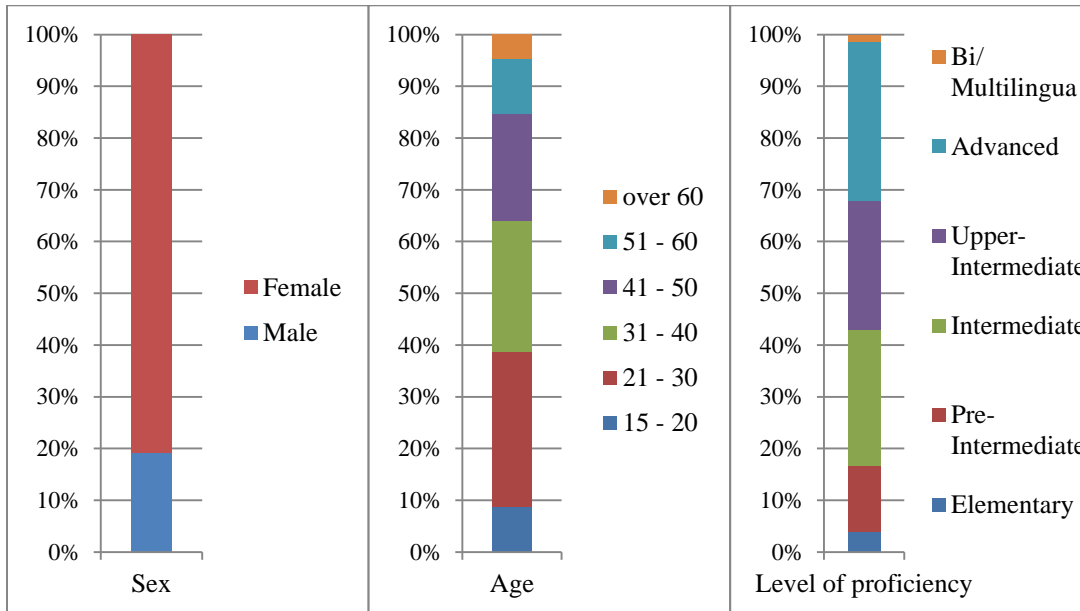


Figure 21: Respondent demographic data

A majority of the focus group were female respondents of varying ages and proficiency levels. Frequent respondents by age were from 21 to 50 years old, and by proficiency levels ranged from Intermediate to Advanced.

The highest number of participants mentioned the Czech Republic as their country of origin. This was not a surprising result since it was one of the prerequisites of the research design for the respondents to be Czech nationals so that they can provide an account of local attitudes, beliefs and needs. The exact numbers regarding countries of origin, as well as, occupations of the respondents are stated in the two tables below:

Nationality (the country of origin)	Czech Republic	218
	Slovakia	6
	Russia	2
	Chile	1
	Greece	1
	Poland	1
	Ukraine	6
Total number of respondents		230

Figure 22 Respondent nationalities

Occupation	Teachers/Lecturers	24
	Retired/Maternity leave/At home	8
	Students	33
	Self-employed	3
	Managers/Leading positions	13
	Medicine/Pharmacology	9
	Banking/Finance/Economics/Accounting	13
	Media	3
	Information Technologies	7
	Administration/Clerks/Assistants	22
	Lawyers/Legal services	5
	Librarians	2
	Translators/Interpreters	2
	Other	14
Total number of respondents		158

Figure 23 Respondent occupations

Also from the point of view of occupations it showed that the focus group was compiled of diverse individuals. Although there was no division of the occupations into categories originally included in the survey, for the purpose of the data presentation we decided to subsume similar jobs under several labels. It can be seen that students had the strongest representation, followed by teachers and lecturers, administrative workers and lastly clerks and assistants. Other common occupations included managers and directors, banking, finance, economic and accounting specialists. We also created a category of “other” occupations under which we placed every employment that appeared only once.⁹⁰

⁹⁰ Those included: a hydro-geologist, farmer, sales representative, logistician, an employee offering services, designer, conservationist, project developer, architect, technician, flight attendant, worker, graphic designer, and a city planner.

Generally, a typical respondent of our survey was a woman from the Czech Republic, aged between 21 and 50 years old, with a level of English Intermediate or higher. The typical respondent would possibly also occupy one of the above listed more common professions.

7.1.1. Content questionnaire items Q2 – Q11

7.1.1.1. Questionnaire item 2

Question 2 was intended to determine the most common interlocutors the respondents normally most often communicated with or plan to do so in future. Such information was considered relevant for estimating which kind of variety, or varieties the users were likely to hear and need to comprehend. It could also foreshadow whether they would primary use the language in a naturally N-bound setting⁹¹ of NSs or if there was higher chance of encountering some modifications in the language of NNSs. The results are presented below:

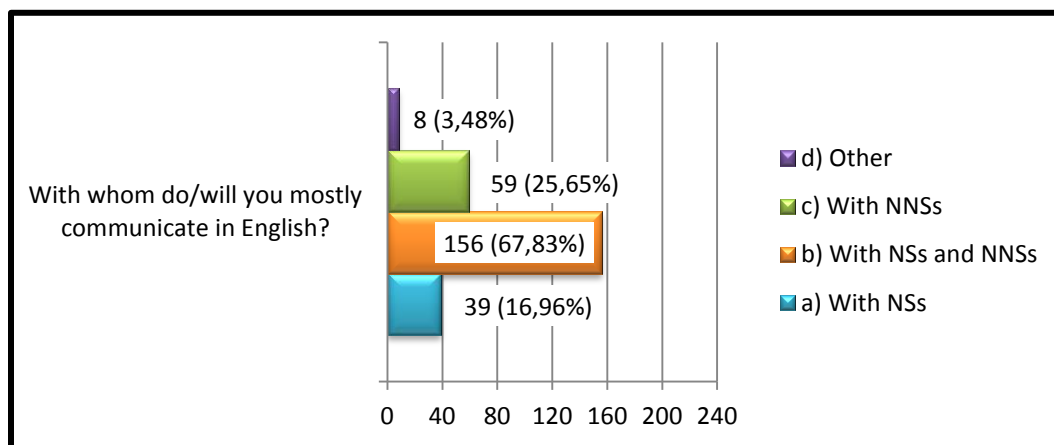


Figure 24 Questionnaire item 2

The answers show that most of the students communicate or will communicate with both NSs and NNSs (156 respondents; 67,83 %). Much smaller was the group of respondents who

⁹¹ See Sifakis (2006).

claimed to use English mostly with NNSs (59; 25,65%), followed by those with mostly NS interlocutors (39; 16,96%). Only eight participants provided a different answer.⁹²

The findings suggest that for the majority of the participants the most common interlocutors are NNSs. This could be significant information when determining whether there is any basis for considering teaching those people through an ELF-informed paradigm.

7.1.1.2. Questionnaire item 3

Similarly as the previous item, this multiple-choice question was intended to gather information about the respondents' language usage. This could then be evaluated as relevant in determining their goals and needs. That is not only from the point of view of choosing the most suitable teaching paradigms, but, perhaps more practically, it may be useful directly in the lessons when selecting the content, such as topics, vocabulary, grammar and classroom activities. Knowing what kind of situations or setting the respondents use the language in, makes it much easier to assess what would or would not be useful, and hence pedagogically relevant for them.⁹³ Respondents' replies to this question are presented in the following chart:

⁹² Three of them declare no communicative use of their English, three respondents specified in more detail who their interlocutors are, such as: "children", "my teacher", or "professors, teachers and lecturers" but did not indicate whether they were NSs or NNSs. Two respondents identified their interlocutors as "Czech students" and "German, Spanish people" and, hence, they actually belong to the group that mostly communicates with NNSs.

⁹³ Especially since there usually are some functions, vocabulary, grammar, style, register and other linguistic content connected with particular settings and communicative situations (CSs).

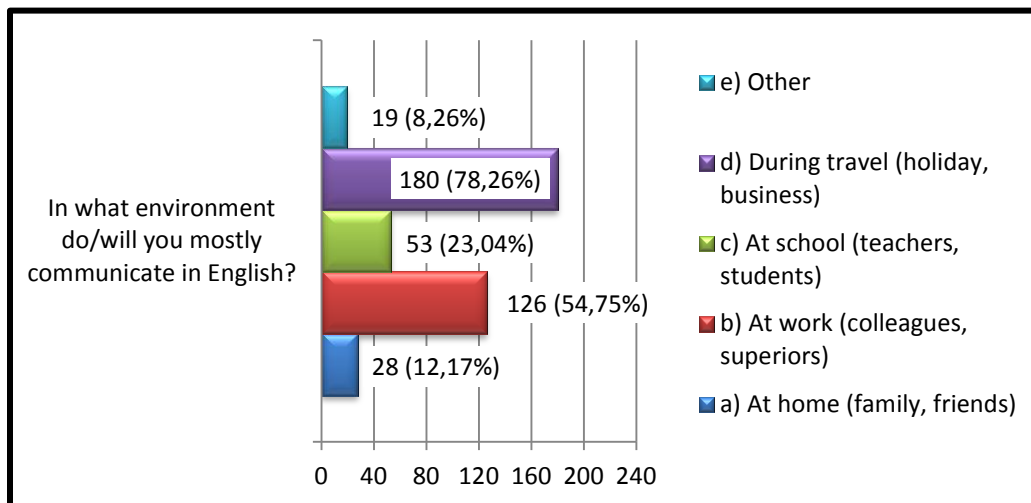


Figure 25 Questionnaire item 3

The graph reveals that the most common setting for communication was travelling (d), with 180 respondents out of 230 (78,26%). The second place belonged to work environment, therefore communicating with colleagues, superiors, or with their own employees, business clients and such (126 respondents; 54,75%). The third most common environment, which, however, represented a much smaller group of respondents (53; 23,04%), was communicating at school with teachers and students. The least common setting was at home (a) where the respondents would communicate with family and friends. Friends could, of course, be present at school and at work as well. If that was the case, then respondents had a chance to specify it in the comments. There were 19 participants who selected the “Other” category and wrote their own answers. Most of them detailed what kind of interlocutors they usually use their English with instead of determining any novel setting. Out of these 19 respondents, 10 students mentioned work setting, e.g. communicating with “patients”, or “foreign business partners.”⁹⁴ Two participants use English at school talking with “students.” Two also specified communicating with a NS family member, thus “at home” setting; similarly one respondent mentioned

⁹⁴ All the quotations of the respondents’ commentaries were translated into English as they were originally written in Czech. The citations from the survey are differentiated from literary citations by the use of double quotation marks instead of single ones.

communication with “friends.” Another three contributors suggested a setting that was not offered: “in the street”, probably with random unrelated interlocutors, such as with “tourists”, or “at bars”, or “while doing a sport.” The last respondent stated that he or she does not communicate in English but only “reads books in English.”

The environment in which the respondents communicate is relevant because it determines the CSs in which the users need to employ English. That may point, once again, at relevant vocabulary areas, skills, functional language, register, terminology and other important aspects that influence planning teachers’ preparation for their lessons. Especially, if some of the settings are more usual for ELF CSs, such as the situations happening during travelling, or in the work environment, then trying to employ an ELF-informed teaching approach⁹⁵ or to, simply, acquaint the students with ELF itself, may need to be seriously considered.

7.1.1.3. Questionnaire item 4

The first scale-based question item offered the respondents twelve possible reasons they could have for using English and asked them to evaluate them according to their importance. The situations basically focused on having linguistic reasons as motivation behind using English, such as ‘improving my knowledge of grammar,’ or ‘do well in a language exam,’; or on more real-life related CSs such as using English for ‘communication at school’ or ‘during travelling.’ In a way, this question was similar to the previous one. However, the added value of this item was that the choice of the CSs was much more detailed and, above all, that the importance of the CSs was assessed by the respondents. Therefore it was possible to gain deeper insight into the strength of their motivation for using English in various situations as well as into the compilation

⁹⁵ See section 3.1 .

of their reasons and motivations for learning. The twelve reasons were evaluated in the following way (with (1) being the most important and (5) the least important):

