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## **Diplomová práce**

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The role of metalanguage in ELT

Role metajazyka ve výuce angličtiny jako cizího jazyka

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## **Poděkování**

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V neposlední řadě patří poděkování i mé rodině, která mi byla při psaní práce velkou oporou.

### **Prohlášení**

Prohlašuji, že jsem diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně, že jsem řádně citovala všechny použité prameny a literaturu a že práce nebyla využita v rámci jiného vysokoškolského studia či k získání jiného nebo stejného titulu.

V Praze, dne 14. srpna 2016

.....  
Lucie Masopustová

## **Abstrakt (česky)**

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá problematikou role metajazyka a metalingvistické terminologie ve výuce angličtiny jako cizího jazyka na českých gymnáziích. Na koncept metajazyka a metalingvistické terminologie je v práci nahlíženo jako na jeden z možných nástrojů pro studium a výuku anglické gramatiky. Teoretická část práce se zaměřuje mimo jiné na výhody a nevýhody použití metajazyka a terminologie ve výuce, a dále se zabývá tím, za jakých podmínek je vhodné metajazyk použít, tj. jaké proměnné mohou vstoupit do procesu výuky. Tato část práce také poskytuje přehled vybraných přístupů k výuce anglické gramatiky v souvislosti s použitím metajazyka a jeho terminologie v těchto přístupech, a zároveň shrnuje poznatky získané ze studií zabývajících se znalostí metalingvistické terminologie u studentů a u učitelů. Empirická část práce je založena na dotazníkovém šetření, které bylo provedeno mezi studenty a učiteli na českých gymnáziích. Výzkum je zaměřen na několik oblastí, kterými jsou: postoje a přesvědčení studentů a učitelů o studiu a výuce anglického jazyka a anglické gramatiky, přístup studentů a učitelů k metalingvistické terminologii, studenti a jejich znalost této terminologie, učitelé a jejich povědomí o metalingvistické znalosti studentů, a rovněž tak i použití této terminologie učiteli v praxi. Hlavním cílem výzkumu je vypořádat, zda-li existují podobnosti či rozdíly v odpovědích studentů a učitelů, a zároveň prozkoumat případné problematické aspekty výsledků dotazníkového šetření a navrhnout možná řešení těchto problémů.

## **Klíčová slova (česky)**

Výuka anglického jazyka, angličtina jako cizí jazyk, metajazyk, metalingvistická terminologie, výuka gramatiky, výuka angličtiny jako cizího jazyka, sekundární vzdělávání, studenti gymnázií, učitelé gymnázií

### **Abstract (in English)**

The thesis deals with the topic of the role of metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology in English Language Teaching at Czech grammar schools. The concepts of metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology are viewed as one of the potential educational tools in the field of learning and teaching English grammar. The theoretical part of the thesis focuses, among other things, on benefits and limitations of the use of metalanguage, and on the suitability of conditions for the use of metalanguage, i.e. on the variables which may affect the educational process are discussed in this part as well. Moreover, an overview of the approaches to teaching grammar in relation to the use of metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology is provided in this chapter together with the summary of findings obtained from the studies concerned with learners or teachers knowledge of metalinguistic terminology. The empirical part is based on the questionnaire survey among Czech grammar school students and teachers. The main areas examined in the research are: learners' and teachers' attitudes to and beliefs about learning and teaching English and English grammar, learners' and teachers' attitudes to metalinguistic terminology as well as learners' knowledge of the terminology and teachers' awareness of the knowledge and use of the terminology in practice. The primary aim of the research is to observe the similarities and differences in students' and teachers' responses and to examine the possible problematic aspects of the results from the survey and to propose a possible solution to the problem.

### **Key words (in English)**

ELT, EFL, metalanguage, metalinguistic terminology, teaching grammar, TEFL, secondary education, grammar school students, grammar school teachers

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## **List of Abbreviations**

ALM	Audiolingual Method
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EKG	Explicit Knowledge of Grammar and Grammar Terminology
ELT	English Language Teaching
FEP SGE	Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education
GS	Grammar school(s)
GT	Grammatical terminology
GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
KAL	Knowledge About Language
KAG	Knowledge About Grammar
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MT	Metalinguistic terminology
NA	Natural Approach
SLA	Second Language Acquisition



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## 1. Introduction

Teaching and learning foreign languages has been one of the essential issues in the field of education over the last decades. English, especially, has been given prominence as the foreign language taught and learnt in schools as it is currently considered the lingua franca of today's world.

Languages represent extremely complex systems which consist of groups of interrelated elements and units. Teaching and learning a (foreign) language is no less intricate as many teacher-, learner- and other variables come into play in these processes. Therefore, the language system components and their interplay have to be carefully explored (not only) by teachers and learners to ensure effective and meaningful language teaching or learning.

One of the many variables which may be involved in foreign language teaching and acquisition is metalanguage which is, simply put, a language about language. Metalanguage is used to analyze and describe languages, which is an important part of language teaching and learning. Therefore, endeavour has to be made in order to gain insight into what the use of metalanguage can bring into the language classroom and to attain deeper understanding of language teaching and learning in general.

Metaphorically said, teachers are gardeners who should be aware of and know all the possible tools available to him and who ought to be able to select and use the tools appropriate to the needs of the plants (students) he takes care of in order to cultivate them, support their growth and provide them with various aids and abundant nourishment, which will contribute to growing a flourishing plant.

Teachers and learners should be viewed as the caring gardeners and the plants in blossom who cooperate with each other and strive for the elimination of the potentially harmful outside influences, i.e. together they should create in classrooms a state of synergy. But how such efficiency and positive approach of the teachers and learners to each other can be ensured, and how the positive attitude to the language taught and learned can be established?

The process of teaching and learning a language imposes the need of having a great deal of courage, motivation, energy and effort on both groups of participants involved in this process. This also implies the general ability to teach and to study, i.e. to deploy various teaching methods and learning strategies, but most of all, the knowledge on teachers' part of when to apply what to whom and how is presupposed.

There exist many ways of teaching a language, in fact, there are as many teaching styles as there are teachers. Each of them has its own way of approaching students and the subject matter. In their teaching some may have been influenced by factors such as the teaching styles of the teachers who actually taught them languages when they themselves were students, pedagogical and teacher training courses they have participated in, teaching manuals or official documents they can or should follow and many other phenomena that may have had impact on the teachers' contemporary practice.

As for learners, each of them has different *language aptitude* which can be defined as “the natural ability to learn a language” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 313) and every learner has his own *learning style* and *learning strategy* which should help him achieve individual learning goals with more ease, and which Richards and Schmidt (2010: 331) interpret as “a particular way of learning preferred by a learner” and as “the ways in which learners attempt to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules, and other aspects of the language they are learning”, respectively. Together with the learners' previous language learning experience and motivation, these two appear to be the key factors in their language learning. Nevertheless, many more individual differences among learners can be found in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). According to Larsen-Freeman (in Simpson, 2011: 161) there are more than one hundred learner influencing factors nowadays and the number keeps growing.

In the context of SLA the process of teaching and learning a foreign (second) language (henceforth referred to as L2) can be viewed as the acquisition of the phonology, vocabulary, morphology and syntax, and pragmatics of the language, and also as the development of specific language skills, or *macroskills*, i.e. reading and listening (receptive skills) and writing and speaking (productive skills). It is, nevertheless, possible to acquire L2 without developing reading and writing skills in L2. The level of the skills can be measured by various language proficiency tests. The term *proficiency* is defined as “the degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak, or understand language” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 321). Moreover, *language aptitude* can also be measured by testing, for instance, the following abilities: oral mimicry ability, phonemic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity, the ability to memorize language structures and the ability to infer language rules (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 313). Birdsong (2006: 11–12) adds one extra component of language aptitude, and that is metalinguistic awareness. But is there any particular domain which is considered to be the core of L2 learning? Which of the skills and abilities is believed to be

the most significant one? And to which of these do teachers actually devote most of their L2 classroom time?

There are no clear answers to these questions but the ideal answer would probably be that all skills and abilities are given equal significance and amount of time in L2 classrooms. However, we would more likely solve this question by responding that what seems to be most focused on in L2 teaching/learning is grammar or the grammatical sensitivity mentioned above. To be grammatically sensitive means, according to Richards and Schmidt (2010: 313), being able to recognize the different grammatical functions of words in sentences, but not only that, it also means knowing what these words and sentences mean and how they function in a language.

In this regard, a number of arguments for focusing on grammar in SLA can be presented. For instance, in Andrews (1994: 508) learning or acquisition of grammar is considered central to the study of language, likewise, Swan (in Simpson, 2011: 568) maintains that "...the cluster of mechanisms that we call 'grammar' is central to language..." and "the better we understand grammar, the better our grasp is likely to be of the many human activities and concerns in which language is implicated". In unison with Andrews and Swan, Ortega (in Chapelle, 2012: 3439) points out that "teaching grammar has always been a central focus of study". In addition, to support this assertion, another argument for significance of grammar can be found in Ellis (2004: 242) who states that "[the fact that] discussion and studies have largely been focused on grammar, reflects the centrality of grammar in such fields as linguistics and language teaching" and that "there is ample evidence to support the claim that grammar is a central component of L2 proficiency" (Ellis, 2006: 440).

Given that, it can be argued that teachers are expected to devote a substantial part of their lessons to teaching grammar, to master grammar and to transfer their knowledge of grammar to students while adopting different strategies and employing various aids and tools which are believed to lead to successful grammar learning. Similarly, learners in many parts of the world are likely to expect, and even demand, that attention be given to grammar (Larsen-Freeman in Simpson, 2011: 161) and require intelligible and efficient instructions which would guide them through the process and enable them to grasp the concept of L2 grammar.

One of the various tools which plays a role in SLA and which may help learners acquire L2 grammar more effectively is the knowledge of metalanguage. However, metalinguistic

knowledge as a pedagogical notion relevant to the process of L2 teaching and learning plays a role which is ambivalent and needs to be further investigated.

The main issues discussed in the theoretical part of the thesis are, first, the overview of several studies concerned with metalanguage and teachers' and learners' metalinguistic knowledge which are discussed in more detail, secondly, the justification for the focus of the present research, i.e. the focus on the secondary education and Czech grammar schools is provided, and, thirdly, terms used in the thesis are defined. The next section of the theoretical part deals with the description of metalinguistic terminology and with the definition of the 'right' metalinguistic term. Moreover, the evaluation of possible benefits or limitations of metalanguage in L2 learning is provided and the extent and source of metalinguistic terminology are commented on as well. The next section is devoted to the diachronically viewed approaches to grammar teaching and to metalanguage as a tool in L2 grammar acquisition. The current situation of attitudes towards grammar teaching and to metalanguage in SLA is commented on as well. Moreover, among the other individual objectives of the thesis, metalanguage and its relationship to language acquisition, i.e. to learner's age, cognitive development and L1 is commented on. The last section of the theoretical part discusses the relationship between teachers, learners and metalanguage.

In the practical part, quantitative research will be conducted in order to examine both teachers' and learners' beliefs about the use of metalanguage in L2 classroom using questionnaires. Along with the research on the perspectives on metalanguage, students' knowledge of metalinguistic terminology will be tested by administering a metalinguistic knowledge test based on several well-tried tests and questionnaires. More specifically, the main issues to be addressed in the practical part of the thesis are, first, students' knowledge of grammatical terminology (parts of speech, clause elements, verb tenses) and their beliefs about their knowledge of it, secondly, students' attitudes to the use of metalinguistic terminology in class and to English and English grammar learning in general, and, finally, students' opinions on their teachers' way of teaching grammar and their use of grammatical terminology in lessons. As far as teachers are concerned, the issues to be examined are, first, teachers' estimate of students' knowledge of grammatical terminology and teachers' actual use of these terms in practice, secondly, teachers' attitudes to teaching English and English grammar and to the use of metalinguistic terminology in classes, and thirdly, teachers' beliefs about their students' knowledge of metalinguistic terminology and their attitudes to the terminology.

The study hopes to reveal valuable findings and yield results beneficial for teachers' and students' actual teaching and learning practice in Czech secondary schools. Similarly, the aim of the thesis in general is to discover and discuss in a wider perspective the current situation of the use of metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology and the current state of attitudes toward and beliefs about metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology as well as to make an attempt to understand the motives underlying teachers' and learners' beliefs in the context of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classrooms.

## **2. Theoretical Background: Objective of the thesis or Why do we talk about metalanguage?**

The objective of this thesis is to investigate the concept of metalanguage in the context of English Language Teaching (ELT) and learning. The focus will be on English as a foreign language (L2) and on English grammar and its relationship with metalanguage as an aid in L2 grammar teaching and learning.

The role of metalanguage and metalinguistic/metalingual knowledge (terms explained further in section 2.5.) in L2 classroom as one of the tools to teach (not only) grammar has been a focus of experts' discussion and a matter of controversy in the field of second language teaching and learning over the last three decades.

A significant amount of research has been conducted on metalanguage and its place in L2 classrooms taking into account its positive and negative aspects while examining metalinguistic/metalingual knowledge in relation to various learner variables such as L2 proficiency (Gutiérrez, 2013; L2=Spanish), language-learning aptitude, L1 working memory and L2 working memory (Roehr and Gutiérrez, 2009; L2=Spanish and German), or learner uptake (Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis, 2002; L2=English). Moreover, the differences in metalinguistic terminology in different EFL classrooms around the world (Berry, 2009), learners' knowledge of metalanguage (Berry, 1997) and their awareness of metalanguage used by authors of English grammar publications such as *Collins Cobuild English Grammar* and *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Berry, 2004), teachers' knowledge of metalanguage (Andrews, 1999) and their beliefs about using metalanguage (Berry, 1997) have been investigated.

For the purpose of this thesis, Berry's studies (1995, 1997) and several other studies are of importance as they explore matters analogous to the research carried out in the practical part of the thesis. The studies are discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

### **2.1. Learners and metalanguage – research overview**

As far as the relationship between learners and their metalinguistic knowledge is concerned, the two studies (Berry, 2009; Hu, 2010) mentioned in this section focused on university-level students and examined their knowledge of metalinguistic (grammatical) terminology in EFL; in each study a different methodology was used. Berry (2009) investigated the knowledge of grammatical terminology in three different populations of non-native speaking students (Austrian, Hong Kong and Polish; N=296) using a 50-item

questionnaire. Students were asked to determine whether they knew the terms and, if they did, to exemplify them by writing a word, phrase or clause which would contain a 'representative' of the given term in real language. The results of the survey indicate that the three most popular terms (*noun, verb, plural*) were known to more than 90% of respondents in each population and thus were regarded as unproblematic. The mean score of Polish students was the highest (23.87 out of 50) of all the three groups. The most homogenous group were Hong Kong students (with the lowest standard deviation of 5.32); however, within each group there was a "wide variation on the student scores" (Berry, 2009: 124). Could a similar rate of success be expected in Czech learners as they are also Slavic language speakers (as the Polish students are) and a similar cultural and possibly teaching background may be expected? This could be the focus of future studies on metalinguistic knowledge in the context of the Czech Republic; however, in line with Berry's suggestion that "students' knowledge of terminology reflects pedagogic practice at the secondary level [and] it is not just tertiary teachers who need greater awareness [of metalinguistic terminology in general and of their learners' knowledge of the terms]" (Berry, 2009: 126), it is assumed that learners start to be deliberately exposed to a certain amount of grammatical terminology as early as in secondary schools. With this in mind, it is necessary to gain insight into the use of terminology in practice as well as the rationale behind it, i.e. teachers and students' beliefs about and attitudes to grammatical terminology and grammar in general. Therefore, the research conducted for the purpose of this thesis is aimed at secondary-level students and teachers (see section 2.4.).

Hu (2010) carried out a slightly more complex research in that the students (N=76) were asked to verbalize rules for six target structures (articles, verb tenses and aspects) in order to "elicit the participants' explicit knowledge of the target structures and their various uses" (Hu, 2010: 65). In the learners' written explanations of the uses of the given structures the number of correctly used metalinguistic terms was counted. Hu (2010: 66) maintains that "in more than 70% of the cases, the participants explicitly knew the rules underlying the target uses of the English structures in question" and that "the participants in general had a fairly large repertoire of metalinguistic terms and were able to use them correctly in most of the cases to express their metalinguistic knowledge" (Hu, 2010: 73). It was concluded that there exists a relationship between appropriately used terms and the metalinguistic knowledge of learners, or more precisely, the correctly explained rules, the reason for this being the fact that "to understand and learn [metalinguistic] terms is a



useful step to understanding and learning the patterns and relationships that they label” (Hu, 2010: 74).

The knowledge of metalinguistic terminology was also studied in the context of university studies of modern (foreign) languages in students whose L1 was English, for instance by Bloor (1986). Despite the fact that the subject of the study was not grammatical terminology in the sphere of English as L2, the study is mentioned in this section as it has been of importance to the design of the questionnaire used in the research conducted for the purpose of the thesis. Bloor (1986) examined university students’ (N=238) familiarity with grammatical terminology (parts of speech and grammatical functions) using a questionnaire. Students were asked to find one example of, or underline each of the nineteen terms in a sentence provided by the researcher. The results of the research indicate that most of the terms (with the exception of *noun*, *verb* and *subject*) were not very well-known by the students. Moreover, it was found that “75% claimed to have acquired most of their knowledge of these matters in secondary school” (Bloor, 1986: 7). Logically, a question suggests itself: If it was revealed by the research that students have rather poor knowledge of metalinguistic terms and if they claimed they had acquired this knowledge in secondary schools, there must have existed a problem (if the lack of the knowledge of metalinguistic terms can be considered a problem) at the level of secondary education with teaching and learning the terms. What may possibly be the problem? And is it a problem at all? These questions, among others, are going to be addressed in the practical part of the thesis.

## **2.2. Teachers and metalanguage – research overview**

Andrews (1999), on the other hand, examined the explicit knowledge of grammar and grammatical terminology of 20 non-native teachers of English in secondary schools compared with 20 non-native prospective L2 teachers and 20 native prospective L2 teachers. The subjects were tested on their ability (1) to recognise metalanguage and to define grammatical functions, (2) to produce metalinguistic terms, (3) to identify and correct grammatical errors and (4) to explain grammatical rules. It was found that non-native speakers outperformed the other two groups in three (1, 2 and 4) of the four sub-tests with a total mean score of around 70%. Andrews (1999: 155–156) concluded that “teaching experience may have an impact upon the development of a teacher’s explicit knowledge of grammar and grammar terminology (EKG)” and also that “being a non-

native-speaker is likely to be a potential contributing factor rather than a determining factor in the development of EKG”.

The aforementioned studies examined the learner and teacher knowledge of metalinguistic terminology independently of each other; however, it seems more reasonable and purposeful to study the knowledge in both groups of respondents, i.e. in learners together with teachers. It is relevant to know what knowledge of grammatical terminology students have and, at the same time, whether teachers are aware of this knowledge and whether teachers’ desire to use, or the actual use of terminology in classes is consistent with their awareness of students’ metalinguistic knowledge. It is assumed that an inconsistency in students’ knowledge and teachers’ awareness and the use of terminology may lead to misunderstanding and confusion between a student and a teacher, which, as a consequence, may result in reduced effectiveness or complete ineffectiveness of the use of metalinguistic terms in lessons. Terminology would be neither to learners’ nor to teachers’ advantage, unless both parties come to agreement on which terms to use (if any) and to what extent. The previous lines describe a learning/teaching situation in theory, however, it is necessary to investigate the real-life situation that exists at educational institutions to be able to propose possible measures for the improvement of teachers’ and students’ rapport concerning (not only) ‘metatalk’ in the classroom. The following studies were aimed at both learners as well as teachers.

### **2.3. Teachers, learners and metalanguage – research overview**

Berry (1995) investigated university-level students’ knowledge of 50 metalinguistic terms and their teachers’ awareness of their students’ metalinguistic knowledge. 149 students of the English for Academic Purposes course were asked to answer ‘yes’ or ‘no’ to whether they knew the given term and to exemplify the term in the case of a positive answer. 7 teachers were asked to evaluate each item in terms of the learners’ knowledge of the item and to indicate whether they would want to use the term in class. Berry found that there was a “wide range in students’ knowledge of English grammatical terminology” and “a wide variation among the individual teachers in their prediction of student knowledge and in their desire to use grammatical terms” (Berry, 1995: 62–63). The results implied that “there is a considerable potential for misunderstanding [between teachers and students]” (Berry, 1995: 61) as for the six of the fifty terms (*pronoun, clause, definite article, agreement, indefinite article, possessive pronoun*), as the teachers’ desire to use them was greater (by more than 30%) than were the students’ actual scores for the

knowledge of these terms. Nevertheless, it has to be taken into account that the number of respondents (teachers) involved was limited and, thus, the data obtained provided only a little insight into what teachers think of their students' metalinguistic knowledge and their hypothetical practice (this is not clear as the research question posed by Berry reads as follows: 'Would teachers want to use the given terms in class?' (Berry, 1995: 54)).

A replication study was conducted by Berry (1997) – students' knowledge of terminology, teachers' awareness of the knowledge and their desire to use the terms in class were examined. A 50-item questionnaire was used to investigate the knowledge of grammatical (metalinguistic) terminology of 372 undergraduate students and their 10 teachers' estimation of that knowledge. The results of the study suggested that teachers were generally not very much aware of and tend to overestimate their students' metalinguistic knowledge (16 overestimated items as opposed to 1 underestimated item), which may pose a problem when "the teachers' desire to use [the terminology] in class is included" (Berry, 1997: 143). As a result, teachers' attention should be drawn to their learners' awareness and attitudes to grammatical terminology. Moreover, the influence of secondary education on university-level learners is mentioned in Berry (1997) in terms of the transition from a less academic environment to a more academic (intellectual and analytic) environment where the use of metalinguistic terminology is expected. It is argued that the difference in student scores for the knowledge of terms may stem from the difference in the extent to which teachers in secondary schools use and rely on terminology, or in other words, "the explanation [for the variation of student scores] must be sought in different styles of teaching" (Berry, 1997: 138). The difference in teaching styles goes hand in hand with different learners' instructional backgrounds and together with learning objectives they form what would seem to be "an important factor contributing to the disparity in metalinguistic performance" (Hu, 2010: 71).

Nevertheless, it is legitimate to consider reasonable the fact that metalinguistic knowledge may help learners acquire an L2 and, at the same time, it may serve as a useful tool for L2 teachers in passing on their knowledge about the L2 to their learners. Moreover, it is considered logical to investigate students' metalinguistic knowledge in connection with both teachers' awareness of their students' knowledge and the actual teachers' practice in the teaching process, i.e. teachers' actual use of metalinguistic terminology (by which their metalinguistic knowledge is demonstrated) in the classroom. The studies mentioned above investigated metalinguistic knowledge only in university students and the same applies to metalinguistic awareness of teachers – with the exception

of Andrews (1999) who investigated language and metalinguistic awareness in both university as well as secondary school teachers (but not learners) – mainly tertiary-level educators’ awareness of their students’ metalinguistic knowledge was examined. Despite the fact that researchers in the previously mentioned studies suggested that first year university learners’ knowledge of metalinguistic terms may be substantially based on their secondary-level knowledge of terminology, there appears to be a very limited number of studies focused on secondary-level learners’ metalinguistic knowledge.

Steel and Alderson (1994: 3) indicated in their research of metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude and proficiency, that a possible solution to the problem of insufficient metalinguistic knowledge of first-year university students may be that students need to be taught metalanguage in secondary schools. And indeed, it seems that there is a place for metalinguistic terminology also at the secondary level as teachers, in general, place a considerable reliance on it, as has been pointed out by Berry (1995: 53).

For all the reasons mentioned above, a case can be made for metalinguistic terminology at secondary-level education, and therefore, the main objective of the present thesis is to investigate secondary-level students’ knowledge of selected metalinguistic terms and their teachers’ awareness of this knowledge. The secondary-level area has received only peripheral attention in research on metalinguistic knowledge as most of the studies, as has been previously mentioned, are concerned with university-level students and their teachers. It can be assumed that to improve the state of knowledge we have of secondary students’ knowledge of metalinguistic terminology, a study aimed at secondary students and teachers needs to be done to gain insight into the role metalinguistic terminology plays in teaching and learning processes in secondary schools and thus, possibly, to be able to offer a solution to the insufficient knowledge of terminology at the tertiary level (especially in the first year of study).

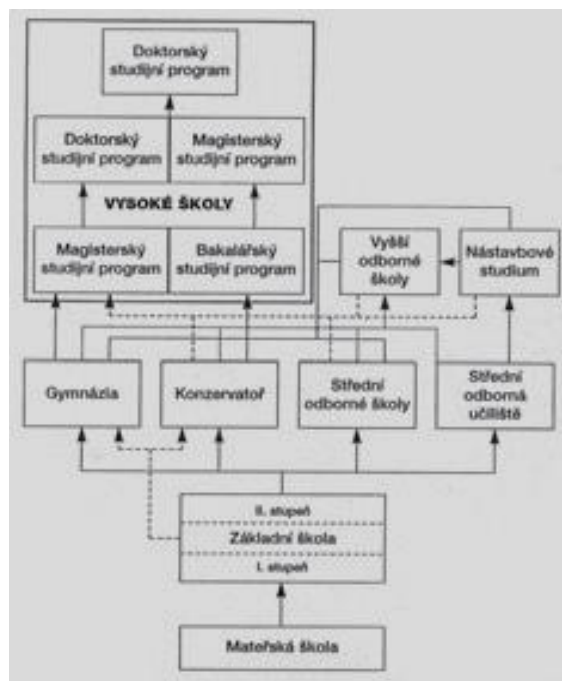
#### **2.4. Secondary education – grammar school teachers and learners and metalanguage**

The studies mentioned in the previous section form only a small part of the whole body of research carried out in this area of SLA, which suggests that the experts concerned with this topic have been constantly raising new questions. Together with these experts I would like to address several issues concerning the use of metalinguistic terminology and its knowledge in L2 teaching in the context of Czech secondary education since, as far as I am aware, no academic work in the Czech Republic has dealt with this topic.

The thesis focuses only on the general secondary schools which may be referred to as *gymnázia* (sg. *gymnázium*), or they can be referred to as *grammar schools* which is a term more commonly used in the British educational setting. Nevertheless, the term *grammar schools* (hereafter referred to as GS) will be used in this thesis as it can be found in the official document Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education (FEP SGE) which delimits the framework of the secondary educational stage. The aim of the four-year GS and of the upper stage of six- or eight-year GS is primarily to prepare their students especially for tertiary-level education at universities or for other types of tertiary education (studied at other institutions). Therefore, they are, among other things, expected to provide their students with solid foreign language background since “an active knowledge of foreign languages is currently necessary both from a global standpoint... and for the personal needs of the pupil” (FEP SGE (2007: 13).