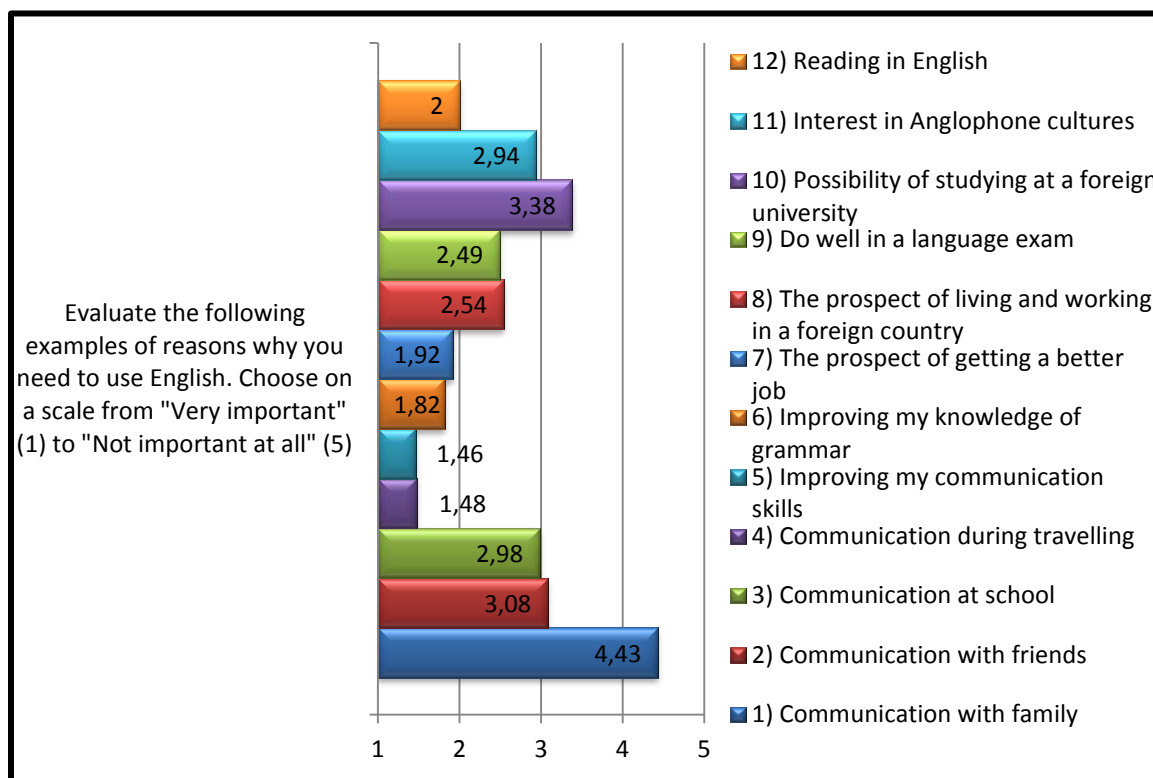


Figure 26 Questionnaire item 4

The numbers presented on the chart represent averages of the respondents' evaluations. Each respondent could evaluate some or all of the CSs on a five-point scale. Thus, from the results shown, we can deduce which CS is generally the most important one for the whole respondent group. That, however, does not mean that, for example, the least important CS 'with family' (score 4,43) would not be considered as highly important by any respondent. When individual results for each CS were examined it was observed that there were, actually, 10 respondents (4,98%) who considered communication with family as a very important reason for using English. Such information showed a correlation with the answers collected in the previous question. A table with the detailed scores of each CS can be found in the Appendix 4. Due to space constraints we decided not to include it in the main text.

While the data displayed in Figure 26 is rather self-explanatory, we wanted to emphasize the possible informative value of the item for teaching practice. Knowing learner motivation is extremely beneficial for content selection, but also for directing, supporting and coaching learners. Much of the content taught can, for example, be somehow usefully tied to the relevant reasons the students have for English communication. Therefore, they actually learn something that should be directly applicable to real-life situations, or they may at least aim to know how to use the knowledge they have appropriately in the CSs that are relevant for them. Lastly, the scale was used also for comparing EFL and ELF motivations. It was discovered that there was still quite a strong emphasis on EFL motives for using English such to ‘improve grammar’ (115; 53,74%); nearly half of the group considered it very important to ‘pass a language exam’ (84; 39,81%). Such motivation may have, among other things, influence on the English users’ relationship and tolerance towards language modifications, or determine their preference in relation to accuracy and fluency (those terms were also explained to respondents by a short definitions included in the questionnaires, see Appendix 2).

The written answers specified the specific exams that were motivating the learners to study and use the language. The respondents mentioned the following: FCE (15), the state exam for translators (4), CAE (3), CPE (2), the general language state exam (1), unspecified B2 level (2) and B1 level (2) exams, IELTS (1), and an entrance exam to a foreign university (1). Six participants wrote that their main reason for using English was at work, and three stated that their motivation was simply fun.

7.1.1.4. Questionnaire item 5

The multiple-choice question 5 was concentrated on language models of the respondents. Recently, it has been discussed that it is actually quite possible and acceptable for a language user to have a NS language model while being perfectly legitimate ELF users (Dewey, 2012). It is also known that language users may alternate their roles within both EFL and ELF paradigms.

Yet, considering learner language models is informative about motivation and whether the user has an attainable or unattainable model, and/or goal. It might be inferred that respondents with NNS models may have goals which are more easily satisfied than those who have NS models.⁹⁶ Nonetheless, nowadays it is acknowledged⁹⁷ that models do not have to be identical to goals. Learners and language users may also be often aware of the fact that a model is something they look up to, but they do not assume it to be an attainable goal for them. Therefore, they have goals they consider reachable and the NS model could be, possibly, perceived as an “ideal” or “inspiration.”

The scores for different models are listed below:

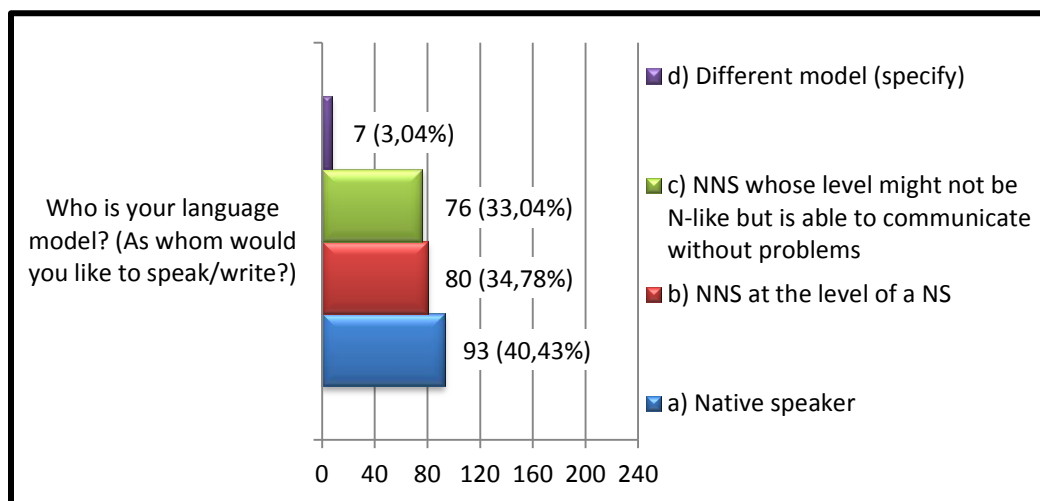


Figure 27 Questionnaire item 5

⁹⁶ For comparison of NS, nativized and lingua franca models see Kirkpatrick 2006: 71-83 .

⁹⁷ By, e.g., Jenkins, Cogo, Dewey, 2011: 305-206.

Seven participants provided written answers. They usually specified their language models, and most of them could have been placed under one of our general choices. Three respondents provided examples of NS models (“family,” “UK accent, “UK variety used by educated speakers”). Two reported that they have never thought about any language models and they don’t have one. One answer contained a name of a Czech professor, probably with a high level of English proficiency, thus, a NNS model. Finally, one respondent admitted that although she would like to speak and write as a NS, she judged by her own experience that such goal was unattainable. Thus, this is one explicit confirmation of the fact that learners can have NS models but accept that it is not possible to become like the model.

7.1.1.5. Questionnaire item 6

The next item inquired directly about the respondents’ goals. It was possible for the participants to mark several possibilities, as they could have various goals and those may be of different importance. Still, 67 respondents stated that at least one of their goals was to use English as a NS speaker. Consequently, there were bound to be respondents who stated that their language model was a NS while their goals were more rational and attainable as they focused on attaining communicative competence as NNSs, therefore, not native-like. The most common learner goal was the ‘ability to communicate fluently in international environment’ (152 responses). ‘Ability to communicate as a NNS at near-native-like level’ and ‘Ability to communicate effectively even with limited resources’ were both the second most common replies (74 replies each). It is possible, that, for example, the respondents who wish to attain the ability to use limited language resource effectively may benefit from introduction to ELF and to ELF communication strategies as well as to general strategies of successful communication (see sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2).

The following graph displays the general learner communicative goals of our focus group, the most common goals shared by the respondents received the highest score:

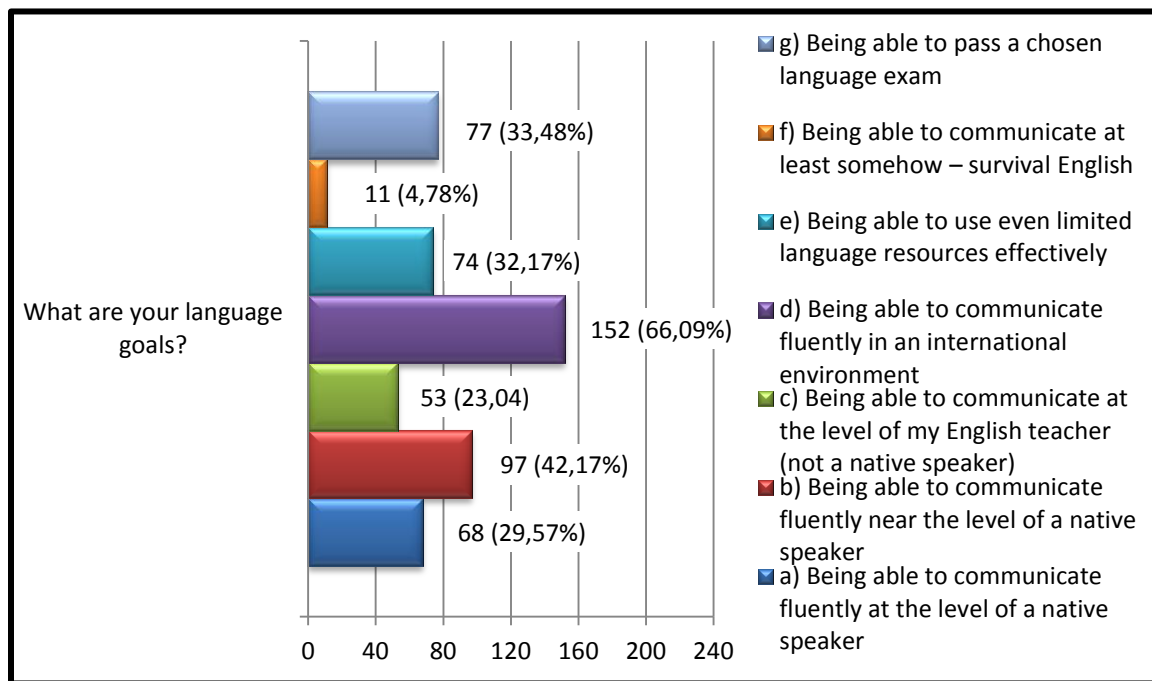


Figure 28 Questionnaire item 6

Also, the respondents provided twelve written comments, seven out of which were specifying the kind of exam they would like to pass. Two participants state that their goal was to become a translator and/or interpreter, one respondent desired to attain a better accent, and, finally, one clarified that fluency was the most important goal as s/he considered attaining a NS competence impossible: “It is rather utopic to want communicate as someone whose mother tongue is English. That is definitely unrealistic without a longer time spent abroad. Therefore, my current goal is mainly fluency.”

7.1.1.6. Questionnaire item 7

Item 7 was answered by 229 respondents. It was a semantic scale asking them to evaluate the importance of fluency and accuracy. Therefore, it was possible to find out not only which they preferred but also to what degree they preferred it (the lower the score the more important it was considered to be). This question item was different compared to the other scale items as the scale itself was reversed, thus having the lowest score for the least important and the highest for the most:

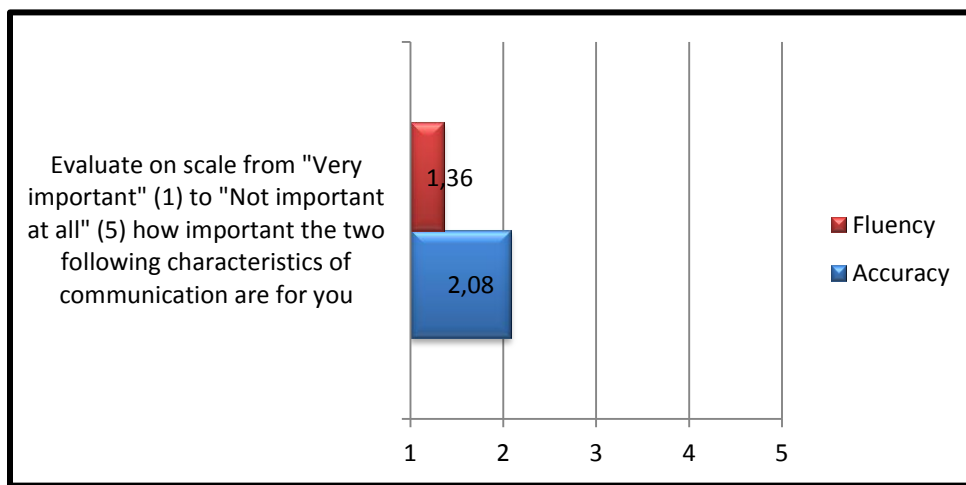


Figure 29 Questionnaire item 7

The average scores show that, overall, fluency was more important for the focus group than accuracy. Fluency was evaluated as 'Very important' by 168 (73,36%) respondents, while accuracy only by 76 (33,19%). Interestingly, there was no reply that would assess accuracy as 'Not important at all' while two respondents answered so in the case of fluency. There were 59 respondents who stated that both fluency and accuracy were 'Very important' for them.

Short definitions of both of the terms were provided in order not to confuse the respondents. It was assumed that this questionnaire item could be indicative of participants' attitudes and the level of tolerance towards language modifications. Even though fluency appears to be, generally, more significant it should not be assumed that accuracy would be irrelevant. Its

score is also rather low; therefore, the majority (220 respondents) assessed it as ‘Somehow important’ or more. Consequently, we could expect some level of tolerance towards modifications and emphasis on communicating according to a NS norm at the same time.