The scheme below represents the individual levels of the Czech education system:

**Figure 1: A simplified scheme of the education system in the Czech Republic (Masopustová, 2007: 148)**



The studies at secondary level may be accomplished by attending one of the four basic types of schools, i.e. grammar schools (*gymnázia*), technical schools (*střední odborné školy*), vocational schools (*střední odborná učiliště*) or conservatoires (*konzervatoře*). Despite the fact that secondary education is not compulsory in the Czech Republic, 100% of 15–18 year old adolescents attended one of the four types of secondary institutions in the school year of 2013/2014 (MŠMT: 2014). Grammar schools were chosen by 23,250

first-year students and, in total, 128,527 students attended GS in 2013/2014 (MŠMT: 2014). Practically all graduates from grammar schools apply for tertiary-level studies at universities or tertiary professional schools and more than 90% are accepted by the tertiary education institutions (91,3% in 2013/2014) (Kuchař a kol., 2014: 10). Moreover, according to Kuchař a kol. (2014: 10), the rate of successfully taken entrance exams is higher for graduates from grammar schools than it is for graduates from other types of secondary schools. This can be taken as a justification of the claim that the aim of grammar schools is to prepare students for tertiary education and, for this reason, it is important that the secondary education should be of interest with respect to (not only) English language and English grammar teaching and learning.

Particular emphasis in most GS is given to the English language as the first foreign language taught due to its status of *lingua franca*, the key tool for international communication in today's world. The educational field of English as a (First) Foreign Language belongs to the education area of Language and Language Communication in the FEP SGE which should form and develop students' key competencies (learning, problem-solving, communication, social and personal, civic and entrepreneurial competencies (FEP SGE, 2007: 8–10) by trying to achieve the targeted objectives of the educational area.

For the purpose of the thesis, however, it is more useful to examine the educational content of this area in order to ascertain whether there exists a mention of grammar and, possibly, of grammatical terminology as well, or not. The educational content is divided into three types of skills students should develop, i.e., receptive, productive and interactive language skills (FEP SGE, 2007: 16) and into four subsections of the subject matter, each of which defines language means and functions students should have knowledge of. Apart from phonetics, orthography and lexicology, the field of grammar and the knowledge of certain grammatical structures and functions is defined and, according to this specification, students should be able to develop their knowledge of the following grammatical structures and mechanisms: nominal and verbal phrases, morphemes, prefixes, suffixes, further ways of expressing the past, present and future, complex subordinate clauses, compound sentences, derivation, functional shift, transformation, valency (FEP SGE, 2007: 17). No explicit mention of (the employment of) grammatical terminology was found, however, it can be expected that a certain amount of terminology is needed for teaching and learning the aforementioned grammatical concepts. The grammatical phenomena and terms related to them which are of concern to the thesis, i.e. parts of speech and clause elements, are, nevertheless, listed in the Czech

Language and Literature educational field. It can be assumed that students should possess the knowledge of these concepts and terms from the study of their mother tongue, and that they should be able to transfer this knowledge from their L1 to the L2 as “the mastery of foreign language builds on the knowledge of the Czech language” (FEP SGE, 2007: 13).

In a similar vein, it can be said that the use of grammatical terminology depends not only on the theoretical learning objectives and desired outcomes of the Foreign Language educational field, but also – to a considerable extent – on the educational and teaching strategies of secondary schools and teachers, respectively. The strategies (approaches, methods and techniques), i.e. all the components which form teachers’ individual teaching styles, are adopted by teachers and employed in practice based on their own experience and beliefs about what seems to be appropriate and relevant for achieving “the targeted formation and development of the pupil’s key competencies [as well as for the acquisition of the prescribed grammatical structures and mechanisms]” (FEP SGE, 2007: 11).

As has been already mentioned there exist many ways of approaching English teaching; secondary school English teachers opt for the methods and tools which they deem effective and suitable for their learners while consulting FEP SGE and various manuals, guidebooks, and recommendations of ELT experts. In view of the fact that the employment of metalanguage and metalinguistic knowledge is optional in L2 teaching and its usage is rather a matter of degree (ranging from not used at all to used very frequently, e.g. in every lesson) and complexity (from the use of completely non-technical to technical metalanguage with semi-technical metalanguage between the two extremes), various attitudes towards its use can be expected. Teachers may or may not avoid the use of metalinguistic terms deliberately, may or may not use them consciously or unconsciously, and, likewise, may find them either useful or useless for secondary-level learners. Do both grammar school teachers and learners possess metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge and if they do, to what extent is this tool employed and relied on in L2 classrooms? Answers to these questions will hopefully be revealed in the empirical part of the thesis.

## **2.5. Defining terms**

The most important term to be defined is, of course, *metalanguage*. There exist many definitions of metalanguage, but generally metalanguage in linguistics is characterized as language used to talk about and to describe another (object/target) language. However, for the purpose of the thesis the definitions need to be more specific, therefore, the key term

*metalinguistic knowledge* has to be defined. The knowledge of metalanguage, i.e. metalinguistic knowledge, needs to be distinguished from *metalingual knowledge*, a term used in Berry (2005) or Hu (2010) and which is connected with metalinguistic terminology, whereas the former is associated with “the knowledge of or awareness of metalanguage” (Berry, 2005: 12) or, in general, with the knowledge about language (Steel and Alderson, 1994: 92). The definition of the latter concept has been provided by Ellis (1994: 714), i.e. “metalingual knowledge is the knowledge of the technical terminology needed to describe language”, and it seems to be a more explicit and clarifying interpretation of the concept. On the other hand, the former term can be viewed simply as the knowledge about language (Berry, 2009: 114) or, according to Roehr (2008: 70), as “an individual's explicit knowledge about language”. As a result, one has to bear in mind that the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology and metalinguistic knowledge in general are not the same thing (Berry, 2009: 114–115).

In this thesis, the term *metalinguistic knowledge* is used for the knowledge of metalanguage, *metalingual knowledge* refers to the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology and the technical terms are referred to as *metalinguistic* or *grammatical terminology*. The terminology used in the thesis consists of specific terms used for referring to parts of speech, clause elements and verb tenses, and does not consist of, for instance, less specific, common classroom ‘metatalk’ expressions such as *word*, *sentence*, or *question* (Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis, 2002: 8).

As suggested by Berry (2005: 12) it is possible to demonstrate metalinguistic awareness without metalanguage, and in a similar vein, “metalinguistic knowledge can exist without any metalingual knowledge” (Berry, 2010: 206). On the contrary, it is believed that metalinguistic knowledge (explicit knowledge about language) and metalanguage are inextricably connected (Alderson et al., 1997: 97) and cannot exist without each other. The stance of the author of the thesis on this issue is that being able to talk about language requires (more or less) specific terminology, i.e. that the knowledge of metalanguage presupposes the knowledge of metalinguistic terms.

In the context of English as an L2, metalinguistic knowledge can be defined broadly as “a learner’s explicit or declarative knowledge about the syntactic, morphological, lexical, pragmatic, and phonological features of the L2” (Roehr, 2008: 72), or its characterization can be narrowed down to “explicit and verbalizable knowledge about L2 grammar” (Hu, 2002: 348). The latter is used throughout the thesis to refer to the concept of metalinguistic knowledge and its examination in Czech GS. What has to be taken into



account is the relationship between metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge and grammatical knowledge. Metalinguistic knowledge is to be viewed as the ability to articulate learners' knowledge of grammar and should not be confused with the actual grammatical knowledge, as the skill of verbalizing a rule is distinct from conscious awareness of the rule (Ellis, 2004: 263). Moreover, it should be noted that the knowledge of metalingual terminology is independent of grammatical knowledge per se (Elder, in Berry 2010: 195).

Explicit rules or explicit knowledge about language, together with its implicit counterpart, form part of linguistic competence and can be defined as “declarative knowledge that can be brought into conscious awareness and that is potentially available for verbal report, said to be learnable at any age, given sufficient cognitive maturity” (Roehr, 2008: 69). Ellis (2006: 437) argues that L2 explicit knowledge consists of analysed knowledge and metalinguistic knowledge, i.e. knowledge of lexis for labelling features of linguistic structures (the term *metalinguistic knowledge* is interchangeable here with *metalingual knowledge*). The depth of the knowledge and the ratio of the two in relation to the language performance seems to be a matter of debate in the field of SLA. The implicit or procedural knowledge, on the other hand, involves unconscious awareness, i.e. it is learnt by learners without them being aware of what has been learnt (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 274), and cannot be articulated.

Metalingual plays a significant role in the concept of language awareness or Language Awareness Movement that developed in the 1980s in Britain. *Awareness* can be defined as “an explicit knowledge about language and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use” (Garrett in Berns, 2010: 293). It is believed to be advisable that learners be taught to develop their capacity to reflect on language. Metalinguistic reflection can be considered to be “an observable product of awareness” as mentioned by Simard and Wong (2004: 98). However, the role of consciousness or conscious focus on form and knowledge about language is a relatively controversial issue in the field of SLA – should a language be taught as “a static, machine-like entity” (Carter in Nunan, 1995: 6) or as a living and changeable organism?

One more term – *pedagogic grammar* – needs to be mentioned. According to Richards (1985: 210), it is “a grammatical description of a language which is intended for pedagogical purposes, such as language teaching, syllabus design, or the preparation of teaching materials”. The most important role of pedagogic grammar in the sense of

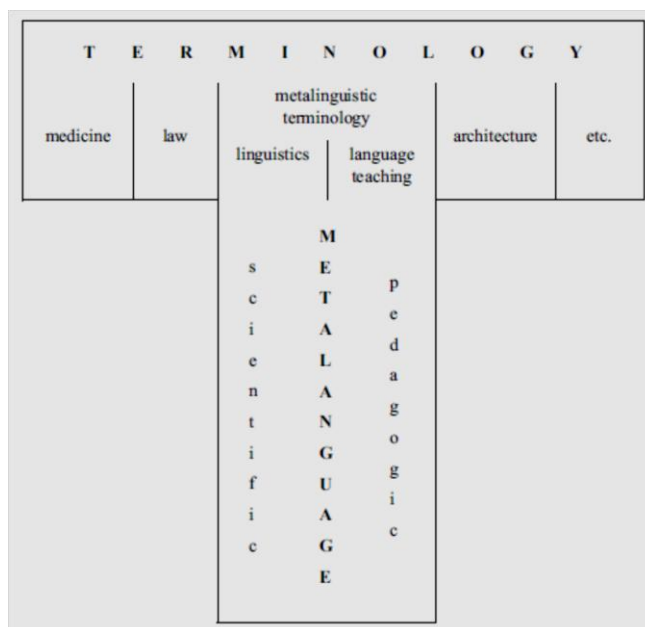
language teaching aid is to ‘filter’ the redundant information of scientific nature which could unnecessarily hinder the process of language acquisition.

## 2.6. Metalinguistic terminology

It would not be possible for the concepts of metalanguage and terminology to exist without each other. However, it should be noted that metalanguage does not mean terminology in its genuine sense and that it does not necessarily involve the use of grammatical terms (Fortune, 2005: 22), as has been noted in the previous section. Terminology, in general, can be defined as “the system of words or phrases relating to concepts in particular technical field or discipline as used by the practitioners in that field” (Berry, 2010: 29), thus terms refer to the concepts which can be defined as “the notions that have to be learnt in order to access the knowledge base of an academic community” (Berry, 2010: 21).

In the thesis the terminology in one of the fields of SLA, i.e. the grammatical terminology, is viewed as a part of the lexis of metalanguage in its most obvious manifestation, e.g. that of parts of speech, clause elements and verb tenses. The relationship of terminology and metalanguage is illustrated in Figure 2 below:

**Figure 2: The intersecting relationship of terminology and metalanguage according to Berry (2010: 27)**



Metalinguistic terminology is a phenomenon to which teachers and learners may take ambivalent attitudes – some may adopt a negative stance to it, considering the terminology an additional burden, others may find it useful and helpful. However, it has to

be noted that it is not just the discipline that defines its terminology; it is the users that do so (Berry, 2010: 25). Each group of ELT terminology users – teachers, learners, and grammarians – are not expected to demonstrate the same level of ability to use the terms as well as to hold the same beliefs about it; what seems to be more valued than the actual knowledge of the terms is the ability to treat them comprehensibly, appropriately and consistently. Teachers should be aware of their learners’ factual metalinguistic knowledge and attempt to adapt their own metalinguistic terminology not only according to the pedagogic grammar found in textbooks and teaching manuals, but they should, in the first place, make effort to tailor it to their learners’ needs. And, of course, metalinguistic terminology should not be taught for its own sake but in meaningful contexts; excessive use of terms would not prove useful neither for students nor for teachers. Indeed, students should possess certain knowledge of terms (the extent of which will be discussed further in section 2.6.2.) and, as Ellis (2004: 240) speculates, an increase in depth of explicit knowledge goes hand in hand with the acquisition of (more) metalanguage since access to linguistic labels may help sharpen the understanding of linguistic constructs.

The question of the extent and of the choice of terms which should be presented to learners and in which situations they are crucial for L2 teachers has to be answered after a consideration of the following two issues. First of all, the degree of technicality of the terms has to be decided on. In general, three types of metalinguistic terminology may be identified, i.e. technical, semi-technical and non-technical. Technical terms are to be understood as the standard terminology – Standard ELT Grammatical Terminology (Berry, 2010: 74) – which can be found in pedagogic grammars and whose establishment dates back to the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century when there was a ‘boom’ of English taught as a foreign or second language. Fortune (2005) took a different approach to technicality and in the study of non-native learners’ use of metalanguage he suggested a division of metalinguistic terms into the three following categories:

- A Technical terms fundamental to linguistic description
- B Non-technical terms frequently used in making generalizations about syntax and/or meaning
- C Non-technical terms frequently used in metalinguistic interactions

Fortune (2005: 26)

However, as Berry (2010: 24) suggests, “the frequent use of words in metalinguistic description is not sufficient to qualify them as terms”, which means that the categories B and C do not represent the proper use of metalanguage. In other words, expressions such

as *mean, sense, say, understand* and other used in L2 classroom cannot be regarded as those terms which are to be learnt and understood by learners as labels of certain linguistic constructions such as grammatical or lexical categories used in the field of L2 grammar acquisition, i.e. the technical terms. These non-technical words have no special meaning or distinctive features to qualify them as terms (Berry, 2010: 105).

It is not only the level of technicality that plays a role in the choice of metalinguistic terms. It is also the precision or consistency of the terms to be used in L2 classrooms. First of all, teachers should be aware of the fact that there is a number of possibilities how to refer to grammatical structures metalinguistically and, therefore, they should select the most appropriate option for their learners, e.g. when there is a possibility of labelling a grammatical feature by one of a synonymous pair of metalinguistic terms, e.g. *agreement* and *concord* or *continuous* and *progressive (tense or aspect)*, teachers should use only one of them consistently. The precision of a term lies in the reference to its meaning – there should be a one-to-one relationship between the term and its referent, or, as Pearson (1998: 11) points out, “there is a one-to-one correspondence between the term as label and the concept as mental construct”.

### **2.6.1. Why (not) to use metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology?**

#### **2.6.1.1. Benefits of metalanguage use**

The explanatory precision of terms seems to be one of the positive aspects of the use of metalinguistic terminology. Instead of using circumlocutory expressions, a shorthand – a specific term – is made use of, and to save time is an important issue in 45-minute lessons in Czech GS. One of the principal arguments for the use of metalanguage as a shorthand, is that it allows for making a general statement that draws on learner’s previous knowledge and relates it to the particular problem (Berry, 2010: 124). This implies that both teachers and learners have to agree on the terms to be used in the classroom and teachers should use them on a regular basis so that learners get used to them. Consequently, such terms may effectively serve as a shorthand way of referring to grammatical elements of the L2. Learners need to be able to communicate with teachers about the target language economically and precisely. Teachers, on the other hand, need to make sure that the terms used in the classroom are well-understood by the learners. In a similar vein, if the use of terminology is agreed on by teachers and learners, then, “very often a limited knowledge of linguistic terminology can make explanation easier” (Woods, 1994: 89).

Another argument for the use of metalinguistic terminology in L2 classrooms is simply the fact that the terms may be found in various pedagogical materials such as textbooks, dictionaries or grammar books and other study or self-study materials. Learners need to be taught such terms so that they are able not only to communicate with teachers about the language but also to work independently of their teachers. As far as the body of terms which can be found in textbooks is concerned, it should be pointed out that learners should get acquainted with at least those terms which are of frequent use there and which will prove useful during the learning process. Berry (2010: 178) supports this argument by maintaining that “the knowledge of terminology is necessary because of its use in [secondary-level education] materials”.

Moreover, as mentioned in the introductory part, students require being taught grammar, in the first place, and for that reason some of them may “like and feel comfortable with grammatical labels” (Borg, 1999b: 109). Apart from serving as a shortcut to unnecessary circumlocutions, labels may serve as mnemonic devices as well as help students to appropriately categorize grammatical elements. Moreover, as Berman argues (1979: 295–296), “labels can and must be used in formulating [grammatical] rules of L2”.

Furthermore, metalingual knowledge may play a facilitative role in L2 (grammar) acquisition and thus may ensure consistent and systematic performance on learners’ part. For instance, studies conducted by Berry (1997, 2009) and Ellis (2006) have supported this hypothesis by concluding that there exists a substantial correlation between learners’ explicit knowledge of various L2 grammatical structures, or to be more precise, between the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology (Berry, 1997, 2009) or explicit grammatical knowledge (Ellis, 2006) and their L2 proficiency. Moreover, it has been found that form-focused instructions, which presuppose metalinguistic intervention, are more effective than mere exposure to L2 input (Roehr, 2008: 77).

What has to be taken into account, nevertheless, is the fact that the relationship of correlation does not mean a causative relationship. It means that the results cannot be regarded as generally valid, or, to put it simply, one cannot assume that the link is to be interpreted as causative. However, it can be hypothesized that “by teaching and using more terms, learners’ proficiency [may] be improved, or that increased proficiency leads to a greater knowledge of terms” (Berry, 2010: 132).

Another argument for the use of metalanguage in L2 learning is the fact that metalanguage is a natural feature of language use as it is in L1 acquisition (Berry, 2005: 15). Talking about language with the use of more or less technical terms may help learners

to be more aware of the language they are learning and to understand the underlying structure of the language. In other words, metalanguage enables teachers and students to communicate about language in classrooms.

On the whole, it can be said that terminology may be useful given the appropriate circumstances (Berry, 2010: 121). Grammatical terminology may help teachers achieve more effective communication with learners, if the terms are selected in compliance with learners' cognitive abilities, needs and preference, as well as their age, L1 background, and L2 proficiency. Therefore, teachers' knowledge of learners and their (learners') knowledge of language is indispensable in the teaching/learning process.

#### **2.6.1.2. Limitations of metalanguage use**

To further explore both sides of the usefulness of metalinguistic terminology, attention now has to be turned to the possible drawbacks of its use.

Metalanguage may be seen as an additional and unnecessary burden or as “excess baggage” as Carter (in Nunan, 1995: 6) calls it, which implies more learning effort on the learners' part and, of course, more time devoted to it. The usefulness of the learnt terms outside the classroom is debatable, however, one should note that for linguistically oriented learners being able to talk about a language using terms may not pose a problem. On the other hand, what may cause problems in a L2 classroom is the hypothetical situation when the knowledge of metalinguistic terms is given preference over the actual knowledge of the language. When terminology becomes a substitute for language proficiency and communication in the language, then its usage voids the effectiveness it may have demonstrated in the classroom if used reasonably. Put simply, what must not be forgotten is the fact that “the ultimate aim of L2 learning is an ability to communicate in the target language” (Borg 1999b: 96).

Similarly, one of the strongest arguments against the use of metalanguage is the lack of evidence that it supports language proficiency (Berry, 2005: 14–15), i.e. the relationship of metalanguage and L2 proficiency cannot be regarded as a given fact. As suggested by Roehr (2008: 83), the use of metalinguistic terminology by no means guarantees successful L2 performance and may even be unhelpful in certain situations.

In addition, terminology creates a level of abstraction which adds to the burden of L2 learning and its complexity and technicality may cause grammar learning difficulties (Borg, 1999b: 96–97). The knowledge of terms does not necessarily mean better grammatical knowledge and comprehension on the students' part, and, in a similar vein,

terminology-free grammatical explanations may prove more effective than those presented in formal pedagogical grammar (Mohammed, 1996: 228).

## **2.7. The extent of metalinguistic terminology**

Similarly, the extent of metalingual knowledge is a matter of debate. How many terms should constitute teachers' and learners' repertoire and which terms should they be? Of course, teachers' repertoire should be comprised of more terms as opposed to the extent of the repertoire of the latter group. Berry (2010: 123) suggests that in order not to be an excessive load for students, "between fifty and a hundred terms will suffice even for advanced learners". In contrast with this suggestion, Mohammed (in: Borg, 1999b: 97) argues that "five basic terms may suffice for the teaching [and learning] of English as a foreign language at secondary and university level: noun, verb, pronoun, subject, and object". While not providing any specific number of terms, Woods (1994: 89) advocates that "[learners] understand the terminology that will be found in contents page of a learner's grammar or EFL course book", and similarly, Lewis (Lewis in Berry, 2008: 19) recommends that "[a] careful introduction and regular use of a few well-chosen terms can be helpful and save a lot of time over the length of a course for both teacher and learner".

On the other hand, teachers should have the knowledge of all available terms needed in L2 classrooms and should select the appropriate ones according to their learners, e.g. according to the length of their former exposure to L2 instructions and their level of L2 proficiency, according to the use of metalanguage in L2 or L1 classrooms, or according to the appropriateness of the usage of metalinguistic terminology in particular learning contexts. As mentioned previously, it can be argued that the more years of exposure to L2, the more proficient learners should be and the more exposure to metalinguistic terms is expected. Moreover, given that learners have been exposed to terminology not only in the context of L2 learning but also in L1 classrooms, the use of metalanguage in the L2 classroom is "a useful way to tap the wealth of metalinguistic awareness that learners have developed in the process of acquiring L1 literacy" (Hu, 2011: 181).

Metalanguage is expected to be used more frequently in learning situations where explicit instructions are given to learners, and similarly, it is not expected to be employed commonly in communicatively oriented classrooms. Nevertheless, even in a CLT-oriented classroom, the employment of metalinguistic vocabulary may not be inappropriate as "it is not difficult to imagine a situation where it is desirable to have an explicit discussion of the structural and functional features of [more] complex structures" (Hu, 2011: 181).

Even though teachers need to be familiar with terminology as part of their metalinguistic awareness (Berry 2010: 151), there still exists the option of not deploying the terminology at all or of employing it only as a limited set of terms. This limited amount of metalinguistic terminology may, according to Berry (2001: 103), “help to facilitate learning, provided that it does not become a substitute for it”. Such an approach to terminology seems to be the golden mean between the two extremes of excluding it altogether from language teaching and learning, and of relying on it completely, considering the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology “essential to good mastery of a language” (Berry, 2001: 103). It is primarily the teachers’ choice as to which approach will be selected and which should be subsequently stuck to during the course of their teaching a particular classes.

### **2.7.1. The source of metalinguistic terminology**

A question arises as to who or what should be the source of the terms. Should it be textbooks, grammar books, learners or the most expected source – teachers? Francis (in Berry, 2010: 56), for instance, suggests learner-generated terminology which stems from learners’ needs and forms itself when the need for the terms arises in the classroom environment. This seems to be a logical proposition, however, such terms may not correspond to those used by teachers and grammarians and this may cause confusion in situations when learners want to consult grammar in various self-access materials independently of their classroom environment. It can be expected that the majority of textbooks or grammar books for secondary-level students include metalinguistic labels for various grammatical categories and provide both teachers and students with an overview of grammar to be studied. Whether they will remain only meaningless labels of the grammatical concepts for learners or whether they will elicit more metalanguage and will be helpful for learners so that they could picture the ‘content’ of the labels, depends substantially on teachers and their attitude towards metalanguage and metalingual knowledge. Evidently, textbooks play a role in the use of terminology in secondary education and if terminology is used in textbooks, it would be difficult for teachers to avoid it (Berry, 2010: 155).

One of the roles of teachers is that they are responsible for determining the content of what is taught (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 33) as well as the extent of the content. Thus, teachers can be regarded as the primary source of grammar in L2 classrooms and, according to the method they decide to follow, they become the primary source of



metalinguistic terms (if they decide to employ any). What is important is that metalinguistic terminology should be introduced to learners carefully, i.e. [teachers] should not [use] terms without being sure that learners are familiar with them, and, if they are not, then spending time on [introducing] them (Berry, 2010: 127). Therefore, the introduction of a grammatical form and the term which refers to it is usually accompanied by a description of its use (Berry, 2010: 211).

### **2.7.2. Which term is the ‘right’ term?**

What are the desirable characteristics of an appropriate term to be used in L2 classrooms? In the framework of the Standard English Grammatical Terminology, which should be viewed as “an array of potential terms from which teachers can choose as they see fit” (Berry, 2010: 213), there seems to be many factors which influence the choice of terms.

First of all, we have to distinguish between pedagogic and scientific terminology. As their names imply, the former denotes “terminology for teachers and learners” whereas the latter, as anticipated, stands for “terminology for scientists or scholars”. Having the definitions in mind, one has to arrive at a conclusion that in the environment of (secondary) L2 classrooms, pedagogic terminology is the one that is recommended. Nevertheless, it is not as simple as it may seem at first sight. The choice between the two terminologies may cause problems in grammar teaching; for instance, when “young learners are presented with complicated linguistic rules and the accompanying [(scientific)] terminology” (Berry, 1999: 33). Thus the first of the criteria for the choice of terms may be labelled as the suitability for the needs of individual learners or language users depending on their age and cognitive maturity.

Two additional qualities which a term should have and which usually go hand in hand are distinctiveness and precision. The latter has been already mentioned, therefore, what makes a term distinctive will be now commented on. Distinctive means recognizable – terminology users should be able to distinguish a term from a non-term taking into account the fact that some terms come from standard English, i.e. for instance *article*, *subject* or *object* (Berry, 2010: 36) may not be recognizable as terms at first sight. More frequently, distinctiveness manifests itself in scientific terms; pedagogic terms are usually less distinctive and precise. However, this does not mean that pedagogic terms should be condemned for it. The degree of distinctiveness and precision depends largely on the

target group of learners, therefore, the use of pedagogic terms would be more recommendable in the setting of secondary schools.

A whole range of factors which influence the choice of terms can be defined. They are learnability, accuracy, familiarity, theoretical validity, systematicity, utility and productivity (Berry, 2010: 207). Primarily, the form and more importantly the meaning of terms should be easy to learn. Logically, learners should not spend more energy on the mere learning of terms than on learning of the actual concepts they refer to. Similarly, to save energy, the selection of terms should be based on those already known to learners, i.e. on familiar terms, as well as it should be based on the expected frequency of use of the terms in teaching.

## **2.8. Historical overview of approaches to grammar**

Grammar and teaching grammar has been playing an important role in the theories of language learning and teaching since the Middle Ages until the present time. A number of approaches to grammar taken in the last several decades have varied in the degree of the importance given to it in L2 classrooms.

Along with the development of approaches to teaching grammar the attitude to the use of metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology has been developing as well.