7.1.1.7. Questionnaire item 8

The majority of respondents (100; 43,48%) admitted that there was no initial assessment of their goals done by their language teachers. The second largest set of participants claimed to have taken a grammar test determining their level of proficiency (88; 38,26%). The portion of respondents who had their goals assessed in an interactive way – through a discussion or a written questionnaire was, actually, much lower (57; 24,78% and 7; 3,04%) but still not negligible:

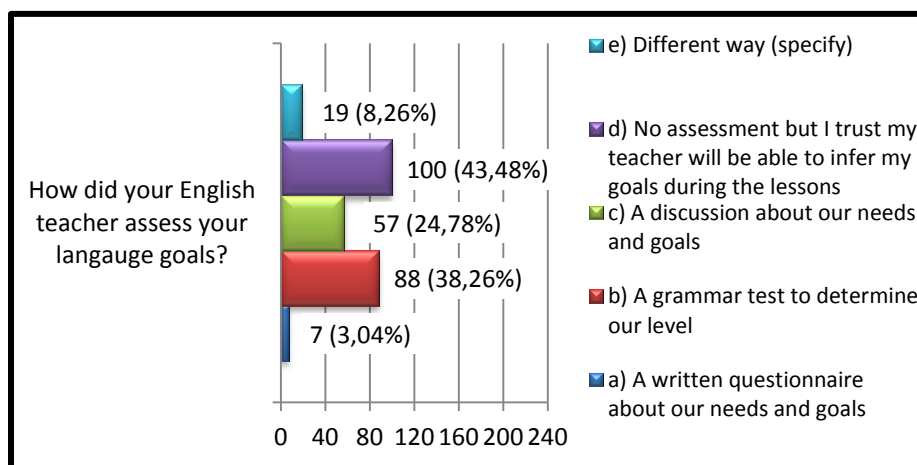


Figure 30 Questionnaire item 8

Written answers were provided by 19 respondents. Six of them specified that their goals comply with the kind of course they chose to attend. Therefore, it was probably unnecessary to try to determine learners’ goals. Two participants reported having had an interview in English with the teachers; two underwent both grammatical testing and spoken interviews. One respondent admitted that it was his employer who set their goals; one respondent did not know how to answer. Lastly, two respondents probably felt that the question, actually, presupposed

that it was the teachers who were responsible for determining goals, which was not intended, and as such they noted that it was the respondents themselves who set their aims.

The fact that quite a number of participants reported that their teachers did not inquire about their goals in any way, or at least not in an explicit one, may be suggestive to at what level the students are able to follow their goals during the lessons and whether there are any discrepancies between the learner goals and the content of the courses.

7.1.1.8. Questionnaire item 9

Generally, it was observed that the majority of respondents had at least a partial chance to follow their goals during their English lessons. Still, about one fifth of participants admitted that they did not feel they could pursue their goals. We expected that those respondents would correlate with those from the previous question who stated, that their teachers did not enquire about their goals. However, when the two items were correlated, only about one half of them match. Another 37,78% (17 participants) indicated that it was a grammar test through which their proficiency level was evaluated. The specific data can be seen in the following chart:

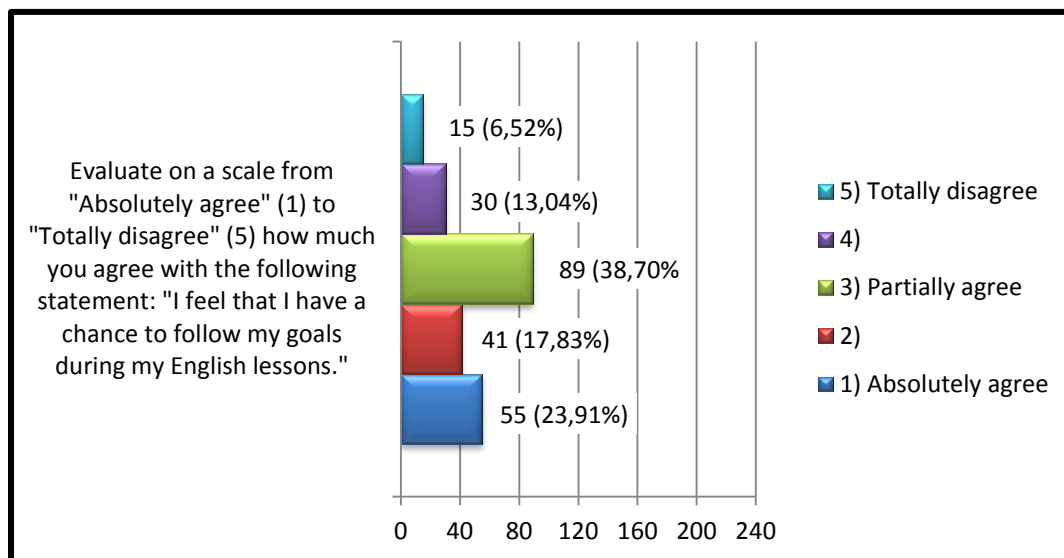


Figure 31 Questionnaire item 9

The question rendered quite a number of written comments (38) most of which detailed what it was that the respondents appreciated about their lessons and what, on the other hand, they thought was missing from them. Their written answers could be divided into several groups according to their topics. There were such comments that touched upon the issue with heterogeneity of goals among the course attendants: “I think that goals of individual participants are very different.” Then there was a set of replies which emphasised that it depended on a teacher whether the students felt as making progress or not: “the personality of a teacher is absolutely essential for me and for my motivations or demotivation to improve.” Some participants expressed their desires as to what they would like to do more in their lessons, such as: “I only say a few sentences during a lesson,” or “I’d prefer less speaking and more writing in the lessons.”

The comments could be also grouped according to whether they mention a positive aspect of the respondents’ learning experience or a negative one. Here are several specific examples of both and they also provide some insight into how students’ needs and expectations meet with the classroom reality:

- Positive: “Our teacher is excellent. (...) There is nothing better than a native speaker,” “the teacher gives the participants space to take some time and talk about themselves,” “During my English lessons I feel improvement and that I’m gaining some ground in English,” “For the first time I feel that there is a connection between knowledge and practical language use, which is very important for me.”
- Negative: “I cannot really imagine that I will ever be able to communicate fluently without problems,” There is not enough space given to listening,” “There are only a few good teachers, the rest is not interested in your goals,” “It is difficult to simulate practical

and unexpected situations in lessons as I know the teacher or the classmates, and also more time is spent on filling in grammar exercises,” “My teacher is forcing me to speak.”

The textual answers confirmed that there are various factors that can determine whether one senses that they are aiming at and working towards your goals or not. Self-motivation appeared to play a significant role, as well as did the quality and personality of teachers. What was also mentioned was the importance of the language presented and used in class to be applicable and useful in real-life situations.

7.1.1.9. Questionnaire item 10

The one before final content question item focused on the respondents’ relationships to language modifications.⁹⁸ First, we asked them about their ability to distinguish modifications from standard forms used by others and whether they mind it when their interlocutors use modifications. The last statement emphasized more attitudes to modifications when found in the production of the respondents themselves. Once again, the lower the score the more the respondents were in agreement with a statement. The higher the score, the less they identified with it:

⁹⁸ In EFL mostly termed “mistakes”, while in ELF it has been traditional to label such instances “innovations”. See section 4.2.4 .

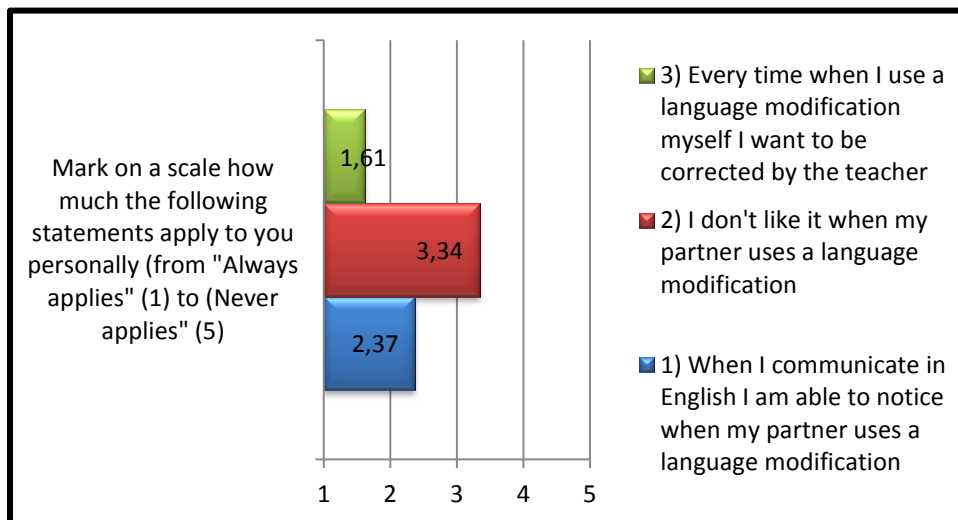


Figure 32 Questionnaire item 10

The averages show that what applied to most of the respondents was statement 3) related to teachers correcting the students own mistakes. There were 137 (60,53%) participants, out of 228 who evaluated this statement, which stated that ‘every time I myself use a language modification I want the teacher to correct me.’ That suggested that respondents consider accuracy to be an important aspect of their own language production. They were, however, much more tolerant towards the modifications of others. Still, there were 27 (11,84%) individuals who reported minding their partners’ language modifications, and 23 (10,09%) respondents did not like modifications more often than “sometimes”. The largest group, 81 respondents (35,53%), claimed that sometimes statement 2) applies to them and sometimes it does not. Counted together, 97 participants (42,54%) stated that they usually do not feel to mind modifications or that they do not mind them at all. Consequently, there was an observation that the respondents seemed to be much stricter, in terms of correctness, to themselves than to others. To discover whether our respondents were, generally, able to note language modifications, and thus, whether other answers they provided to this questions could be considered relevant, we asked the focus group how likely its members were to notice a modification when somebody employs it. Only 21 respondents (9,17%, out of 229 completed this evaluative scale), replied that they were less than

sometimes able to detect a usage that was unlike NS norms. Hence, based on self-reflection, the majority of the respondent group should be able to provide information and opinions regarding non-standard features of communication.

The scale, moreover, attracted the most written comments out of all the content items in the questionnaire. There were 48 respondents who commented in further detail on their answers and who specified how, why, and when they wanted to be corrected. Their replies were categorised under several headings (some may have fitted into more than one category) and are presented, in the following table (for more illustration we supply several example commentaries):

Category / topic	# of responses	Example quotations
Communication is the most important	5	“I think that it is crucial not being afraid to speak, even with mistakes,” “I don’t mind modifications as long as the communication makes sense,” “I need to speak, that means better with mistakes than not at all.”
Understanding and comprehension is the most important	10	“I don’t mind modifications during general communication and the main thing is that we understand each other,” “For me it is the most important whether a sentence makes sense,” “Correction of mistakes is important if they change the meaning of a sentence.”
Influence of motivation	3	“Correcting is fine but the main thing is to be supportive,” “I need the teacher to correct me carefully and respectfully according to what skill is the focus.”
Desire to be corrected every single time	immediate – 7 at the end – 2 no preference – 12	“I wish to be corrected always and immediately after I make a mistake.” “I would like to be corrected when I finish speaking, because if someone interrupts my speech I forget everything.” “How? Whether [the teacher] corrects me that is the main thing,” or “I’m learning the language to speak the best I can, therefore I find it necessary for the teacher to correct me.”
Corrections sometimes and/or only of some things	7	“If it is a big mistake I wish to be corrected,” “My teacher tolerates my mistakes which are ‘bearable’,” I’m not sure when a language modification is right and I’d like to speak without making too obvious mistakes.”

Discrepancy between the real-life usage and the classroom setting	3	“Mistakes of others don’t bother me, I make them myself. However, during a course I’m happy if the teacher corrects every mistake I make.”
Discrepancy between self- and other-evaluation and attitudes	4	“I myself would like to avoid language modifications but when I notice that someone else used one I don’t mind.”
Accuracy vs. fluency issues	1	“It is good to draw attention to modifications but not at the expense of fluency.”

Figure 33 QI 10 - Commentaries

The present question item supplies significant and relevant information for various issues. First, the data could be used to predict the respondents’ attitudes towards languaging when considering whether to introduce them to this communicative strategy, or not. Similarly to other previous questions it is also relevant for considering learner goals and needs. Additionally, some descriptions of the in-class practices and reality were provided, and those could be later compared with the data from personal observations. Many of the commentaries also generated data offering a glance at the student – teacher relationship and requirements of the respondents.

7.1.1.10. Questionnaire item 11

The last content question item in the questionnaire was an evaluative scale asking the respondents, once more, to assess three different statements according to how important they appeared to be for them (the lower the score, the less important the statement):

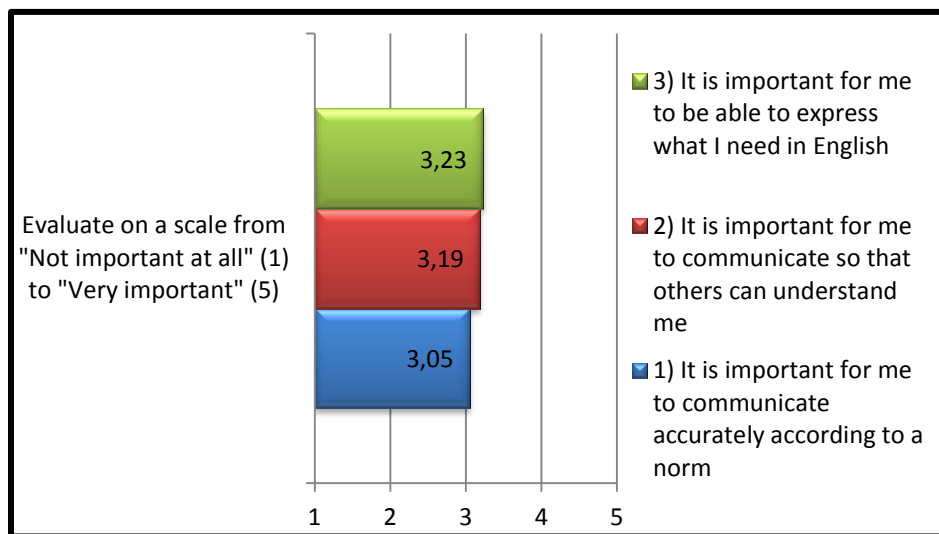


Figure 34 Questionnaire item 11

At first glance one can see that all three statements were assigned more or less the same importance. Consequently, it could be said that, according to the averages, all the three communication priorities presented are equally important. Statement 3) received slightly better responses than the other two options; participants (109 respondents, i.e.48,44%) assessed that it was 'Very important' for them to be able to express whatever they need in English. On the other hand, there were also 83 participants (36,89%) who considered this to be 'Not important at all.' They thought that the most essential point was to communicate so that other interlocutors could understand them (101; 45,09% more than "somehow" important). When looking at the detailed results of the evaluation of the 1st statement the largest part of the focus group, 80 respondents (34,93%), claimed that correct, N-bound communication was 'somehow important.' With statements 2) and 3) it was interesting to note that mostly, there were either participants who considered the two as absolutely essential or totally unimportant, with the middle opinions being only a few. This situation, however, was not applicable for statement 1) in which the evaluations were more levelled (29; 12,66% for 'Not important at all,' then 44; 19,21%, 80; 34,93% for 'Somehow important,' then 38; 16,59%, and 38; 16,59% for 'Very important').

The findings, again, support the trends visible throughout the whole questionnaire survey. First, there was quite a strong emphasis on communication and communicative abilities. Nonetheless, second, there still appears to be somehow prevailing, deeper rooted, focus on accuracy, normativity, and native-likeness as well.

7.2. Qualitative study

The following sub-section presents the data obtained during classroom observations conducted at one private language school in Prague (for more about the criteria of the choice of the institution see section 6.3.1). As mentioned before, students of the school were also among the participants of our questionnaire survey. This section describes the findings obtained in the form of field notes taken in an originally devised observation sheet (see Appendix 3). Our observation sheet was divided into pre-set categories to facilitate classification of findings. Those categories are: course and lesson aims; students' needs; norms, accuracy, languaging; lesson content and language resources. The report of quantitative findings is organized under four sub-headings having the same names as the labels of the categories on the observations sheets.

Additionally, the first sub-section (7.2.1) consists of general information about the lessons that were observed. Hence, details about the teachers, students, levels of proficiency, course types, course-books, interaction patterns and lengths of each observation are provided in order to describe the setting of the quantitative research.⁹⁹

7.2.1. Respondents' socio-linguistic background

The research subjects of the quantitative part have been already described in section **Chyba! Nenalezen zdroj odkazů**.above. Nevertheless, we decided to start the analysis by reviewing some basic data characterising the five classes that were observed. This should help to gain better insight into the following presentation and analysis of the field notes as it makes it possible for the reader to, roughly, establish, what the context was and who the participants were.

The socio-linguistic data are presented in the following table:

⁹⁹‘Rich and thick description to convey findings,’ was advocated by Creswell (2003: 196) when he claimed that ‘this may transport readers to the setting and give the discussion an element of shared experience.’ Consequently, general information about the circumstances and participants of the observations are recapitulated in a comprehensive way in order to ensure better understanding of the audience.

O #	T (age, sex, NS / NNS)	# of Sts	Level	Observed level	Course type	Course-book	Interaction	Time
1	mid 40s M NNS	11	Advanced	Upper-Int. Advanced	GE	Speak Out Advanced	T-Sts, Sts-T, Indiv. work, Pair work	90 + 45 min
2	mid 30s F NNS	8	Intermed. Upper-Int.	Pre-Int. Intermed.	GE	New English File Intermed.	T-Sts, Sts-T, Indiv. work, Pair work	90 + 45 min
3	mid 30s F NNS	13	Pre-Int.	Pre-Int.	GE	English for Life Pre-Int.	T-Sts, Sts-T, Indiv. work, Pair work	90 + 45 min
4	mid 40 M NNS	5	Advanced	Upper-Int. Advanced	Exam. prep. FCE	Objective First	T-Sts, Sts-T, Indiv. work, Pair work, Group work	90 + 45 min
5	50s M NS - BrE	4	Advanced	Advanced	Exam. prep. CAE	Objective CAE	T-Sts, Sts-T, Pair work	90 + 45 min

Figure 35 Observations - general factual data

7.2.2. Course and lesson aims

The first sub-set of categories for observations focused on determining what were the main course and lesson aims. This could be then cross-referenced with the questionnaire data about language goals shared by the respondents. Consequently, we may be able to obtain information about whether there is a discrepancy between what the students and users consider important and the lesson and course content.

Only in one out of 5 of the observed lessons, the lesson aim was explicitly stated by the teacher. In the rest of the lessons, aims were stated implicitly through the activities used in them. The aims observed were divided into two major groups, e.g.: grammatical and communicative. Communicative aims, for example, included the following: “Asking and answering questions,” “expressing opinions,” “negotiating,” “talking about health problems and their remedies,” and “reporting opinions”. We observed also the following target language topics: various tense presentations and recapitulations, vocabulary revisions and exam practices, and skill training were included in the category.

Course aims covered among other aspects successful passing of a planned language exam, or progress towards the next proficiency level. In every lesson the learners were working towards the intended aim of the course. Lesson aims were partially followed during two observations and the rest seemed to accomplish both the explicit and implicit aims they set for the lessons.

Interestingly, it was almost impossible to observe and report whether the participants considered the lesson and course aims useful. It never happened that a student would comment on, ask about or question some aim they were pursuing. During all of the observations students worked towards a stated or implied aim(s) from the grammatical category, and everyone at least attempted the communicative aims. Therefore, the participants were doing assigned work and did not question the Teachers' decisions. While it is little difficult to interpret, such behaviour could be also interpreted as a silent agreement with the lesson and course aims.¹⁰⁰

7.2.3. Students' needs

Most of the participants of the observations were divided into classes that formed in terms of proficiency levels and skills quite homogeneous groups. There was only one class in which there were marked differences among the majority of the group and a few individual learners.

Also, all the observations conducted seemed to belong into a longer stretch of interconnected lessons which were planned and scheduled according to an overall course syllabus. Deviations from the plan and 'on-the-spot' modifications of the planned topics and activities according to the immediate learner needs were not observed. In none of the lessons it

¹⁰⁰ This could be assumed also when the observation findings are compared with the data obtained from the questionnaire item 8 where it was discovered that a large portion of respondents trusted their teachers in identifying relevant learner goals. Under such circumstances we may suppose that the teachers indeed were able to infer students' goals, and they employed suitable means how to reach them. Hence, the observed participants may have been showing silent approval of the foci of the lessons and activities in them.

appeared that the syllabus would be created to fit the participants of the course exclusively. Instances of general school syllabus management included, e.g.: each course had a school assigned course-book and in all observations the books were followed. Some teachers even explicitly stated that what they intended to happen in the lesson was to “start the new chapter.”¹⁰¹ Not many students were able to express their needs and requests during the observed situations. In two lessons there were several participants who asked some questions which required the teachers to provide more elaborated explanations or exemplifications of usage in speech, or on the board. However, during the rest of the time the participants only inquired about vocabulary and/or grammar, basically reacting to what they were presented, rather than expressing their genuine needs. There was no occasion created by the teacher when the students did not need to focus on a message from her and, hence, they had little chance to focus on formulation of their wants. In one case a student told his/her colleague that s/he needed the teacher’s help with some phrases and tips for communication with demanding patients in his/her work. The student suggested discussing this issue after the lesson. Or more explicitly, the student decided not to approach the teacher during the lesson and she did not seem disturbed by this practice. It was not clear why the students would prefer to discuss their own topics and inquiries after the classes instead of during the main paid time.

Nevertheless, several instances where teachers formally modified the lessons to suit their students’ requirements were observed. One teacher, for example, was more tolerant towards L1 usage in one class in which the students visibly needed such support because of their limited comprehension and production skills in English. In two cases teachers personalised questions actively in order to suit the students or asked the students to relate some of the activities to their own lives, such as: “finish those phrases as they would be true for you,” or “and what is your

¹⁰¹ More precisely, a new unit in the course-book.

experience with [...].” During all the observations it was visible that the participants were used to the flow of the lessons. For example: they understood classroom instructions immediately, they did not need any clarification of activities, and they did not question any practices done during the lessons.

In some instances, it was recorded that the teachers were able to adjust some minor procedures, such as the length of thinking time given to various students according to how swift their reactions usually appeared to be, did not force the students to complete an extra exercise for their homework, offered varying vocabulary explanations if some students showed they did not understand the original one. Participants of the observations also did not show any significant issues with asking language-related questions, such as vocabulary explanations, grammar clarifications, or inquiries about alternative answers to a task. There was no questioning noted concerning the composition of the lessons or the methods and techniques used for delivering the content.

In most instances, teachers were able to react to students’ inquiries quickly and clearly. When it was necessary the students or/and the teachers switched to Czech, which seemed to make matters easier when something was difficult to understand or when a student was not able to understand the teacher’s explanation in English. During two of the classes most of students – teacher communication that concerned question asking and answering was conducted in Czech. This was not so surprising in the case of participants whose level was reported and observed to be just about B1. The same teacher applied this to another group of students who were of a higher level (B2). In such case it was not always necessary for her to use Czech to make the students understand. During the lessons where it was usual for the teacher to provide explanations in Czech the students demonstrated that they were more likely to use L1 as a resource, for example in a question, or a request for explanation, than trying to do the same in

English. In every observation there were some tendencies to resort to Czech explanations and definitions when the content proved to be complicated. However, the more proficient the students were, the longer they were encouraged to inquire and explain in the L2 only, thus, employing strategies such as paraphrasing, using synonyms, repetition, and, occasionally, also self-corrections. If the teacher managed to hear a question correctly then the students always obtained an answer. Sometimes, however, the explanation seemed too elaborate, lengthy, or confusing. It was not clear whether the student was satisfied with the answer because they came to understanding, or they only did not want to ask the same question again.

7.2.4. Norms, accuracy, languaging

Throughout the observations the students were corrected by the teachers most of times or nearly always. The students appeared to be used to such focus on accuracy of their language and they usually tried to at least repeat the correction immediately and some of them also applied it later during the lessons. In majority the teachers corrected immediately after the students produced a mistake. It did not matter whether it was a serious error or just a slip of tongue they were all getting corrected. Commonly it also happened that the teachers provided a short explanation of why something was “not right”, e.g.: “We use the present simple for ... and the continuous for ...” “It must have ‘es’ because it is the third person,” “No, I don’t think that this sentence has a correct meaning because we would usually say ... and not” There was no visible emphasis on correcting only such modifications that would impede communication. Usually, the correction happened regardless of the actual influence of the modification on meaning and comprehension.

All the corrections observed were done according to a native speaker norm (Standard British English)¹⁰², Among the language corrected were: tenses, phrasal verbs, -ing vs. infinitive, articles, pronunciation (/ð/ vs. /θ/), prepositions, sentence structures, singular vs. plural, conditionals, functions (offers, requests), modal verbs, spelling, collocations, comparatives and superlatives, various topical vocabulary (health, history, journalist jargon, education) and random general words.

In relation to the amount of corrective work done by the teachers and the students, as well as by monitoring students' self-corrections and their most common enquiries to the teachers, it was observed that the students were focusing on accurate expression and they were also supported to do so. During observation 5 the students were having their language closely monitored by the teacher mainly when they spoke directly to him/her. When they were assigned to do a cooperative task, such as negotiating with a partner and reaching a conclusion, they were left to express themselves freely. After such an activity there was a feedback stage when the T asked questions related to their tasks to check what they did and what their results or conclusions were. Therefore, the students had to re-produce ideas they discussed previously with their partner and, as expected and visibly usual in the lesson, present them to the T and the rest of the class in as accurate language as possible. Sometimes such speech would be often interrupted by hesitation and thinking about a word, a correct phrase, or a grammatical feature. Instances of self-correction of pronunciation were also noted when the students communicated with the teacher. That was not the case when they spoke with their colleagues only. Such a selective approach to self-correction could be also partially influenced by the fact that the teacher in observation 5 was a NS, while the students were all NNSs.

¹⁰² During one observation with advanced participants the teacher included also several General American vocabulary options.