### **2.8.1. Approaches to teaching grammar and to metalanguage**

First of all, the question of what is the relationship between terminology and teaching grammar has to be answered. Is metalinguistic terminology necessary for teaching grammar and the other way round, can grammar teaching do without terminology? Berry (2010: 128) suggests that “while grammar teaching is a prerequisite for the use of the associated terminology, the reverse is not necessarily the case”. As previously mentioned, the concept of grammatical terminology has sparked a controversial debate over its necessity in grammar teaching. The overall ability to talk about language, i.e. the ability to use metalanguage, does not need to include technical terminology. However, as maintained by Bloor and Bloor (2013: 20) “the fact remains that if you wish to talk about language you must have a vocabulary for doing so”. Similarly, Alderson et al. (1997: 97) conclude that “metalanguage must include words for grammatical categories and functions”. The historical overview of the approaches to grammar teaching follows.

As indicated by its name, Grammar-Translation Method relied primarily on teaching grammar through the comparison with the grammar of learner’s L1 and through the

explicit focus on grammar, which was unavoidable in this approach. A typical GTM lesson consisted of “the presentation of a grammatical rule, a study of lists of vocabulary, and a translation exercise” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 253). As pointed out by Carter (in Nunan, 1995: 6) this method involved a lot of conscious metalinguistic naming for grammatical elements. The language in GTM was viewed as a system of structural patterns and grammatical rules which were studied by explicit explanations of these using language ‘segments’, i.e. parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adverbs, pronouns, articles, participles, conjunctions and prepositions) (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011: 2). The overload of explicit grammar instruction largely brought the method into discredit and this, consequently, brought about the loss of the favour of terminology in L2 classrooms (Berry, 2010: 129). One of the reasons for that is the belief that teaching an L2 on the basis of GTM excessively accentuates linguistic or grammatical competence and leads only to little or no communicative competence.

As a reaction to the dissatisfaction with this method a new, natural approach developed at the turn of the nineteenth century and resulted in the so called Direct Method (DM). As its name implies, natural methods were based on the belief that L2 should be learnt as learners’ L1, i.e. L2 learning (acquisition) should “follow the natural principles of first language learning” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 387). However, participants of the learning process refrained from the use of L1 as a means of communication. The DM continued to be affected by the notions of prescriptive grammar (Brown in Berns, 2010: 341) but to a lesser degree. As specified in Richards and Schmidt (2010: 172), in this method “grammar should only be taught inductively i.e. grammar rules should not be taught to the learners [explicitly]”, but rather, learners were expected to learn grammar unconsciously by exercises in reading, writing, and speaking (Howatt, 1984: 40). In contrast to the previous method, DM paid more attention to oral skills (speaking and listening) than to written skills (writing and reading). In the 1980s, the term Natural Approach (NA) was used by Krashen and Terrell to propose “natural communication rather than formal grammar study” (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 388), and the learning process within this approach was seen as “the step-by-step acquisition of grammatical structures” (Berry 2010: 128). The place for focus on form in L2 classrooms was limited and, likewise, the role of terminology in NA became less prominent as “an explicit grammar rule may never be given [in NA classrooms]” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 28).

The natural order of L2 learning “progressing from listening comprehension and speaking to reading and writing” (Hilgendorf in Chapelle, 2012: 2791) and the emphasis

put on aural-oral skills formed a basis of another approach – the Audiolingual Method (ALM). This method developed in the middle of the twentieth century as a by-product of the US army foreign language training. ALM advocated learning through drill and repetition of language patterns, which would lead to habit formation, i.e. to the internalization of correct grammatical structures and rules. The purpose of the drill was to develop the ability to provide grammatically accurate sentence structures (Mothejzík, 1998: 97). Learners were drilled in the use of grammatical sentence patterns (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 35) and grammatical items were presented through implicit focus on form. As mentioned by Berry (2010: 129) there was (or was supposed to be) no mention of grammar or terminology in the classroom.

One of the relatively recent approaches whose central aim is communicative competence and proficiency – Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), also referred to as Communicative Approach – came onto the stage of L2 teaching in the 1980s as a next step in shifting the status of the focus on grammar from moderately used to often neglected or even avoided. In this approach communicative competence is seen as “the ability to use the target language to engage in meaningful and effective communication” (Hu, 2010: 64). Therefore, linguistic competence is downplayed and the traditional explicit grammar teaching is rejected. Hand in hand with this belief goes the stance taken on explicit knowledge of L2 grammar and metalanguage, i.e. that of no place for any focus on grammar and, by implication, for any metalanguage. Both seemed to have been discarded from CLT-oriented L2 classrooms as an unjustified tool in L2 learning, or to put it more precisely, they have been discarded from the “strong” version (Howatt, 1984: 279) of CLT where language was learnt by learning to communicate (Berry, 2010: 128) and thus terminology was not given great importance. Nevertheless, the “weak” versions allowed for and preserved the focus on grammar, even though in a limited form, and under the conditions that L2 teaching “sought to maximise opportunities for communication” (Berry 2010: 128).

The strong form of CLT is associated with a Task-Based Approach, referred to as Task-Based Language Teaching, which is based on the use of communicative tasks that should “enable the learners to acquire grammar as a result of engaging in authentic language use” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 585). Thus the focus on grammatical forms would appear to be somewhat neglected in this approach; however, as Richards and Rodgers (2001: 236) mention “there is room for focus on form, though this can take many shapes”.

In general, it seems that grammar teaching (or focus on form) is a prerequisite for the use of metalinguistic terminology associated with the presented grammatical structures, however, the opposite is not necessarily the case, i.e. terminology may not play a role in grammar teaching but may be used, for instance, for presenting vocabulary or as a general ‘metatalk’ (terms for general linguistic units such as *sentence, phrase, word, question* etc.) in a classroom.

### **2.8.2. Current situation**

In the present time, CLT approach seems to be prevalent in L2 classrooms. This also applies to the context of Czech secondary education, and particularly to foreign language education in grammar schools, as “the emphasis in foreign-language instruction is currently put on increasing the level of communication so that the pupil is able to communicate effectively on common topics...” (FEP SGE, 2007: 13). However, the balance between focus on communicative competence and linguistic (grammatical) competence is being sought continually. It seems that the goal of today’s L2 teaching is to find the way of integrating most effectively the focus on grammatical forms and the focus on meaningful communication in L2 classrooms (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011: 2). It is not an either-or relationship between the two; preferably, there should exist a relationship between the teaching of forms and their meanings or uses of such forms, i.e. a form should not be taught for the form’s sake (Berry, 2010: 129). In other words, teachers should not teach grammar only for grammar’s sake, in order to fulfil the requirements of a syllabus and to be able to evaluate their students’ proficiency by testing their knowledge of grammar, but they should rather teach grammar in relation to the meaning of a particular grammatical structure and to the actual use of the structure in real life and to the pragmatic use of the grammatical item. It is believed that for effective learning to occur, it is necessary to contrive a focus-on-form, but in such a way that meaning is not compromised or distorted (Skehan in: Berns, 2010: 350).

Similarly, metalanguage may be used to provide teachers and learners with an economical and precise way of discussing particular functions and purposes, and is introduced as needed, in context (Carter, 1990: 109). This approach to L2 teaching is based on the principles of the Language Awareness movement which emerged in 1980s out of dissatisfaction with certain aspects of CLT such as the fact that “a pure focus on meaning in L2 learning does not lead to high levels of linguistic accuracy” (Simard and Wong, 2004: 96). Therefore, the need for metalinguistic reflection in L2 (as well as L1)

was emphasized as it was believed to enhance the acquisition of an L2 and to develop a fuller understanding and appreciation for how sentence structure and form convey meaning in an L2 (Simard and Wong, 2004: 102).

The overview of the relationship between particular approaches or methods and their attitudes to focus on form and the use of terminology in L2 classrooms can be observed more clearly in the table below:

**Table 1: The role of terminology in various approaches according to Berry (2005: 130)**

method/approach	syllabus	focus on form	terminology
grammar-translation	grammatical	yes, explicit	yes, extensive,
audiolingual	grammatical	pro-active, implicit	no
natural	'grammatical' (learner-based)	no (except for the affective filter)	no (except for the affective filter)
communicative, strong	not grammatical	not permitted	no
communicative, weak	not grammatical	yes	yes, limited
'awareness'	not relevant	yes	yes, limited

## 2.9. When to use metalanguage?

When a decision is being made whether to employ metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology in L2 acquisition or whether not to, several factors have to be taken into account. First, learners' age together with the related level of learner's cognitive development; secondly, the differences or similarities between learners' L1 and L2 (acquisition and, possibly, cultural differences as well), and thirdly, the expected outcome and the aim of the L2 learning situation have to be taken into consideration.

The last factor mentioned depends on the needs and expectations of the learners and on the 'type' of the L2 acquisition. In other words, the use of metalanguage and terminology would differ, in all probability, in a secondary school classroom, at a university course or in an evening language course not only in terms of the amount of terminology applied but also in the selection of terms (if any are selected). The terms should be selected according to their characteristics, and, most importantly, according to the students, their needs and on the desired short-term or long-term outcome of the lesson or the course. A limited use of metalanguage would be expected in a language course, especially in one aimed at developing communicative competences of the participants of the course, whereas at universities students (especially students of languages) are expected to be exposed to

metalanguage to a considerable extent. Metalinguistic terminology is one of the means by which cognitive/academic proficiency is inculcated in language [study programmes at universities] (Berry, 1997: 144). It seems that in secondary schools metalanguage falls within neither limited nor extensive ‘category of use’ as the content of the syllabus for secondary schools suggests; however, whether the actual practice of metalanguage use corresponds with this view is debatable and an issue to be addressed.

### **2.9.1. Learner’s age and cognitive development**

Most contemporary theories of linguistics view language and grammar as the properties of the human mind (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 93). Therefore, learners’ cognitive development, which is closely associated with learners’ age, and their ability to think analytically and abstractly influences the consideration of using metalanguage in classrooms. It has to be taken into account that “each individual language learner brings distinctive cognitive abilities and knowledge to the language-learning experience” (Sternberg, 2011: 413).

In general, it is believed that unless L2 learning starts at a very young age, the learners will have adopted “thinking-for-speaking” habits that are typical of their L1 (Verspoor and Boers in: Chapelle, 2012: 829). In other words, the younger the learner of L2 is, the higher degree of L2 proficiency may be acquired (especially in the field of pronunciation). Insofar as the habits overlap with those of the L2 they may be helpful for the learners, but if they diverge, it can present a hindrance, especially for older L2 learners whose L1 patterns are strongly entrenched in them and which may transfer to the L2 (Verspoor and Boers in: Chapelle, 2012: 829).

It is believed that “explicit discussion of and metalinguistic reflection (the acts of reflection about language that are under conscious control including learner’s intentional planning of his linguistic processing (Gombert, 1996: 41)) on structural patterns and properties contribute to L2 learners’ development of an essential knowledge of the underlying regularities and relationships in the target linguistic system” (Hu, 2010: 73). However, it is a matter of debate at what cognitive stage (or at what age) it is appropriate to start using metalanguage. For instance, Ur (2004: 82) argues that older or more analytically-minded learners will benefit more from the use of terminology and, in like manner, Gower and Walters (1983: 26) believe that grammatical terminology is to be avoided with students at lower levels unless there is a good reason not to. Similarly, it is believed that “younger learners may not have sufficient knowledge of grammatical

terminology or they may not be able to understand the concepts involved” (Thornbury, 1999: 30). Moreover, it has been shown that there exists a clear advantage for older learners in mastery of L2 syntax as well as in the cognitive /academic types of L2 skills (Cummins, 1980: 180). It has been found, in harmony with the previously mentioned findings, that “most 4-year-olds probably cannot label the syntactical categories for any of the words” (Sternberg, 2011: 381). However, this does not mean that small children are not capable of producing grammatically correct utterance, the opposite is the case – most 4-year-olds demonstrate the ability to parse words into categories and to arrange them into grammatical sentences (Sternberg, 2011: 381).

In contrast with the previous statements, Henriksen (in Celce-Murcia, 2011: 31) maintains that an emphasis on the development of the metalinguistic terms needed to talk about language and used from an early stage is justified. In a similar vein, it has been concluded, based on a body of research, that children are capable of and do engage in metalinguistic reflection (Simard and Wong, 2004: 98). Moreover, talk about language is believed to occupy a considerable place in the verbal behaviour of preschool children (Jakobson: in Berry, 2005: 14).

### **2.9.2. Learner’s L1 and L2**

In general, it can be said that the typological difference between learner's mother tongue and his first foreign language influences the acquisition of the L2. For instance, it is much easier, on average, for a native speaker of English to acquire Spanish as a second language than it is to acquire Russian (Sternberg, 2011: 414). For a native Czech speaker Russian would be, in all probability, easier to learn than English, considering the inflectional/inflectional and inflectional/isolating types of the languages, respectively. Nevertheless, it has to be taken into account that in every foreign language there exist grammatical phenomena and structures different from those in L1 (some of them are even non-existent in mother tongue) and, therefore, their acquisition may be more difficult and challenging regardless of L1 and L2 types. Moreover, if another factor – a long-term exposure to L2 in the L2 environment – comes into play, then the influence of the language types may be reduced or even eliminated as L2 learners may become native-like in L2 processing and performance.

The acquisition of L1 takes place in social interaction, through exposure to and use of the child’s mother tongue, and children’s L1 is gradually mastered through imitation, analogy, hypothesis-testing, and generalization abilities (Verspoor and Boers in: Chapelle,



2012: 829). However, L2 acquisition (learning) usually takes place in a more formal setting (if L2 learning in the natural L2 environment is disregarded), i.e. at schools, universities etc., where L2 is acquired through so called instructed learning when teacher guides learners in the acquisition by providing them with formal instructions about the language and L2 learning process. Instructions about L2 may serve as a useful tool for distinguishing between the differences between learner's L1 and L2 and may at least partly compensate for the lack of unlimited exposure to the target language which is typical of L1 acquisition.