Generally, the students were encouraged by the teachers to express themselves by being asked various questions. In some lessons the teachers did not provide sufficient amount of time for the students to think about their answers and, thus, deprived them of the possibility to reply. Especially, there were two observations in which the teacher kept asking students questions, but she gave them no time to produce answers before the reply was required from someone else or said the teacher said it herself. She was also a talkative person, which did not seem to be something the students minded in general (according to, for example, how they communicated with the T during breaks in Czech), but they sometimes appeared to be intimidated by it when switching to English. From the opposite end, many of the students appeared rather reluctant to speak. This was observed across the levels. A few times the teacher would be prompting student to speak and s/he would simply not produce anything or only a one-word answer.

As suggested above, the majority of the participants tended to self-correct; peer-correction, on the other hand, was not as common. There were only several examples of students who were able to demonstrate their preference for fluency over accuracy. On many occasions it was observable that the students were thinking very hard about the grammar and vocabulary of an utterance. Sometimes so much that it made them stop and pause several times in one sentence in order to search for a suitable word. Eventually, they self-corrected their speech or left it unfinished. During one of the advanced courses there was a student who tended to stop using tenses when stopped controlling her accuracy and focused on expressing her genuine opinion or feeling.

The students were mostly required to complete exercises, or answer teacher's questions individually. This may be in connection with the students not employing peer-corrections during production, but, instead, they usually approach the teacher when they need help. Generally, the teachers were the authorities in every class the author observed. They were the ones who carried

responsibility. In approximately 95% of situations students turned to them for advice, help, or opinion on language rather than asking their classmates. Teachers were also the ones who had the final word deciding what was correct and what was not. They determined not only grammatical accuracy but they also advised the students about their production according to what a NS would be likely or unlikely to say. As noted also in the previous sub-section, sometimes the students were so focused on accuracy that they found it challenging to express themselves, and thus the ability to communicate failed. As this behaviour was reinforced by the teachers mostly supporting accuracy over fluency, it could be observed the students were not, generally, encouraged to get the meaning across, but rather to get the meaning across in certain way and according to certain rules.

7.2.5. Lesson content, language resources

The last section of the observation sheet concentrated on the content of the monitored lessons and on the language resources the students had available for use. The content was observed mainly from the point of view of techniques and methods employed for teaching and learning.

The observations showed that mostly students learned through instruction about rules for language use. Therefore, they are required to know and use appropriate terminology (Present Tense, Past Participle, 1st Conditional, Time Clauses, etc.), and they are also expected and requested to produce definitions of various rules and they repeat them, for example, when they use a modification. In all of the observations at least one of the lesson sub-aims focused on language presentation or revision. When there was a language area to be revised, it was always accompanied by the recapitulation of its rules. In two lessons it was noted that the Sts were guided to use a certain target language before they turned to explicit rule presentation or

recapitulation. Once it was observed that a student tried to be creative with English within the native norm.

The communicative situations and the activities in general that were observed did not, on the whole, reflect real-life usage as defined by the EFL and ELF paradigms. In some lessons the students practiced functions such as negotiating, expressing opinions, discussing, reaching a conclusion, role-playing a visit at doctor's, listening and note taking. All those are functions defined within the EFL paradigm. They could be, naturally, observed and used within ELF paradigm as well; however, their forms and conventions may be different, probably newly negotiated during every ELF CS.

Lastly, it was reported how the students were able to use their L1 as a resource and whether they were or were not required to communicate strictly in English. Overall, as noted above, the trend was that the lower the level of the class, the more Czech was used. Usually, the students were asked to answer questions and do tasks in English. Side commentaries, inquiries, issue solving, class-unrelated communication, and also language presentations were done either in Czech or English. The B1 and B2 courses used Czech mainly for translations, dictations, and when explaining and reviewing target language areas with the teacher. Students were often also seen to talk to each other in Czech, although it was also observed that in the two advanced-level classes they were asked to chat, preferably, in English. During all the lessons the teachers required the students to communicate in English when working with or on the language focused activities, such as when they reported results, provided answers to an exercise, communicated with the teacher, or with the other students 'officially' - when assigned as a task. Czech was then used mostly for translations of challenging vocabulary, clarification during explaining, when presenting new language (mostly in lower proficiency classes) or for confirming that Sts understood something correctly (e.g. as in translations of readings or during dictations).

7.3. Cross-referencing the studies

The quantitative part of the study served as a primary source of data informing the hypotheses that were initially posed. However, as detailed previously, solely questionnaire-based quantitative data may provide only limited insight into the issue as they are, essentially, intended for examining respondents' personal attitudes and opinions. Consequently, there is always a question of objectivity of the data as all information is reported through the respondents who may filter and interpret reality surrounding them rather than objectively, independently inform about it.

Once the final design of the questionnaire was prepared, it also served as a framework for the foci of the observations. As it was intended to use the qualitative evidence as a support source for the quantitative one, it was also necessary to identify the relevant topics that needed to be followed during the observations. At that point the observation sheets were created so that it was possible to keep an organized record of field notes that were immediately divided according to a common basic topic. This topic, then, correlated with topics covered by the quantitative research. We explicate the correlations in the present sub-section. The implications of the combined findings are discussed in the following section (see Section 8).

When comparing the two parts of the research the following significant correlations were discovered:

Correlations	Qualitative findings	Quantitative findings
Accuracy vs. Fluency	The findings showed that, generally, respondents valued fluency more than accuracy. Nonetheless, accuracy was of a higher than average importance for about one third of the respondents. Some textual comments showed that in real-life communicative situations some respondents emphasised mainly the abilities to communicate and comprehend. A number of participants reported tolerance towards language modifications of their partners and	During the observed lesson the Sts placed a lot of focus on producing accurate language. The Ts supported this habit by high frequency of corrective feedback. The Sts appeared to be less preoccupied with accuracy when they communicated with their peers than with the Ts. The Sts did not object, in any way, to the amount of correction received. They received corrections in spite of the fact that sometimes it was difficult for them to

	sometimes also to their own. In the classroom, however, they expected the T to keep them aware of whether they express themselves accurately or not.	finish an utterance once interrupted by T's correction. Sts performed self- rather than peer- correction.
Language creativity, languaging	Respondents commented that they are more tolerant to language creativity of others than of their own. A significant number of participants claimed that they were able to identify, at least partially, language modifications used by someone else (or by themselves). Some of the participants expressed beliefs that they are learning the language strictly to "express themselves correctly."	Language creativity was observed only in case of one S and it was an example of linguistic creation within NS norms and rules (virtual language as a resource). Otherwise the Sts were encouraged to respect NS language rules and tried to emulate them. There was not much space given for getting creative with the language. Sometimes it appeared that the preoccupation with normative language was, actually, interfering with fluency, causing the Sts to hesitate often or to leave their utterances unfinished.
Language models	The respondents reported that, in majority, at least one of their language models, as they may have more, was a NNS. There was also a group of respondents who identify NSs as their language models. Some participants specified which variety they prefer, e.g.: most commonly "British English." However, the models showed not to be necessarily identical with the respondents' goals, as those commonly emphasized mainly getting a message across, with less focus on accuracy and normativity.	The Sts were provided with NS models and rules (e.g. in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, language usage, sentence structure). When communicating on a 'more official' basis with the T, the Sts appeared to produce more careful speech in order to be more correct than when they spoke with their peers. Sometimes it was not very clear whether communicating was the main aim or whether it was the production of accurate speech.
Learner goals and lesson content	Learners reported that among the major goals they had belonged communication during travelling, communication in school, improving their communicative skills in general, passing a language exam, communication with family and friends, communication in workplace, and reading books. Some respondents detailed their answers in written comments and stated that their main desire was to communicate and comprehend meaning.	The lessons were planned according to the level and assigned syllabus of the course. In every lesson the Sts did at least some work in a course-book. Real-life communication was simulated rather rarely. Mostly, the lessons were focused on learning and practicing certain target language (TL), therefore, the Sts completed exercises, gap-fills, dictations and translations. Sts' own active language production was rather limited.
Emphasis on communication	Based on several questionnaire items, the respondents value communication highly. They seem to place less emphasis on native-like accuracy.	Authentic communication was modelled during the lessons only rarely. Also, the Sts were not always informed how to interconnect the TL they focused on during the lesson with their practical language needs.

Figure 36 Quantitative and Qualitative research correlations

Based on the results of both the quantitative and the qualitative parts of the study, the following section presents correlation of the findings with our original hypotheses (see section 2.1) and, hence, the results are used for their verification.

8. Discussion of findings

8.1.1. Learner attitudes to goals, accuracy, and language creativity

This sub-section focuses on the gathered data that were considered to relate to the first hypothesis of our research.

In the quantitative survey this hypothesis was addressed in question items 2 to 7 and 10 (see section 7.1.1 for detailed report on the items), as well as, in the observations conducted as it presupposed that the reported attitudinal data and findings from an authentic classroom environment would need to be collected in order to test it.

Questionnaire items 2 to 4 were supposed to collect information about respondents' potential setting, interlocutors and CSs in which they would need to employ English. Generally, the most common answers gathered from data of the three items suggested that students mainly communicated with NNSs. Respondents also desired, most strongly, to use English in order to become even more skilled in communicating in general. Consequently, it appears that the respondents' motivation for using English was mainly practically oriented with lesser focus on language explicit goals. The NNS interlocutors may suggest the respondents' familiarity with variation in English or the need to become familiar with it in order to communicate effectively. On the other hand, there were respondents who considered developing their grammar and passing a standardized exam as their key goals, the same as those who identified their interlocutors as being primarily NSs. Therefore, we can see a mixture of EFL and ELF oriented goals. That is something that has appeared to be an emerging characteristic of Lingua Franca communications. The present study was not able to identify, however, whether such the participants set such heterogeneous goals consciously or subconsciously.

The next set of three questionnaire (Q5, 6, and 7) items enquired about language models, goals and preference towards accuracy versus fluency. It was discovered that the most common language model is, for the highest number of respondents, one of the standard codified NS varieties of English (93; 40,43%), i.e. BrE or GA. Only about 6% less respondents preferred NNS models whose level was native-like. Close behind were preferences for NNSs who do not use native-like English but they are able to communicate without problems. It could be observed that, jointly, it is the NNSs who are favoured as language models. The respondents were also asked to share their language and communicative goals. It was revealed that their strongest desire is the ability to communicate fluently in an international setting. Interaction at near native-like level and the ability to communicate effectively even with limited language resources are the two following most often named goals (all three reinforcing the findings discussed in preceding paragraphs). The fourth most commonly picked goal was to communicate fluently at the level of a NS. This shows that while the most common language models were NSs there was a difference between models and goals, as the latter were motivated by a NNS perspective more than a NS one. The questionnaire item 7 informed us that it is fluency that is considered more important by the respondents than accuracy. Accuracy, however, is still seen as an important asset.

Lastly, the scale in item 10 focused on the respondents expressing their attitudes towards accuracy and language modifications. It demonstrated that the participants consider themselves to be capable of identifying modifications and that they are also quite tolerant towards them in speech of the others. However, the tolerance to their own mistakes was much lower and the respondents also commonly claimed that they wished their teacher to correct them as often as possible, although, some of them preferred to obtain feedback finally while others immediately after producing a modification.

Next, it was our goal to compare these findings with the notes from the observation sheets in order to see, whether there was a discrepancy between what the respondents reported and what actually happened in the classes. It could not be concluded that during the lessons the participants would be clearly encouraged to communicate and to better their communicative skills. Sometimes the students appeared restricted by their own sense of accuracy and they faced challenges of expressing themselves. Most of the time the lessons focused on target language presentation and practice activities; on receptive skills, drills and written exercises. Therefore, the students' reported importance of communication was not reflected by the content of the lessons observed. Similar situation was noted in the case of language models. In the lessons the participants were provided with strictly NS models. They were informed about normative grammar rules and they practiced British pronunciation (as produced in most cases by Czech NN teachers). There was no mention of potential NNS interlocutors that the students could and, probably regularly do, encounter in real-situations, and how this could influence the communication. Consequently, if one considers language goals and creativity it did not appear that the content of the lessons truly encouraged the students' development in communication skills and techniques. The students were also not introduced to varying English accents, conventions, skills and techniques that may be more applicable in international settings with, predominantly, NNS interlocutors. Thus, there was a clash between the students' reported goals and motivations and the classroom practice.¹⁰³

On the other hand, there were also points discovered in the questionnaire data that were confirmed by the observed lessons. Such cases were, for example, the students' reported and observed attitudes and tolerance towards language and language creativity. While the students

¹⁰³It was somehow expected that the students would not be taught within the ELF paradigm as the majority of teachers is not ELF-informed (see Quinn Novotná 2013) and ELF didactics is one of current research topics in the field (Jenkins 2012; Quinn Novotná, Grosser, and Dunková 2013, Cogo and Bowles forthcoming 2014).

showed themselves as tolerant towards the language production of their peers, on the whole, fluency seemed to be more valued than accuracy. The respondents also admitted that they wanted to express themselves correctly and that eliminating mistakes was the point of their study and language use. In this case the lessons offered a perfect match as their focus on accuracy was clearly detectable and the students appeared to accept it and they were willingly correcting their own mistakes or letting the teacher correct them. In many instances, the amount of the repair time was significant for both teachers and students. Consequently, it could be inferred that those respondents who placed emphasis on accuracy, probably, considered the lesson content matching their needs and goals. The opposite might be said about the respondents who commonly operate in international, i.e. less N-bound settings, and whose main focus is fluent communication.

8.1.2. Learner goals vs. teacher expectations

The second hypothesis focused on students' goals. The mixed-method nature of the present research was extremely relevant in this case as it was necessary to be able to, on order to test our assumption, compare our questionnaire data with the situation observed in the classrooms.

Goals were the topic of question items 6, 8, 9, 10, and marginally also 11. It was discovered (Q6) that the most common motivation for learning and using English, was the ability to “communicate in an international environment” (152 respondents, 66,09%). The following two most important reasons were the ability to “communicate fluently near the level of a NS” and to “pass a chosen exam” (with most of the exams specified in the commentaries being one of the Cambridge exams or a state Exam from English language). Therefore, students at the surveyed language schools seem to have different goals at the same time, which, however, are not mutually exclusive; on the contrary, they complement one another. This attests the importance and utility of working within both the EFL and ELF paradigms. On the one hand, the

respondents mostly want to be intelligible and competent in an international environment and they do not wish to reach exactly native-like level of proficiency; on the other hand, more than one third of the respondents (97; 42,17%) learn and use English to become “near” proficient as NSs and there is also a significant number of participants whose motivation is passing a standardized language exam. Such mixture of motivations and aims can be quite challenging for the teacher as it demands focus on both normativity according to NS models and utility of the language learned in the international setting (which are goals that may or may not always overlap).

We also asked students to determine how their teachers monitored their goals, especially initially during the course (Q8). The highest number of participants stated that their teacher did not inquire about their goals (100; 46,48%). This suggests that often students are somehow expected to trust their teachers that they are able to assess their goals as the courses proceed. This can have direct influence on the lessons and learning as it means that not only there is a danger of the teacher leading the course to a different direction than the attendees need, but also that teachers seem to be used to not gathering genuine information about their students’ motivations and aims. Consequently, there may be not much space for needs and goals negotiation and discussion during the lessons as well. This was, actually, reflected during the observations as it was never observed that students would talk with the teacher about what they wanted and how they thought it may have been beneficial for them to do it. In two observed lessons of an exam preparatory course the main goal of the students was rather clearly set, i.e. the aim was to pass the particular language proficiency exam. There still probably are differences in what the students hoped to work on during the lessons and why they needed it. Regardless of the fact that, from a personal experience, it happens quite commonly that exam preparation courses are frequented by people who do not, in fact, intend to sit the exam, but they simply want to keep

their English at a certain level and they are comfortable with doing it this way. Thus, even in such relatively focused courses there is quite a legitimate need for monitoring of the students' wants and goals.'

In Q9 the respondents told us that in majority they feel at least partially that they pursue their goals during the classes. About one fifth of the respondent group stated that they thought, they were not making much of a progress in their studies. Interestingly, not all those who answered in such a way were the same participants that said their goals were not researched by their teacher. There were respondents reporting they, initially, wrote a grammar test in order to assess their proficiency. Although it would require much further research, such information might imply that this kind of testing is not really informative about genuine learner needs and goals. Generally, the results speak of the importance of assessing and enquiring about why the students want to learn and use English as it is then more likely that the lesson content will develop learner abilities in the desired ways.

The question items 10 and 11 were intended to find out how students approach accuracy and fluency, hence, to estimate how much they would like to be accurate or fluent when using English. The results showed that fluency and comprehension were stressed as the most important aspects when communicating. The respondents also admitted that they were often quite tolerant towards language creativity and modifications of others but not of their own. Although fluency was evaluated as more important than accuracy, the latter one was still assessed as more than "somehow important" in most cases. In Q10 the majority of the respondents (137; 60,53%) reported that they expected and wanted to be corrected by their teacher every time they made a language modification. Once again, the recurring theme of mixing of the N-bound and C-bound attitudes and aims appears to be present here. A preliminary conclusion could perhaps be that although the majority of students desired to be competent in an

international environment with diverse interlocutors, they assume that this may be well achieved through normativity and accuracy.

The fact that many of the participating students are oriented, at least partially, towards NS models and use of English was also visible during the observations. Mostly, students were demanded to be accurate and they complied with it. Hence, the above mentioned requirement about the frequency of teacher correction seems to be widely satisfied. Students were also used to learning and respecting NS language norms since they were presented no other alternatives. As already mentioned above, we did not witness any discussion regarding needs, wants, preferences, motivations, or goals, or anything related to these factors.

8.1.3. Accuracy, fluency and international setting

The third hypothesis assumed that it would be helpful to students if they were able to communicate with international interlocutors without being overly focused on their own accuracy, since there are also other aspect of communication that are important and may be, at given points, even more significant for conveying a message than correctness.

As already related in the previous two sections, many of the participating students viewed accuracy, NS models and norms as important aspects of their learning (Q7, 10 and 11). Additionally, the students also appeared to have realized how important English was internationally as the majority of them claimed that communication with international interlocutors was common and significant as well (Q2, 3 and 6). Noticeably, students also placed a lot of emphasis on understanding, comprehensibility, tolerance and fluency during communicative situations. Based on the quantitative findings, therefore, we could assume that the participants would definitely benefit from the knowledge of other skills or strategies they can

use during communication to make it successful than keeping accurate (since accuracy is not commonly observed during international interactions¹⁰⁴).

A similar conclusion was drawn when it was observed during the lessons that fluency and the ability to express thoughts in a comprehensible way were usually quite challenging for the learners. The teachers' answers to their students' problems were usually target language explanations or practice focused on N-bound language comprehension and usage. As reported in our qualitative research section (7.2), it was felt that the learners were not encouraged to work on their fluency and communicative abilities. Consequently, it took them more time and a lot of effort to produce accurate utterances and sometimes the students for the immense struggle to formulate their message correctly left their speech unfinished. Additionally, in all lessons (except, partially, the one on CAE preparation), the learners appeared to be rather reluctant to work together (e.g. in pair-work activities) and to communicate cooperatively in English. It is probably unnecessary to state that this reluctance, and possibly also shyness or nervousness, was even more prominent in most of the cases when the students communicated with the teachers.

Such situation may also be a reflection of the partial respondents' dissatisfaction with the orientation of the classes towards their goals. It seems that as far as accuracy, NS models and norms are considered the students could be satisfied, as those aspects were visibly incorporated into the lessons. However, fluency practice and development of communicative abilities were not included nearly as often. Thus, students may be knowledgeable about the language but find it problematic to apply this knowledge when interacting. In this respect, therefore, it may be inferred that students would benefit from dividing their lesson focus among accuracy and other strategies or/and aspects of successful communication.

¹⁰⁴ See, for example: Seidlhofer (2005: 340), Cogo and Dewey (2006: 73), Dewey (2007:347), Jenkins (2009b: 201).

9. Conclusions

The present thesis began by grounding our topic in the theoretical background of the EFL and ELF paradigms and several important concepts we also presented. We illustrated the different stances of the two paradigms towards language mistakes, goals and models and language creativity. Shortly, terminological complexities were explained. The notions of languaging, languagers and virtual language were also described as they were considered to be key aspects of ELF paradigms related to our research.

In order to summarize the main conclusions the following section provides a recapitulation of the original impetus for the research. Next, this section contains a set of findings based on the results discussed throughout the thesis. These findings are juxtaposed with the original hypotheses, research questions and general purpose of the study.

Overall, the aim of this work was to reveal and report facts concerning the state of foreign language education with respect to norms, language models, and goals at private language schools in the Czech Republic. We focussed on adult students with proficiency above pre-intermediate level. We planned to gather a comprehensive body of quantitative and qualitative and present them as useful resources for determining students', and partially also teachers', perception of the English language. Special attention was paid to whether they were aware of the necessity to be able to use English in international settings and how that may influence their goals, preferences regarding accuracy, fluency and language creativity.

First, we detected a prominent clash, between the students' individual goals and their attitudes to language models, and their learning motivations and goals. Based on the respondents' answers, we observe that the students operate both within the EFL and the ELF paradigms, i.e. their responses show are characterized by a mixture of N-bound and C-bound preferences and/or

NS-oriented and NNS-oriented goals and attitudes towards accuracy and motivation for learning. Put more explicitly, what seems to be common in this respondent group is that the students have NS language models while their goals and learning motivations are more oriented towards communication in international settings. The students also reported quite a strong emphasis on fluency and accuracy. Although they claimed to value fluency more, accuracy was still rated as very relevant.

The participants also supplied a mixture of opinions concerning language modifications¹⁰⁵ and corrections. While they stressed that communication and comprehension were crucial they often also insisted on attempting to produce as correctly as possible. Moreover, they were much more tolerant towards the modifications of their interlocutors than to their own. Some participants also pointed out that there is a difference in their expectations during language lessons and during authentic communication. In the former, accuracy and normativity are regarded as much desirable; in the latter, however, modifications are accepted and perceived as natural for both sides. Consequently, it appears that the students are aware of the currently predominant international or lingua franca use of English and they feel are capable orienting their goals towards CSs which are characteristic of multinational and multilingual environments. Some of the surveyed students accept (proficient) NNSs as their language models.¹⁰⁶ Others, however, preserve NS models while still covering aims of more international and attainable nature.¹⁰⁷

¹⁰⁵ Meaning: ‘mistakes.’ Our term was selected to be used instead of the more traditional one due to its less evaluative and more neutral nature.

¹⁰⁶ Which is in agreements with similar claims of Jenkins in Jenkins (2009: 217); Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011: 306); Jenkins (2012: 487).

¹⁰⁷ Such development of seeming discrepancy between learner goals and language models was discussed at the last ELF international conference in Rome (09/2013). Scholars such as Martin Dewey noted that this situation was quite appropriate as the learners are obviously able to distinguish between models and goals, and while they know that becoming their model may be impossible their goals, which are usually not so normative, are achievable. This

The heterogeneous focus of respondents' models, goals and attitudes was traceable thorough data from all the question items. Its influence was observable also on the conclusions drawn from the data related to our second and third hypothesis. The majority of participants reported that they were partially pursuing their goals during their language lessons. Based on the survey findings and on observations it was inferred that it is accuracy and normativity that are satisfied during the courses. Less attention is paid to developing knowledge and skills for successful international communication. In class, the emphasis on accuracy was noticeable and the students were encouraged to use English correctly (i.e. as close as possible to NS norms) rather than trying to express their ideas in any possible understandable way (languaging). Partially, this could be caused by the fact that some respondents claimed their teachers did not enquire about their goals at the start of the course or that they only examined their proficiency level by a written grammar test or an interview. Consequently, more thorough and rigorous monitoring of learners' true goals and motivation may be beneficial in order to ensure and provide English language instruction that satisfies a wider range of students' needs.¹⁰⁸ The intense stress on accuracy of utterances was sometimes seen as intimidating and very discouraging for the students and it often caused them to struggle during production, sometimes so much that they left their utterances unfinished.

As said previously, nowadays it is still mainly accuracy that is the core focus of language courses at private language schools in the Czech Republic. This state is also partially in

'configuration' of students could also be, actually, ideal for employing ELF-oriented approach to teaching and learning English. As the learners would still have NS speakers as the ultimate representatives of English usage there should not be any issue with deterioration of their learning where 'anything goes.' Rather, while keeping the NS models intact the learners are capable of suiting their goals to current circumstances according to the setting in which they need English and their interlocutors. Therefore, they may benefit from learning about languaging and creativity, typical international CSs characteristics, or about ELF communicative strategies. Not only that having more realistic goals enhance learner and user motivation and satisfaction (recent research suggests that confidence is key for a successful ELF user; see Cogo and Dewey, forthcoming 2014), but also being informed about the nature and specifics of international CSs would definitely aid successful communication.

¹⁰⁸ For comparable results see Quinn Novotná (2013: 242).

accordance with preferences of the students. However, it appears that the learners are also oriented towards practical language usage in international settings they tend to value communicative fluency and comprehensibility very highly. Therefore, offering students a possibility of focusing on both accuracy and communicative competence would probably prove to be more suitable to the needs and goals of a modern English user. Despite all those facts it should be admitted that it is quite demanding to expect the teachers and schools to try and conduct their lessons in more diverse, or international, way. For that, they have to be ELF-informed themselves.

Finally, it can be said that the current state of English language instruction at private institutions in the Czech Republic is somehow ambivalent. The students, their goals appear to be gradually moving in the direction of English use in international settings which may, consequently, influence their general attitudes to language learning.¹⁰⁹ At the same time, N-bound values are still being preserved, especially NS language models and focus on accuracy. It appears that in the current turbulent times of fast-paced life and ever-changing personal needs the language schools find it challenging to accommodate their students, especially when the teachers received little training concerning the ELF paradigm and ELF-informed instruction and about how to best combine findings from both of these ‘complementary’ (see Quinn Novotná 2012: 257) (EFL and EFL) paradigms. At the institutions normativity and native speakerism appear to be still very strongly grounded. This may be the cause of some current language learners to be only partially satisfied with their progress in learning. Hence, while some students may be advancing towards benefiting from ELF-informed learning and teaching, our data show that the private language schools do not seem to have had a chance to react.

¹⁰⁹ The future shift away from the strictly formal instruction and more emphasis placed on abilities related to language use and communication were already predicted by Howatt, (2004: 354).

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Résumé

Úvod

Tato práce se zabývá novodobým fenoménem Angličtiny jako lingua franca (English as a Lingua Franca, ELF), jehož výzkum vzrostl zejména za posledních dvacet let.¹¹⁰ ELF je definován jako angličtina, která je používána v tzv. lingua franca situacích (LF) tedy těch, kterých se účastní především nerodilí mluvčí.