When comparing L1 and L2 processing, we might be referring to the psychology of cognition, e.g. automatic vs. controlled processes; implicit vs. explicit knowledge [and with that related implicit vs. explicit learning] (Birdsong, 2006: 24). Implicit learning is a process of acquisition of the knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations (Ellis in: Chappelle, 2012: 2293). Explicit learning, on the other hand, is viewed as “conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure” (Ellis in: Chappelle, 2012: 2293). Implicit learning is associated with automatic processing (unconscious learning), whereas explicit learning is associated with effortful and controlled processing which involves consciousness in learning. Both implicit and explicit learning are involved in SLA as it seems that what has been previously learned explicitly (a grammatical rule or structure) may become more and more implicit, i.e. learner's control over a new form, which, in the beginning, requires a “slow, effortful, and attention-demanding performance, [and] which may also be error-prone, is progressively replaced by less conscious, easier, automatic, and fast performance settings” (Skehan in: Berns, 2010: 351). However, learning difficulty does not depend merely on the type of knowledge – whether implicit or explicit – that is involved (Ellis, 2006: 456), it also depends on the grammatical structures to be learned, as each of the structures requires a different degree and type of knowledge. Five criteria (frequency, saliency, functional value, regularity, processability) are believed to have influence over assessing learning difficulty as implicit knowledge, whereas explicit knowledge needs to be understood in terms of how easy or difficult it is to verbalize a declarative rule, which depends on two principal factors – the concepts involved and the labels (metalanguage) needed to express them. (Ellis, 2006: 437).

The implicit/explicit dichotomy exists, naturally, also in L2 teaching, or more precisely, teaching instruction – teachers may teach L2 (and especially L2 grammar) either

implicitly (inductively) or explicitly (deductively). It has been suggested that there may exist different degrees of usefulness of explicit teaching for different levels, i.e. the more difficult it is to learn something through simple association, because it is too abstract, too distant, too rare, too unreliable, or too hard to notice, the more important explicit learning processes become (DeKeyser in: Chapelle, 2012: 2294). Moreover, it is believed that L2 instructions may be helpful, because learners may erroneously transfer [grammatical constructions] available in their L1 to their use of the L2 or disregard the communicative potential of [these constructions and their] extensions which happen to be missing from their L1 (Verspoor and Boers in: Chapelle, 2012: 832). And indeed, it has been demonstrated that “explicit instruction produced larger gains than an implicit approach” (Skehan in: Berns, 2010: 353).

In contrast to implicit knowledge, explicit knowledge of L2 learners usually involves verbalizing (especially grammar) rules or features, however, the verbalization may or may not entail the use of metalanguage. However, from the reverse point of view, previously acquired metalinguistic knowledge and metacognitive problem-solving strategies may facilitate the use of explicit learning (Muñoz in: Chapelle, 2012: 2294).

As far as language awareness and the knowledge of metalanguage in L1 and L2 are concerned, it is believed that the knowledge of metalanguage in L1 may help in and enhance L2 learning; in other words, the ability to reflect on one’s L1 can be beneficial to L2 development (Simard and Wong, 2004: 98). It would seem that metalanguage and terminology may not have an important place in L1 acquisition, however, any process of language learning, in particular child acquisition of the mother tongue, makes wide use of metalingual functions (Jakobson in Berry, 2005: 14), if metalanguage is understood in its broader sense. It is obvious that for the acquisition of their mother tongue, there is no need for children to possess knowledge of metalinguistic terminology, however, at a later stage, when they study their mother tongue in primary or secondary schools, pupils need to become acquainted with the terms<sup>1</sup>. The formal study of L1 in schools presupposes the knowledge of L1 terminology, which in turn may influence the knowledge of L2 terminology, i.e. it may help learners acquire and understand L2 terms similar to L1 terms. Nevertheless, one has to be careful in judging whether these terms refer to the same concepts in both languages (for instance, the term *predicate* refers to two different concepts; in English it refers to the part of the sentence that contains the verb and its

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<sup>1</sup> Morpho-syntactic terminology forms part of the Czech grammar schools syllabus, viz. Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia, 2007: 14).

object or complements, whereas in Czech it refers only to the verb), or whether the terms label concepts existent in both languages (e.g. definite and indefinite articles do not exist in the Czech language).

## **2.10. Teachers, learners and metalanguage**

This chapter deals with teacher and learner beliefs about the use of metalanguage in the classroom and provides an overview of the factors that may influence the use of metalanguage in teaching and learning.

Teacher belief system consists of “ideas and theories that teachers hold about themselves, teaching, language, learning and their students” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 586) and that are subject to change and to development in the course of time. However, it may be difficult for teachers to change some of their beliefs (especially those formed earlier) as the beliefs are derived from teachers’ prior experiences both as learners and as teachers, from teacher training, observations, the context of teaching, and various sources such as teaching manuals, and, moreover, are closely related to teachers’ emotions and sense of self (Barcelos and Kajala in: Chapelle, 2012: 493). Teachers’ beliefs about their subject, learners and about themselves are of no less importance in teaching, as all these factors influence teachers’ actual practice, i.e. what and how he teaches in reality. The influence is bidirectional, that is, beliefs influence practices but practices can also lead to changes in beliefs (Borg, 2009: 3). However, the beliefs held by a teacher may not be in line with his practice(s) because of clashing interests or ambiguities in the teaching context, including large group sizes, low student motivation or proficiency, dull textbooks, or too many administrative pressures (Barcelos and Kajala in: Chapelle, 2012: 493).

Not only does the store of beliefs influence what teachers do in the classroom, it is the entire pedagogical system, which is, in addition to beliefs, composed of “stores of knowledge, theories, assumptions and attitudes which play a significant role in shaping teachers’ instructional decisions” (Borg, 1998: 9), and which each teacher develops and adopts in the course of time. The components of teachers’ pedagogical systems are to a greater or lesser extent reflected in and applied in teachers’ actual practice – they can exert a persistent long-term influence on teachers’ instructional practices; however, they are, at the same time, not always reflected in what teachers do in the classroom (Borg, 2009: 3).

All components of the teachers' pedagogical systems are also reflected in the central field of L2 study, i.e., in teaching grammar and in the use of terminology in L2 classrooms. For instance, teachers' perception of their knowledge about grammar plays an important role in teachers' instructional practices in that "the way teachers perceive their knowledge about [grammar] will have impact on how they view and approach classroom activities which focus the students' attention on [L2 grammar]" (Borg, 2001: 28).

Teachers appear in the classroom as active decision-makers who, first, should have at their disposal a well-thought-out plan of how they are going to approach important issues regarding grammar teaching, i.e. they have to make decisions on various issues concerning grammar teaching such as:

- whether to conduct formal instruction at all;
- what language points to focus on;
- how to structure grammar lessons;
- how to present and/or analyse grammar;
- how metalinguistically explicit to be;
- what kind of grammar practice activities to utilise;
- how to deal with students' grammatical errors.

(Borg, 1999a: 26)

The fifth point in question – the use of metalanguage and metalinguistic explicitness – is of a particular interest to this chapter. Teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching, their knowledge about language (KAL) and their knowledge of and about grammar (KAG) and their students' KAL and KAG play a significant role in making decisions about grammatical terminology. Moreover, teachers' decisions about terminology are not related directly to beliefs they held about it but rather these decisions are influenced by the interaction of a range of cognitions such as "beliefs about the best way to learn grammar, the value of talk about language, contribution of terminology in L2 learning and students' knowledge and experience of terminology" (Borg, 1999b: 120) and also by their educational and professional experiences gained over a period of time.

Grammatical terminology (GT) may be viewed ambiguously (as a helpful tool or as a hindrance in teaching/learning) by teachers whose beliefs about and actual use of terminology are influenced by various factors such as previous or ongoing teachers' training or their own knowledge of GT. However, two other factors should be taken into account, i.e. the learners' beliefs about and their knowledge of GT and the context and aim of the teaching/learning situation. After proper consideration has been given to the

factors mentioned in the two previous paragraphs, if teachers decide to use GT, it is recommended that they have at their disposal “the various common terms that are used in explanations of grammatical structures, such as terms for units of language, parts of the sentence or parts of speech” (Ur, 2004: 79–80).

Nevertheless, teachers should be careful not to overload their students with grammatical terms and work only with those terms which “they feel are useful for their learners to know” (Thornbury, 2005: 14). Such an evaluation of the usefulness of grammatical terms has been carried out by Berry (2010) who compiled a list of terms and assigned them one (\*) to three stars (\*\*\*) according to their utility. Among the terms with three stars belong, for instance, parts of speech such as *adjective*, *adverb*, *noun*, *preposition*, *pronoun*, and *verb*; clause elements such as *object* and *subject*, and verb tenses and aspects such as past, *present*, *continuous* and *perfect* (Berry, 2010: 226–236).

In summary, teachers should take GT as one of the many tools available to them and to their learners which can facilitate mutual understanding between the teacher and the learner, which leads to a greater effectiveness of teaching and learning, assuming that students are already familiar with the terms used. On a more general note, as far as the option of using a tool or a resource in grammar teaching is concerned, teachers need to “evaluate [it] in terms of its relevance, appropriacy, and practicability on their particular teaching context” (Thornbury, 2005: 7). The same, of course, applies to GT.

Teachers’ choice of how to teach grammar and whether to use GT is, hopefully, lead by teachers’ intuition and their “access to unique knowledge about teaching” (Freeman, 2002: 8). However, to ensure that teachers’ practice and learners’ expectations are in harmony, teachers’ awareness has to be developed in their training to make them aware of the fact that their use of terminology may be problematic for learners under certain conditions (Berry, 1997: 144).

In the context of L2 acquisition, it is important to study and be aware of not only teacher belief system but also of the belief system of learners to be able to find out whether or not and to what extent the beliefs influence language learning and whether the beliefs of the two groups (learners and teachers) are the same or differ from each other and in which aspects. A match in beliefs of the two parties is thought to be productive to learning, as it increases motivation, whereas a mismatch in this respect [appears to be] counterproductive (Barcelos and Kajala in: Chapelle, 2012: 494). As far as learner belief system, which consists of “ideas learners have concerning different aspects of language, language learning and language teaching, that may influence their attitudes and

motivations in learning and have an effect on their learning strategies and learning outcomes” (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 326), is concerned, it is similar to the teacher belief system in that it is composed of relatively stable ideas and attitudes about such things as how to learn a language (learning strategies), effective teaching strategies, appropriate classroom behaviour, [learners’] own abilities, and their goals in language learning (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 326). However, these ideas and attitudes may also be subject to change or to transformation when the learner is faced with new experiences of learning in other contexts (Barcelos and Kajala in: Chapelle, 2012: 488).

For successful learning, learners should be aware of their own beliefs about L2 and about their knowledge of L2, but more importantly, awareness of the two phenomena should be raised in teachers. It is necessary that teachers are aware of their students’ attitudes, opinions, feelings or personalities as well as their needs and the aim of their language learning. Moreover, various learner variables and factors (such as those mentioned in the paragraph below) which may influence language learning have to be taken into consideration.

Each learner (as well as teacher) is a unique human being with unique characteristics such as his age, past learning experience [and previous exposure to L2 and learner’s level of L2 proficiency], learning (cognitive) style, motivation (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 327), or learner’s L1 background which influences his learning. Other factors which may affect learning are so called “cognitive” and “affective” variables. Cognitive variables include learners’ general intelligence, language aptitude, memory, and the ability to analyze and evaluate, whereas affective variables such as empathy, language attitudes and language anxiety, are connected with the emotional aspect of learners (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 102). Moreover, the L2 learning environment, conditions and context may have an impact on learners’ performance and on their learning achievements.

Similarly, the previously mentioned factors play a role in L2 grammar learning and in the use of metalinguistic terminology in this domain. In addition to these factors, there exist other learner variables such as learner maturity, sophistication, the (lack of) metalinguistic knowledge and familiarity with the terms, or learner expressed willingness to use the terminology (Borg, 1999b: 98–99). As far as the metalinguistic knowledge is concerned, it seems that learners have differing levels of ability to talk or write about language; the existence of a ‘metalingual competence’ is hypothesised, though there is no claim that this is distinct from language proficiency in general (Berry, 2005: 15). Teachers need to be aware of the differences in learners’ metalinguistic knowledge and awareness

and, moreover, their attention should be drawn to their learners' knowledge of and attitudes toward grammatical terminology.

It has been found that attitudes towards terminology are closely related to attitudes towards grammar teaching [and learning] in general and that [they] may be influenced by previous learning experiences as well as by reflections on [teachers' and learners'] own teaching [and learning] experience (Berry, 2010: 160). Therefore, it is advisable that teachers become familiar with learners' attitudes to grammar and to the use of terminology (not only) in grammar teaching so that there is no room for unnecessary misunderstandings and possible frustration. Likewise, whenever terminology is to be used, it is desirable that teachers check learners' knowledge of the terms, and identify and prepare learners who are weak in [using terminology] (Berry, 2009: 126) by teaching them the unknown terms and, more importantly, by equipping them with strategies to help them deal with unknown terms (Berry, 1997: 144).

### 3. Methodology

The general aim of the empirical part of the thesis is to shed light on the issue of metalinguistic terminology in Czech grammar schools. In order to elicit the desired, more specific, responses from the participants in the research the main research question (RQ) was further divided into several sub-questions regarding learners' and teachers' beliefs about the use of the terminology in Czech GS. Therefore, two main groups of questions were defined, i.e. the attitudinal and the knowledge-based questions, which were aimed at students and teachers and which were further divided into four (RQs 1, 2, 4, 5) and three (RQs 3, 6, 7) subgroups, respectively. The subgroups are constituted of the following research questions:

1. *What attitude towards English and English grammar do students have?*
2. *What attitude do students have to grammatical terminology? What are their beliefs about their knowledge of grammatical terminology?*
3. *What knowledge of grammatical terminology do students have?*
4. *What attitude towards English and English grammar do teachers have?*
5. *What attitude do teachers have to grammatical terminology? What are their beliefs about students' attitude to grammatical terminology?*
6. *How aware teachers are of students' knowledge of grammatical terminology?*
7. *Which terms do teachers use in practice and to what extent?*

Two versions of questionnaires – the learner and the teacher questionnaire – were designed to obtain answers to these questions. Furthermore, hypotheses about the knowledge-based parts of the questionnaires were formulated in order to be able to more meaningfully analyze the results obtained via students' and teachers' answers to questions 3., 6. and 7.