Počet nerodilých mluvčích se stále zvyšuje, a stoupá také četnost LF situací, ve kterých je ELF využíván. Studijní otázkou je, jakým způsobem by se tento trend měl odrazit ve výuce anglického jazyka. Zatímco do nedávné doby se výzkum této variety orientoval především na její definici a na shromáždění dostatečné teoretické základny, nyní se hlavní pozornost přesouvá právě na didaktické aspekty a implikaci těchto poznatků ve vzdělávání učitelů a studentů. Tato práce se rovněž orientuje tímto směrem a jako první vůbec se zabývá mapováním současných preferencí studentů angličtiny ve vztahu k jazykovým modelům, jazykovým cílům a gramatické správnosti, a rozvíjí téma jazykové kreativity (jinak také *linguaging*).

Práce je rozdělena na dvě hlavní části, a to teoretickou a empirickou. Teoretická část se v první řadě zabývá motivací pro volbu tohoto vysoce aktuálního didaktického tématu a vymezuje základní charakteristiky paradigmatu ELF. Dále staví ELF do kontrastu s paralelním paradigmatem Angličtiny jako cizího jazyka (English as a Foreign Language, EFL) a také ji zevrubně odlišuje od ostatních teoretických konceptů reprezentujících existenci mezinárodních, či světových, angličtin (World Englishes, WEs). Nakonec jsou v této části představeny klíčové pojmy a to z pohledu obou zmíněných paradigmat (EFL a ELF).

¹¹⁰ Viz Quinn Novotná (2012: 46-47).

Část empirická popisuje tvorbu, pilotování a průběh dotazníkového šetření, stejně jako postup při provádění a zaznamenávání observací v hodinách. Nakonec jsou v ní uvedeny výsledky získané z obou složek studie a jejich diskuse, ve které jsou nastíněny jejich případné implikace pro situaci ve výuce angličtiny na soukromých jazykových školách v České Republice.

Teoretická část práce

Druhá teoretická podkapitola vymezuje hlavní hypotézy a výzkumné otázky práce. Základní hypotézy se týkají:

- a) Rozporu mezi jazykovými cíli a názory studentů na jazykovou kreativitu a správnost.
- b) Cílů studentů a jejich možnému rozporu s představami učitelů.
- c) Dále v práci předpokládáme, že znalost charakteristik úspěšné mezinárodní komunikace v anglickém jazyce by mohla být výhodou jak pro studenty, tak pro vyučující.

Třetí podkapitola vysvětluje, čím je zaměření této studie přínosné pro současnou vědeckou i výukovou praxi. Zatím co se v zahraničí ELFu věnuje čím dál tím více pozornosti, v České republice je zatím tomuto fenoménu věnováno pozornosti poměrně málo. Znovu se zde opakuje, jak je důležitá role anglického jazyka jako LF pro současnou celosvětovou komunikaci.¹¹¹ Jak bylo naznačeno v úvodu, v návaznosti na aktuální odbornou literaturu v rámci širší specializace Světových angličtin se tato práce zabývá především praktickou stránkou aplikace výzkumu ELF ve výukové praxi. Dále vymezujeme pojem jazykové chyby (či inovace, podle např. Becker 2000, Hülbauer 2007, Widdowson 2008, Firth 2009, Seidlhofer 2011, nebo Jenkins 2012), a ukazujeme odlišující se přístup k ní v rámci paradigmat EFL a ELF. Chybu také nahlížíme v souvislosti s jazykovými cíli a motivací obecně.

¹¹¹ Crystal (2003) zvažuje převzetí jednoho univerzálního mezinárodního jazyka.

Čtvrtá podkapitola nastiňuje terminologický problém, který představuje vymezení a použití názvu ELF ve vztahu k ostatním příbuzným, či podobným, konceptům nových světových angličtin a mezinárodní angličtiny. ELF je představen jako samostatné paradigma, které je paralelní s ostatními varietami, např. s World Englishes (variety vnějšího kruhu) a varietami vnitřního kruhu (Inner Circle varieties). Dále je ELF odlišen od přechodových variant¹¹², např. Learner English (LE), a interlanguage¹¹³. Podkapitola také zmiňuje současnou pozici ELFu ve světě a v České republice a studie tak nepřímo navazuje na nedávnou práci (Quinn Novotná 2012), která zkoumá, zda učitelé anglického jazyka v České republice znají (funkční) varietu ELF a jak se k tomuto konceptu staví jako k možnému základu pro učební paradigma. Klíčové pojmy, ze kterých práce teoreticky vychází, jsou jazyková kreativita (neboli *linguaging*, viz Phipps 2007 a Seidlhofer 2011), kreativní mluvčí (neboli *linguagers*), a virtuální jazyk (zdroj jazykové kreativity, neboli *virtual language*, viz Widdowson 2003).

V poslední teoretické podkapitole jsou hlavními tématy chyba a jazykové cíle pohledem paradigmat EFL a ELF. V tradiční výuce (paradigma EFL) je hlavním cílem studia angličtiny přiblížení se idealizovanému modelu rodilého mluvčího. Z pohledu paradigmatu ELF jsou naopak chyby považovány za jazykové odchylky a jsou popsány jako inovace, nebo modifikace¹¹⁴, které mohou být legitimními prostředky pro zajištění úspěšné komunikace. Dále bylo pak také důležité zdůraznit význam komunikativních cílů ve vztahu k motivaci studentů a uživatelů jazyka a jejich dosažitelnosti (viz např. Kirkpatrick 2006).

¹¹² Neboli varianty, které naznačují prozatímní neúplné osvojení jazyka. Viz také Choděra (2006: 41) a ‘mezijazyk’.

¹¹³ Interlanguage se někdy do češtiny překládá jako ‘pidgin’.

¹¹⁴ *Modifikace* je nový neutrální termín pro chybu či inovaci a byl poprvé v tomto smyslu použit v této práci.

Empirická část

První kapitola empirické části se zabývá představením výzkumného projektu a popisuje metodologii, která při něm byla použita. Zvolili jsme metodu smíšenou (neboli mixed-method research, viz např. Creswell 2003 a Dörnyei 2007), která umožňuje shromažďovat jak kvantitativní, tak kvalitativní data. Tímto způsobem je možné získat hlubší a objektivnější vhled do problematiky, než za použití pouze jedno-druhové metody sběru dat. V metodologické části dále přibližujeme jednotlivé složky výzkumu, čím byly motivovány, a postup při výběru respondentů. Účastníci tohoto výzkumu byli studenti v anglických jazykových kurzech na soukromých jazykových školách v Praze, Brně, Ostravě a Plzni. Na vyplňování online dotazníku se dohromady podílelo 230 studentů ze všech čtyř zmíněných měst. Všechny observace (celkem jedenáct hodin se uskutečnilo ve vybrané jazykové škole v Praze v kurzech angličtiny pro veřejnost.

Kapitola sedmá je stěžejní podkapitolou této práce. Kvantitativní výzkum provedený formou dotazníkového šetření byl základním zdrojem dat pro celý tento projekt. Analýza těchto výsledků je prezentována v několika samostatných částech a doplněna grafickými znázorněními. Odhaluje především to, že studenti jsou výrazně orientovaní na úspěch a porozumění při komunikaci. Dále také kladou důraz na správnost svých promluv, ačkoliv k ostatním nerodilým mluvčím, tedy svým partnerům při konverzaci, jsou v tomto směru mnohem tolerantnější. Respondenti také ukázali, že jsou často schopní dobře rozlišovat mezi reálnou komunikací a komunikací při výuce, protože v závislosti na tomto rozlišení se mění i jejich nároky a jazykové preference.

Výsledky, které byly zaznamenány během observací, jsou prezentovány v pěti tematických sekcích: socio-lingvistická historie účastníků, cíle kurzu a vyučované hodiny, potřeby studentů, normy, gramatická správnost, jazyková kreativita a nakonec náplň hodiny.

Data zachycená v záznamech observací svědčí o tom, že studenti nemají vždy možnost v hodinách směřovat ke splnění svých hlavních cílů. Zatímco požadavky studentů v rámci procvičování a upevňování správného používání angličtiny a jejich pravidel byly plně pokryty, v hodinách bylo velmi málo prostoru pro volné a jazykově kreativní aktivity. Studenti tak neměli možnost získané znalosti dostatečně vyzkoušet a nějakým způsobem je pak aplikovat při dosahování vlastních jazykových cílů. Pro vykreslení přesnějšího obrazu zkoumané cílové skupiny usouvztažňujeme data zaznamenaná při observacích v hodinách s daty získanými v dotazníkovém šetření.

Závěrečná diskuse výsledků propojuje nově získané poznatky s počátečními hypotézami a výzkumnými otázkami a konstatuje, že (funkční) varieta ELF a paradigma ELF se skutečně zdají být relevantní a to jak pro studenty, tak pro jejich učitele. Bylo zjištěno, že studenti a jejich přístup k cílům, modelům, chybám a správnosti se zřejmě vyvíjí dvojím směrem. Na jednu stranu si studenti stále velmi cení rodilých mluvčích, a v jistém smyslu se na ně i orientují. Na stranu druhou bylo možné usoudit, že jedním z hlavních potřeb a přání studentů je stát se schopnými uživateli a mluvčími angličtiny v mezinárodním prostředí, kdy nejvíce komunikují a budou komunikovat s dalšími nerodilými mluvčími. Výsledky dále také poukázaly na to, někteří učitelé nestanovují cíle a potřeby svých studentů přesně, a proto je pak možné, že se na ně nedostatečně během hodin zaměřují. Tolerance k jazykové kreativitě a inovaci je u některých účastníků výzkumu značná, nicméně zejména pokud mluvčí posuzují ostatní partnery v komunikaci. Mnoho respondentů tvrdilo, že v sebereflexi bývají kritičtější. Na svou vlastní gramatickou správnost kladou respondenti stále nemalý důraz (i když někteří pouze v prostředí výuky, nikoliv cizojazyčné komunikace).

Závěr

V závěrech znovu uvádíme a shrnujeme nejdůležitější zjištění z obou částí výzkumu. Předně poukazujeme na silnou tendenci studentů volit za jazykové modely mluvčí rodilých variant angličtiny, zatímco za své jazykové cíle si stanovují schopnost plynule a efektivně komunikovat v mezinárodním prostředí a za přítomnosti mezinárodních mluvčí jako partnerů. Tuto skutečnost pak dáváme do spojitosti s našimi hypotézami a uvádíme, že ve spojitosti s cíli velké části respondentů by bylo bezpochyby vhodné věnovat se možnosti zapojení poznatků z paradigmatu ELF do výuky. Polemizujeme, že by nejlepší možnou volbou mohla být kombinace obou paradigmat ELF i EFL a tím by se nejlépe dalo vyhovět různorodým preferencím studentů. Při aplikaci přístupů a metod z dvou paradigmat by také učitelé značně rozšířili svou teoretickou i praktickou znalost učení a tím by byli více připraveni reagovat na vývoj požadavků svých studentů (čímž jsme potvrdili naši třetí hypotézu). Podobný názor je v nynější době součástí světové diskuse o ELFu a je také v souladu s již několikaletými prohlášeními předních představitelů tohoto odvětví, kteří tvrdí, že ELF rozhodně není a nemá se stát monolitickou varietou angličtiny (viz Jenkins 2009, 2012, Seidlhofer 2011 a Dewey 2012).

Také jsme v závěrech připomenuli vztah respondentů k chybě a jazykové správnosti a s ním spojený fakt, že je rovněž založen na dvou poněkud odlišných pohledech. Studenti jsou tedy velmi tolerantní k ostatním partnerům v komunikaci, ovšem sami k sobě jsou často z hlediska korektnosti velmi přísní a vyžadují po učitelích časté opravování. Ve vztahu k učitelům jsme také mohli usoudit, že se v jazykových kurzech a hodinách může stát, že učitel si není (zcela) vědom požadavků a očekávání svých studentů. Je to zapříčiněno tím, že ne každý učitel se dostatečně věnuje zjišťování jazykových cílů a zaměřuje se pouze na určení jazykové úroveň studentů. V observacích bylo tedy patrné, že cíle, které studenti uváděli, a které byly spojené se znalostí pravidel a jazykovou správností pokryty byly, avšak cíle týkající se jejich

přání stát se úspěšnými mezinárodními mluvčími nebyly v hodinách adresovány vůbec. Tyto výsledky tedy zcela potvrdily naši první a částečně i druhou hypotézu.

Současná studie se zaměřila především na **popsání** nynější situace v soukromém sektoru vzdělávání anglického jazyka a kladla důraz hlavně na názory a přístupy studentů. Pro další rozvoj problematiky výuky podle paradigmat EFL a ELF by bylo vhodné spojit poznatky z této studie s těmi, které byly doposud získány příbuzným výzkumem¹¹⁵). Následně by bylo možné posoudit výsledky obou stran, které se přímo účastní výuky, a stanovit tak podmínky, za kterých by bylo nejlepší inovovat současnou výuku v České republice tak, aby byla aktuální ve vztahu k nejnovějšímu vývoji anglického jazyka.

¹¹⁵ V českém kontextu např. Quinn Novotná (2012, 2013).

Appendices

Appendix 1 Pilot questionnaire

Aims, motivation, attitudes – a questionnaire for other language speakers of English

1. "I hereby certify that I am participating in this research voluntarily and I agree to the information I provide being used for the purpose of this study."