The null and the alternative hypotheses were formulated as follows:

- 1.2.1.  $H_0$  = *No difference in student scores in their knowledge of grammatical terms and in teacher estimate of this knowledge and his use of the terms in classrooms will be found.*
- 2.2.1.  $H_1$  = *A substantial difference in student scores in their knowledge of grammatical terms and in teacher estimate of this knowledge and his use of the terms in classrooms will be found.*

Having said that, it has to be defined what is considered to be a substantial difference in student scores and teacher estimates/use of the terms. The difference of 40% (and more)



between the student/teacher scores has been determined as the cut-off point to indicate a substantial difference between the individual scores.

It is also hypothesized that students will be more familiar with some terms and less familiar with others and that teacher estimates of this familiarity (knowledge) will be, likewise, different for certain terms, i.e. students' knowledge of some terms may be over- or underestimated by teachers. It is assumed that more specific or 'refined' terms for parts of speech (Berry, 1995: 58) such as *(un-)countable noun*, *(in-)definite article* or *relative pronoun* may cause problems to students who may not be very familiar with these terms compared to, for instance, well-used and widely known terms such as *noun*, *verb* or *adjective*. Similarly, it can be expected that students will demonstrate limited knowledge of terms denoting clause elements, especially of the two which are, probably, used to a lesser extent in secondary schools, i.e. *direct* and *indirect object* (when compared to the other two terms, *subject* and *verb*). As far as labels for verb tenses are concerned, it is assumed that students will have sound knowledge of them as they are part and parcel of English language study and feature in most English course books.

### **3.1. Participants**

The data for this research were collected from Czech grammar school students of English as a foreign language and from Czech grammar school English teachers. 108 students (43 males, 65 females) participated in the research. The majority of students (N=105) were native speakers of Czech, 2 participants indicated a combination of Czech and another foreign language (German and Vietnamese) as their mother tongue and 1 participant provided the answer of Polish to this question. The age of the participants ranged from 15 to 19, as the target population of this study were first-, second-, third- or fourth-year grammar school students, i.e. only the students attending the classes in their last four years of study at GS were involved in the study, regardless of the type of the grammar school (4- or 8-year; state, private or church grammar schools). According to students' responses to their English proficiency level, most of them (N=78) assessed their level of knowledge as intermediate, that is, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), their level of proficiency corresponds to B1 (N=46) or B2 (N=32) levels. Three students evaluated their level of English as A1, nineteen students as A2, five as C1 and three as C2 level.

96 teachers (14 males, 82 females) participated in the research. Most of them (N=93) were native speakers of Czech, only 3 participants indicated Slovak as their mother

tongue. Their age ranged from 25 to 61 with the mode of 38 years (6 participants). English teachers involved in the research were grammar school teachers that teach first, second, third or fourth-year GS students. Their self-reported English proficiency was mostly C1 (49) and C2 (46), only 1 teacher provided the response of B2 level. The self-report method for the English level assessment was used as no results of proficiency tests or certificates were at our disposal at the time of research, which would be a more valid way of measuring students' and teachers' proficiency. However, according to FEP SGE, education in the field of foreign language learning/teaching builds on the knowledge of L2 at A2 level and is aimed at attaining B2 level by the fourth year of study (FEP SGE, 2007: 13), which would suggest that students reported their level of English quite accurately. As far as the proficiency level of teachers is concerned, with the exception of one teacher, all of them consider themselves proficient users of English, and indeed, 71 teachers should have attained at least C1 level as they indicated that they studied English at Czech universities where the study programmes are aimed at attaining C1 level.

### **3.2. Research instrument**

In order to obtain a satisfactory amount of data, a questionnaire survey was chosen as the most suitable instrument for the purpose of this research. Moreover, it was felt that this instrument would enable a wide range of information to be collected from a large number of respondents (Andrews, 1994: 510).

Two versions of web-based questionnaires – the learner and the teacher online questionnaire – were designed<sup>2</sup>. Originally, web-based questionnaires were thought to provide sufficient amount of data, however, responses were obtained only from 46 students in the course of seven weeks (January – March) and, for this reason, pencil-and-paper questionnaires were designed and used to investigate students' attitudes and beliefs as well as the knowledge of 20 grammatical terms. A sufficient amount of data was collected from teachers during the seven weeks and, therefore, it was not necessary to convert the online questionnaire into a pencil-and-paper form.

Teacher and learner online questionnaires (or links to the questionnaires) were distributed via e-mails sent to GS English teachers who were kindly asked to forward the learner questionnaire to their students. The grammar schools selected for the survey were searched on the Internet on the website <http://www.seznamskol.eu/typ/gymnazium/> that

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<sup>2</sup> The questionnaire was created and published online through the questionnaire software <http://www.vyplnto.cz/>.

lists Czech grammar schools and their websites. Teachers were selected and contacted according to the availability of their contacts (e-mail addresses) on the websites. In total, 1,206 teachers were addressed. However, as has been mentioned in the previous paragraph, due to the insufficient number of responses from students (the sample size [should exceed] the minimal number of 50 respondents generally required for a study with statistically significant results, according to Dörnyei, 2010: 62)) pencil-and-paper version of the online questionnaire was administered to students by the researcher in March. Students of Gymnázium Josefa Jungmanna (Litoměřice), Bankovní akademie – gymnázium, a.s (Praha) and Střední odborná škola pedagogická a gymnázium Evropská (Praha) participated in the research. These GS were selected on account of the convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher.

### **3.2.1. Pilot questionnaires**

#### **3.2.1.1. Learner questionnaire**

A pilot study was conducted prior to administering the final version of the learner questionnaire. After piloting the questionnaire by 10 3<sup>rd</sup>-year students of Bankovní akademie – gymnázium, a final (shorter) version of the questionnaire was developed. Students were asked to comment on the length of the questionnaire, clarity of the instructions and on the six-point Likert scale used for recording students' answers.

The pilot questionnaire consisted of 74 questions (9 of these formed part of the bio-data section). In general, students agreed on the fact that some of the questions overlapped and were, in effect, aimed at examining the same or similar concepts. Therefore, the redundant questions were eliminated and some of them were rephrased for better comprehension or replaced by more relevant questions. Two items were excluded from the bio-data section (students' experience abroad and the evaluation of the study materials they used in classes) as they were not considered important for the purpose of the research.

The instructions were found clear and comprehensible by the students, however, instructions on one task in the knowledge-testing part of the questionnaire proved to be slightly less clear than the instructions on other tasks, and they were, therefore, reformulated to be more explicit and understandable for the students.

Finally students were asked to evaluate the two types of six-point Likert scales used in the questionnaire (*strongly disagree – strongly agree, not at all – absolutely*). The scales were found comprehensible and thus unproblematic, which was one of the reasons why this type of scale was kept in the final form of the questionnaire. Another argument for

choosing a six-point Likert scale with the responses ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* and for not including the neutral mid-point category is the fact that “respondents might use the middle category to avoid making a real choice” (Dörnyei, 2010: 28), which was not desirable for the research. In a similar vein, it has been found that respondents’ desire not to provide a socially unacceptable answer can be minimized by eliminating the mid-point (Garland, 1991: 70), and, in addition, evidence exists that reliability and validity of the measuring instrument are independent of the number of scale points used for Likert-type items (Matell and Jacoby, 1971: 666). Moreover, this type of Likert scale has been used in questionnaires in Dörnyei (2010: 158-161) which have served as an inspiration for the design of the attitudinal part of the learner and teacher questionnaires used for the purpose of this thesis.

The learner questionnaire was also completed by five current university students of the English language who have experience with teaching English and who provided the researcher with a valuable feedback as far as the validity of the questionnaire items was concerned. Moreover, the supervisor of the thesis was consulted about the questionnaire used for obtaining the data.

### **3.2.1.2. Teacher questionnaire**

The teacher questionnaire was completed by two experienced English teachers before the final version of the questionnaire was produced. After a consultation with the two teachers, three items in the attitudinal part of the questionnaire were excluded and a section aimed at testing teachers’ knowledge of the terminology for verb tenses was eliminated. Three items (experience abroad, the knowledge of other languages, teaching materials) were excluded from the bio-data section.

## **3.2.2. Final form of the questionnaire**

### **3.2.2.1. Learner questionnaire**

The learner questionnaire<sup>3</sup> is comprised of 57 items and of three parts (Part I, Part II, Part III). The first, attitudinal part of the questionnaire, consists of 24 statements regarding the English language, grammar and (the knowledge of) grammatical terminology, as well as students’ English teacher practice as far as English grammar and GT are concerned. Students were asked to evaluate the statements by selecting one of the six options on the

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<sup>3</sup> See Appendix I

Likert scale. In items 1–6 and 17–25 the categories of the scale were defined as *strongly disagree – disagree – slightly disagree – slightly agree – agree – strongly agree*, in items 8–16 students were asked to choose one of the six following options: *not at all – very little – not so much – quite – very – absolutely*. Items 26–29 were multiple-choice questions where students chose one of the four options, and items 7 and 30 were designed as open-ended questions.

In the second part of the questionnaire, in items 31–50 (tasks 1, 2 and 3 in the pencil-and-paper questionnaire), students' receptive as well as productive knowledge of 20 metalinguistic terms was tested. The first task in this section focused on learners' knowledge of English parts of speech. Students were asked, first, to translate the eleven given terms into Czech, and second, to find examples of the individual parts of speech in a compound sentence<sup>4</sup> provided by the researcher (the sentence was borrowed from Bloor, (1986: 3)). Secondly, students were asked to find and underline (or to type in online questionnaires) examples of four clause elements (words or phrases performing the required grammatical functions – *subject, verb, direct object, indirect object*) in four simple sentences provided by the researcher. Furthermore, a section testing the knowledge of verb tenses was devised and added to the two previously mentioned sections. In this section students were required to supply the appropriate metalinguistic terms by, first, identifying the given structure (verb tense) in five simple sentences and second, by providing labels for the structures, i.e. both, Czech and English terms for the verb tenses were required. Due to time constraints students were not asked to invent their own sentences in which they would use an example of the given terms and which would exemplify the use of the target term/structure, however, the questionnaire attempts to replicate the way in which terminology is deployed in classroom situations, as when teachers say, “You need to use an [adjective] here” (Berry, 2009: 116).

The third part – a bio-data section (items 51-57) has been included and placed at the end of the questionnaire in order to collect information on potentially important variables such as gender, age, mother tongue, experience of learning other foreign languages and length of time spent on studying English as well as the level of English proficiency. This section was placed at the end of the questionnaire as it is a good practice to put personal questions

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<sup>4</sup> Materials are delivered to the factory by a supplier, who usually has no technical knowledge, but who happens to have the right contacts.

at the end as it can be annoying for some respondents to answer this type of questions and it may discourage them from completing the questionnaire (Muijs, 2004: 50).

The terms selected for the purpose of the study were divided into the three following categories: parts of speech – *noun, countable noun, uncountable noun, definite article, indefinite article, adjective, relative pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition* and *conjunction*; clause elements – *subject, verb, direct object, indirect object*; verb tenses – *present simple, present continuous, present perfect, past simple* and *future simple* (tenses). The present study is partly a replication of Bloor’s study (1983) of university students’ knowledge of grammar and grammatical terms (parts of speech and grammatical functions) in that it adopted and altered Bloor’s SPAM questionnaire (Bloor, 1986: 3). Terms such as *passive verb, finite verb, auxiliary verb, past participle* and *infinitive* were omitted due to their inadequateness in terms of the probable (non-)use of these terms in English language acquisition at the secondary level and due to the expected lower level of students’ cognitive abilities as regards these (more) challenging terms. Similarly, the clause element *predicate* was replaced by *verb* (functioning as a clause element) (Berry, 2010: 235). The term *relative pronoun*, however, was used in the study as it was the only type of pronoun to form part of the compound sentence used for the test and, moreover, it was assumed that students would be familiar with the term *pronoun* to some extent.

In addition, the terms were partly selected according to Berry’s list of metalinguistic terms (Berry, 2010: 226) and their usefulness and frequency of use in English language teaching (\*\*\*or \*\* stars terms). The criteria for the selection of these terms were frequent occurrence of the pedagogic and scientific terms in the higher positions in the surveys of learner knowledge, or in grammars and textbooks, and utility and familiarity with the terms based on research results (Berry, 2010: 224-225). Nevertheless, it has to be admitted that “the judgement of how many stars to allocate to each term [was] subjective” (Berry, 2010: 226).

### **3.2.2.2. Teacher questionnaire**

The teacher questionnaire<sup>5</sup> includes 80 items and consists of three parts. Teachers’ beliefs about and attitudes towards English teaching, grammar, grammatical terminology as well as their beliefs about their students’ knowledge of GT were investigated in the first part of the questionnaire (closed-ended items 1–24). Teachers recorded their replies using a six-point scale (*strongly disagree – disagree – slightly disagree – slightly agree – agree*

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<sup>5</sup> See Appendix II

– *strongly agree*) with the exception of one item, the open-ended question 15 which required a brief written answer. Moreover, teachers were asked to answer questions 25–34 by choosing one of the two (item 32), four (items 25–30) or five possible answers (items 31, 33, 34). In questions 26 and 27 teachers could choose at least one and a maximum of four of the four options and they had the possibility of providing their own answers.