Yes

No

2. With whom do/will you mostly communicate in English?

- a) With native speakers (British, American, Canadian, Australian, etc.)
- b) With native and non-native speakers (non-native = English is not the first language)
- c) With non-native speakers
- d) Other (please specify): _____

3. In what environment do/will you communicate mostly in English?

- a) At home - family, friends, etc.
- b) At work - colleagues, superiors, etc.
- c) At school - teachers, students, etc.
- d) During travel - holidays, business trips, etc.
- e) Other (please specify): _____

4. Who is your language model? (Whose communicative skills would you like to have?)

- f) A native speaker (UK, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand)
- g) A native speaker of other variety (South Africa, etc.)
- h) A non-native speaker at the level of a native speaker
- i) A non-native speaker whose level might not be native-like but is able to communicate without problems
- j) Other (please specify): _____

5. Evaluate the following examples of reasons why you need to use English. Choose on a scale from 'very important' (1) to 'not important at all' (5)

	Very impor.					Not at all				
a) Communication with family	1	2	3	4	5					
b) Communication with friends	1	2	3	4	5					
c) Communication at school	1	2	3	4	5					
d) Communication during traveling	1	2	3	4	5					
e) Improving my communication skills	1	2	3	4	5					
f) Better knowledge of grammar	1	2	3	4	5					
g) Prospect of a better job	1	2	3	4	5					
h) Life and work in a foreign country	1	2	3	4	5					
i) Do well in a school exam	1	2	3	4	5					
j) Possibility of studying at a foreign university	1	2	3	4	5					
k) Interest in Anglophone cultures	1	2	3	4	5					

6. Generally, what are your language goals?

- a) Being able to communicate fluently at the level of a native speaker
- b) Being able to communicate fluently near the level of a native speaker
- c) Being able to communicate at the level of my English teacher (not a native speaker)
- d) Being able to communicate fluently in an international environment
- e) Being able to use even limited language resources effectively
- f) Being able to communicate at least somehow – survival English
- g) Being able to pass a chosen language exam
- h) Other (please specify): _____

7. Evaluate on a scale how important are the following two when communicating in English:

	Very import.					Not at all import.				
Accuracy	1	2	3	4	5					
Fluency	1	2	3	4	5					

8. How did your English teacher assess your language goals?

- a) A written questionnaire about our needs and goals
- b) A grammar test to determine our level
- c) A discussion about our needs and goals
- d) No assessment but I trust my teacher will be able to infer my goals during the lessons
- e) Other (please specify): _____

9. Mark on a scale how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Disagree					Agree				
a) I feel that I have a chance to follow my goals during my English lessons	1	2	3	4	5					
b) When I communicate in English I am able to notice when my partner uses a language innovation (e.g. <i>She work</i> instead of <i>she works</i> , or <i>konkurency</i> instead of <i>competition</i> , etc.)	1	2	3	4	5					
c) Every time when I use a language innovation myself I want to be corrected by the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5					
d) Commentary: _____										

10. Evaluate:

	Not at all import.		Somehow		Very Import.	
a) How important is it for you to communicate according to a native speaker norm?	1	2	3	4	5	
b) How important is it for you to communicate so that others can understand you?	1	2	3	4	5	
c) How important is it for you to be able to express yourself in English?	1	2	3	4	5	

11. Other questions:

- Gender: Male Female
- Age: under 15 15 – 20 21 – 30 31 – 40
 41 – 50 51 – 60 over 60
- Úroveň angličtiny: Elementary Pre-Intermediate Intermediate
 Upper-Intermediate Advanced Bi/multilingvní
- Národnost: _____

Appendix 2 Questionnaire – study proper

Cíle, motivace, postoje – dotazník pro studenty AJ na soukromých jazykových školách v ČR

1. „Tímto prohlašuji, že se tohoto výzkumu účastním dobrovolně a souhlasím, aby informace, které poskytnu, byly použity pro výzkumné účely.“

Ano

Ne

Poznámka: Všimněte si, prosím, že u otázek je často možné označit VÍCE ODPOVĚDÍ.

2. S kým nejčastěji komunikujete/budete komunikovat v angličtině?

- e) S rodilými mluvčími (Britové, Američané, Kanadčané, Australané, atd.)
 f) S rodilými i nerodilými mluvčími (nerodilý mluvčí = angličtina není jeho/její mateřský jazyk)
 g) S nerodilými mluvčími
 h) Jiné (upřesněte): _____

3. V jaké prostředí/situacích nejčastěji komunikujete/budete komunikovat v angličtině?

- k) Doma – s rodinou, přáteli, atd.
 l) V práci – kolegové, nadřízení, atd.
 m) Ve škole – spolužáci, učitelé, atd.
 n) Při cestování – prázdniny, obchodní cesty, atd.
 o) Jiné (upřesněte): _____

4. Ohodnoťte následující důvody, proč potřebujete používat angličtinu.

Vyberte na stupnici od „Velmi důležité“ (1) po „Naprostě nedůležité“ (5).

	Vel.důl.				Nap.nedůl.
l) Komunikace s rodinou	1	2	3	4	5
m) Komunikace s přáteli	1	2	3	4	5
n) Komunikace ve škole	1	2	3	4	5
o) Komunikace během cestování	1	2	3	4	5
p) Zlepšení mých komunikačních schopností	1	2	3	4	5
q) Zlepšení gramatiky	1	2	3	4	5
r) Možnost získání lepší práce	1	2	3	4	5
s) Možnost života v cizí zemi	1	2	3	4	5
t) Složení jazykové zkoušky	1	2	3	4	5
u) Možnost studia na univerzitě v cizí zemi	1	2	3	4	5
v) Zájem o anglofonní kultury	1	2	3	4	5
w) Četba v angličtině	1	2	3	4	5
x) Zde můžete okomentovat svou odpověď (např. jakou zkoušku chcete složit), či uvést jiné důvody: _____					

5. Kdo je Váš jazykový model? (Jako kdo byste rádi mluvili/psali?)

- a) Rodilí mluvčí (VB, USA, Kanada, Austrálie, Nový Zéland)
 b) Nerodilí mluvčí na úrovni rodilého mluvčího
 c) Nerodilí mluvčí, jejichž úroveň nemusí být jako u rodilého mluvčího, ale jsou schopni komunikovat bez problémů
 d) Jiný model (upřesněte): _____

6. Jaké jsou Vaše jazykové cíle?

Poznámka: Zaškrtněte vše, co odpovídá.

- i) Být schopný komunikovat plynule na úrovni rodilého mluvčího
 j) Být schopný komunikovat na úrovni blízké rodilému mluvčímu
 k) Být schopný komunikovat na úrovni mého učitele/učitelky angličtiny (nerodilý/á mluvčí)
 l) Být schopný komunikovat plynule v mezinárodním prostředí
 m) Být schopný komunikovat efektivně i s omezenými jazykovými prostředky
 n) Být schopný se nějak domluvit - tzv. Survival English (Angličtina pro přežití)
 o) Být schopný složit zvolenou jazykovou zkoušku
 p) Zde můžete upřesnit svou odpověď (např. jakou jazykovou zkoušku chcete složit), či uvést jiný cíl: _____

7. Ohodnoťte na stupnici od „Velmi důležité“ po „Naprostě nedůležité“, jak moc jsou pro Vás důležité následující dvě charakteristiky komunikace:

Poznámka:

Správnost = (gramaticky) správná komunikace, bez chyb, podle pravidel.

Plynulost = snadná komunikace, rychlé a pohotové reakce.

	Vel.důl.				Nap.nedůl.
Správnost	1	2	3	4	5
Plynulost	1	2	3	4	5

8. Jakým způsobem Váš učitel určil Vaše jazykové cíle?

- a) Písemným dotazníkem o mých potřebách a cílech
 b) Gramatickým testem pro určení mé úrovně
 c) Diskusí o mých potřebách a cílech
 d) Nijak přímo je neurčil, ale věřím, že je schopný mé cíle během výuky rozpoznat
 e) Jiným způsobem (upřesněte): _____

9. Ohodnoťte na stupnici od „Vůbec nesouhlasím“ po „Naprostě souhlasím“, do jaké míry souhlasíte s následujícím tvrzením:

Poznámka: Pokud je to možné, okomentujte svou odpověď.

Vůb.nes.

Nap.souhl.

- e) Cítím, že během hodin angličtiny mám možnost směřovat ke svým cílům. 1 2 3 4 5
 f) Komentář: _____

10. Vyznačte na stupnici, do jaké míry pro Vás osobně platí následující výroky:

- | | Platí | Někdy | Neplatí |
|--|-------|-------|---------|
| d) Když komunikuji v angličtině, jsem schopný/á poznat, když můj partner použije jazykovou odchylku. (Např. Místo 'she says' řekne 'she say', či místo 'competition' řekne 'konkurency', atp.) | 1 | 2 | 3 4 5 |
| e) Vadí mi, když můj partner použije jazykovou odchylku. | 1 | 2 | 3 4 5 |
| f) Pokaždé, když sám/a použiji jazykovou odchylku, chci, aby mě učitel opravil. | 1 | 2 | 3 4 5 |
| g) Prosím, okomentujte své odpovědi (co Vám vadí/nevadí na jazykových odchylkách/chybách, jakým způsobem a kdy si přejete být opravováni, atp.): _____ | | | |

11. Zhodnoťte (Naprostě nedůležité – Velmi důležité):

důl.	Nap. Ned.	Docela	Velmi
a) Je pro mě důležité komunikovat správně podle pravidel:	1	2	3 4 5
b) Je pro mě důležité komunikovat tak, aby mi ostatní rozuměli:	1	2	3 4 5
c) Je pro mě důležité být schopen/schopna v angličtině sdělit to, co potřebuji:	1	2	3 4 5

12. Údaje o respondentovi:

- Pohlaví: Muž Žena
 Věk:
 pod 15 15 – 20 21 – 30 31 – 40
 41 – 50 51 – 60 nad 60

Úroveň angličtiny:

- Elementary Pre-Intermediate Intermediate
 Upper-Intermediate Advanced Bi/multilingvní

Národnost:

Povolání:

Appendix 3 Observation sheet

GENERAL INFORMATION				
Teacher: Age Sex F M	NS	NNS	Number of Sts:	
	Variety			
Course level:	Beginner Elementary Pre-Intermediate Intermediate Upper-Intermediate Advanced		Level of Sts:	Beginner Elementary Pre-Intermediate Intermediate Upper-Intermediate Advanced
Course type:	General English Business English Exam preparation ESP Other:		Length of the lesson:	
Coursebook:	Yes	No	Types of interaction observed:	T – Sts Sts – T Individual work Pair work Group work Whole class work
	Name:			

COURSE / LESSON AIMS		
The overall aim of the course:		
The stated aim of the lesson:	YES / NO :	
The observed aim(s) of the lesson:	Comm.: Gramm.:	
	Tick / Cross	Commentary / Examples:
Sts seem to be working towards the overall aim of the course:		
Sts seem to be working towards the aim of the lesson:		
Sts appear to consider the lesson aim useful:		

STUDENTS' NEEDS		
	Tick / Cross	Commentary / Examples:
The class is homogenous (level).		
The class is heterogeneous.		
The T is able to find out what the Sts need.		
Sts express what they think they need during the lesson.		
The content of the lesson appears to be planned to suit the Sts.		
The content of the lesson appears to be planned according to a given school syllabus.		
The teacher modifies the lesson according to immediate Sts' needs.		
Sts ask questions.		
The T reacts to Sts' questions.		
The T provides comprehensible answers and explanations.		
NORMS, ACCURACY, LANGUAGING		
T corrects Sts:	Always Mostly	

	Sometimes Little Never	
	Tick / Cross	Commentary / Examples:
The T corrects according to a (NS) norm.		
The T corrects modifications which impede communication.		
Sts are encouraged to express themselves correctly.		
Sts are encouraged to express themselves.		
Sts appear to be mistake conscious (Self / Peer).		
Sts appear to be placing emphasis on correctness.		
Sts appear to be placing emphasis on communicative competence.		

LESSON CONTENT, LANGUAGE RESOURCES		
	Tick / Cross	Commentary / Examples:
Sts are instructed mainly about rules of language use.		
Sts are learning mainly through using language.		
The content of the lesson reflects the real-life usage of English.	ELF: EFL: NO:	
Sts are encouraged to “get the meaning across”.		
Sts are encouraged to speak only in English.		
Sts are encouraged to use their L1 or other Ls as resources.		
Sts are encouraged to cooperate with each other when communicating.		

Appendix 4 Q4 Detailed results

Evaluate the following examples of reasons why you need to use English. Choose on a scale from "Very important" (1) to "Not important at all" (5).							
Answer Options	Very important		Somehow		Not important at all	Rating Average	Response Count
Communication with family	10	6	16	25	144	4,43	201
Communication with friends	34	27	75	41	36	3,08	213
Communication at school	49	31	43	18	54	2,98	195
Communication during travelling	157	35	28	2	3	1,48	225
Improving my communication skills	158	32	26	3	2	1,46	221
Improving my knowledge of grammar	115	38	48	10	3	1,82	214
The prospect of getting a better job	121	34	31	9	18	1,92	213
The prospect of living and working in a foreign country	79	30	37	21	37	2,54	204
Do well in a language exam	84	29	37	33	28	2,49	211
Possibility of studying at a foreign university	45	18	25	29	76	3,38	193
Interest in Anglophone cultures	42	42	50	31	41	2,94	206
Reading in English	99	53	45	13	9	2,00	219

Note: Shades of gray are used strictly for better comfort of information reading. They do not have any specific meaning.