In Part II (items 35–74), teachers were asked to evaluate their students' knowledge of the 20 metalinguistic terms by choosing one of the *Yes* (if they thought their students were likely to know the given term) or *No* (if they believed their students did not know the term) options. Similarly, teachers recorded their answers (*Yes* or *No*) to the question whether they, personally, actively used the 20 grammatical terms in teaching.

A bio-data section (items 75–80) was included as the final part of the questionnaire to elicit responses to the questions concerning respondents' gender, age, mother tongue, experience with teaching (in secondary schools), formal education, and level of proficiency in English.

Student questionnaire was written in Czech in order not to cognitively overload learners (decoding the English text and thinking about the questionnaire items at the same time), whereas in their teacher counterparts, English was used as the language of instruction as high level of English proficiency is expected from the teachers. Anonymity of the respondents was ensured in both versions of the questionnaire.

The completion of the aforementioned tasks (see section 3.2.2.1.) took students 25 minutes and 43 seconds on average and 15 minutes 45 seconds on average were needed to complete the teacher questionnaire. The response rate of the student and teacher web-based questionnaires was 25.8 % and 42.9 %, respectively. The response rate has been counted as the ratio of completed questionnaires to displayed questionnaires, i.e. the respondents who were addressed and did not display the questionnaire at all (they did not click on the questionnaire link) were not taken into consideration. It has to be acknowledged that the low return rate may have been caused by the fact that filling in the teacher questionnaire and telling students about the learner questionnaire was done on a completely voluntary basis.

Moreover, it has to be admitted that especially the knowledge-based part of the web-based learner questionnaire may have been completed with the help of various sources (Internet, textbooks etc.) as opposed to the process of the completion of the pencil-and-paper questionnaires where the researcher was present. However, the results of the

research indicate this was not the case as incorrect answers were obtained from students who filled in the online questionnaire and, in addition, a considerable time was needed for filling in the questionnaire, which suggests that students were trying to work the 'test' out on their own.



## **4. Data analysis**

The following section presents the findings and results obtained in the survey of Czech secondary-level learners' and teachers' attitudes toward, beliefs about, and knowledge and awareness of metalinguistic terminology. Quantitative analysis of the data is carried out in the sections below, however, first, typical respondents in the survey are introduced briefly in the two following chapters.

### **4.1. Typical respondent**

#### **4.1.1. Student**

The typical student was a 16-year-old Czech speaker who attended the second year of a secondary school. He or she (more female students participated in the survey; see section 3.1) started to learn English at the age of nine. He has studied at least one other foreign language; the most frequently studied foreign language was German (N=75). The level of English proficiency of the typical student was B1.

#### **4.1.2. Teacher**

The typical teacher was a 38-year-old speaker of Czech. He or she (more female teachers participated in the research; see 3.1) has ten years of teaching experience and has been teaching English in secondary schools for the same period of time. The typical teacher received his Master's degree by the completion of a 5-year study programme at the Pedagogical Faculty in Prague (even though practically the same number of teachers completed their studies at the Faculty of Arts, i.e. 21 teachers compared to 20, respectively). The level of proficiency of the typical teacher was C1.

### **4.2. Learner questionnaire – attitudes and beliefs**

In this section results obtained in the attitudinal part of the questionnaire (items 1–30) are discussed. The items as well as the findings from this part were divided into three main groups based on the related topics which are dealt with in the statements or questions.

#### **4.2.1. Attitudes and beliefs regarding the study of English and English grammar**

Items 1–8 dealt with students' attitudes to more general issues, such as the study of English language and English grammar. First, beliefs about students' knowledge of

English were investigated. Their responses to the statement *I think I'm good at English (1)*<sup>6</sup> were on the whole positive – 39.81% of students indicated that they slightly agree with the statement, and 25.93% of respondents agreed and 16.67% strongly agreed with the statement. Moreover, students were asked to react to the question *whether the knowledge of English grammar is essential for the knowledge of English (8)*. 33.33% of students slightly agreed, 28.7% agreed and 12.96% strongly agreed that it is essential to have a good command of grammar to be able to say that you can speak English.

Students' reactions to statements (2) and (4), which inquired about their attitudes toward learning and toward the knowledge of English and English grammar and about the importance of the phenomena to them, showed a strong positive tendency, i.e. altogether, 97.22% of student responses were located on the positive end of the scale (*slightly agree – agree – strongly agree*). Those students who selected one of the three 'positive' options in item (2) were asked to elaborate on their positive stance on the importance of learning English in question (7) *Why is learning and the knowledge of English important to students*. Their responses were grouped under the ten following categories: 1. future career (60)<sup>7</sup>, 2. travelling (56), 3. future studies, education and information (26), 4. communication (abroad, with foreigners) (21), 5. norm, necessity (13), 6. utility (11), 7. entertainment (9), 8. hobby (5), 9. more opportunities in the future (3) and 10. other – interest in foreign cultures and languages (1), and moving to an English speaking country (1). Students usually provided more than one answer to this question. The answers to question (7) are discussed in more detail in chapter 5.

The respondents reactions to statement (3) suggested that almost 91% (90.74%) of students enjoy learning English (the 'positive' answers *slightly agree, agree* and *strongly agree* were added up). However, on the other hand, students' replies to *whether they enjoy learning English grammar (5)* were almost equally divided between the positive and negative parts of the scale with 51.85% of positive answers in total and 48.15% negative answers (*slightly disagree, disagree, strongly disagree*).

Statement (6) *It is more useful to deal with grammar than to engage in conversation in classes*, in general, provoked in students negative reactions. 83.33% of them answered negatively, i.e. 40.74% slightly disagreed, 31.48% disagreed and 11.11% strongly disagreed with this statement.

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<sup>6</sup> The original statement was *Domnívám se, že umím anglicky*.

<sup>7</sup> The figures in brackets indicate the number of respondents.

#### 4.2.2. Attitudes and beliefs regarding grammatical terminology

Questions (9), (11), (13) examined learners' beliefs about *the importance of knowing grammatical terms for learning English grammar*. The balanced results obtained from (9) and (11) suggested that students have ambivalent attitude to the need of having the knowledge of grammatical terminology. 49.07% of respondents think that it is not important to know the English labels for parts of speech (their reactions to this question were located on the negative side of the scale, i.e. their answers were either *not so much*, *very little*, or *not at all*)<sup>8</sup> for learning grammar and, similarly, 50.93% of learners believe that knowing terms for clause elements (grammatical functions) is not important for studying English grammar. On the contrary, almost three quarters of students (72.22%) find terms for English verb tenses important for learning grammar (their answers were *quite*, *very*, or *absolutely*).

In questions (10), (12), (14) students were asked whether *they believe that the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology for parts of speech, clause elements and verb tenses may facilitate their learning of English*. The reactions of the respondents in (10) and (12) showed a stronger tendency towards disagreement (67.59%; 66.67%) rather than agreement (32.41%; 32.41% – one answer was missing) with the possible facilitative effect of MT on learning. Despite the essentially negative answers to the first two questions, a stronger positive tendency towards agreement (67.59%) with the fact that the knowledge of terms for verb tenses may facilitate learning was revealed in (14). The most frequent student response was *quite* (31.48%). Question (15) in essence overlaps with the previous three questions in that it summarizes the content of the questions by asking students *whether the knowledge and the use of terms for parts of speech, clause elements and verb tenses facilitate learning English*. Quite surprisingly, the results obtained show a relatively balanced spread of answers on the positive and the negative part of the scale – *not at all* (3.70%), *very little* (15.74%), *not so much* (31.48%), i.e. 50.93% in total; *quite* (32.41%), *very* (9.26%), *absolutely* (7.41%), i.e. 49.07% in total. The slight difference of 1.86% between the two extremes (negative and positive) and the fact that most of the students' answers were recorded on the more neutral points of the scale (*not much* and *quite*) suggest an ambivalent attitude to terminology.

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<sup>8</sup> The wording of the scale in Czech was as follows: *vůbec ne – velmi málo – moc ne – docela ano – velmi – naprosto*.

Statements (17), (19), (20), (21) and (28) examined students' beliefs about their knowledge of grammatical terminology. In (17) students were asked *whether they think they have a sound knowledge of grammatical terms for parts of speech, clause elements and verb tenses*. Respondents' reactions to this statement suggested that more than half of the students (55.56%) think they do not possess a sound knowledge of the grammatical terms and thus indicated that they felt not very confident and knowledgeable in this area. However, when learners were asked to evaluate the statements concerning each category of the terms individually, different results were obtained: first, 57.41% of students think they are able to determine parts of speech in an English text (19), second, 50.93% of respondents consider themselves capable of determining clause elements in an English text (20), and, finally, 73.15% believe they are able to determine verb tenses in an English text (21). Item (28) was concerned with students' evaluation of their knowledge of grammatical terminology. Students replied to the question *How would you evaluate your knowledge of English GT?* by selecting one of the four given options. Most of the students (44.44%) think they do not have a very good knowledge of GT; however, there exists only a slight difference between the negative and positive reactions as 42.59% of students think, on the other hand, they have quite a good knowledge of GT.

Items (18) and (27) investigated learners' use of metalinguistic terminology in the process of learning English. The reactions of students to the statement *I use English grammatical terms in my study of the English language* were, to a considerable extent, negative as 63.89% of responses were located on the negative part of the scale with the most frequent answer of *slightly disagree* (28.70%). In addition, students were asked *how much attention they pay to grammatical terminology in their study of English*. The most frequently selected option out of the four given was '*medium (attention)*' (51.85%), which together with the score for the answer '*close (attention)*'<sup>9</sup> constitutes more than half of all the answers, i.e. 57.41% of respondents chose a positive answer.

Question (29) asked students to evaluate *how much useful and interesting grammatical terminology is to them*. The results indicate that the majority of learners (72.22%) regard terminology as useful but boring. 13.89% of respondents think that GT is both useful and interesting, 9.26% consider GT useless and boring and only 3.70% of learners think that GT is interesting but useless.

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<sup>9</sup> The options in Czech were: *žádnou – malou – střední – velkou*.

#### 4.2.3. Attitudes and beliefs regarding teachers, English grammar and grammatical terminology

This group of statements (22), (23), (24), (25), (26) and questions (16), (30) examined students' beliefs about their English teachers and their practice in classes regarding the use of grammatical terminology in explaining grammar. Statement (22) asked *whether teachers, in general, can explain grammar well*. The majority of students (89.81%) think their teachers are able to explain it well (23.15% answered *slightly agree*, 36.11% *agree* and 30.56% *strongly agree*). In a similar vein, learners were asked *how much attention teachers pay to grammar in lessons* (26). From the four options available (*no, little, medium, close*) the majority of students opted for the third alternative, i.e. 68.52% think that their teachers pay medium attention to grammar in classes. No student thought that his or her teacher devoted no attention to grammar.

Further, statements (24) and (25) asked students *whether they were happy with their teachers' explanation of grammar with English or Czech as the medium of instruction*. The results for English as the language used for explaining grammar were, on the whole, positive as in total 63.89% of respondents selected one of the options located on the positive side of the scale, i.e. *slightly agree, agree, strongly agree*. Most of the students whose reaction were positive chose the answer of *slightly agree* (24.07%). Similarly, the responses to the teachers' use of Czech as the medium of instruction were, in essence, positive as 64.81% of students were happy with grammar explanation in Czech. When learners were asked to react to the statement *whether their teachers use English grammatical terminology while explaining grammar* (23) more than three quarters of students (78.70%) replied that their teachers do use it in grammar explanation (learners answered either *slightly agree* (30.56%), *agree* (33.33%) or *strongly agree* (14.81%)). In question (16) students were asked to evaluate *to what extent their teachers use terms for the three categories of GT (parts of speech, clause elements, verb tenses) in classes*. The results suggest that the majority of students (76.85%) think that their teachers use GT quite a lot (35.19% answered *quite*) or to a considerable extent (41.67% replied *very* and *absolutely*).

The second open-ended item in the Learner questionnaire (30) was a complex question regarding *the way teachers explain grammar (grammatical phenomenon)* which consisted of several sub-questions such as: *Does your teacher use grammatical terminology while explaining grammar or does he try to avoid it?, Does he/she explain grammar in his own words or does he make use of grammar rules that can be found in textbooks?, Does he*

*explain grammar in English or in Czech?*. Students' answers<sup>10</sup> were analyzed and divided into four main categories, i.e. 1. the use GT, 2. the use of own words/textbooks, 3. the language of instruction and 4. other (responses).

First, as far as grammatical terminology is concerned, 47.52% of students mentioned that their teachers use GT (to a great extent, very often, sometimes, partly), whereas, on the other hand, 7.56% of students replied that their teachers do not use it at all or not much. Secondly, it was found that teachers tend to explain grammar in their own words (66.96% of respondents) rather than to use ready-made textbook rules (19.44% of students). Some students added evaluative comments about the use of GT and English or Czech: *[My English teacher] explains grammar in his own words, which is better for me. [My English teacher] explains grammar in English, which is not good. [My English teacher] uses GT and his own words to explain grammar, which I find very useful., For full understanding it is better when the teacher explains it in English and in Czech at the same time, I would appreciate if grammar was explained in English (rather than in Czech).*<sup>11</sup>

Moreover, 20.57% of students commented that their teachers make use of examples (their own or from textbooks) to explain grammar to make it more comprehensible for the students. Third, 74.52% of learners wrote that teachers use Czech for explaining grammar, and 65.88% of respondents were of the opposite opinion, i.e. according to them, teachers use English as the medium of instruction while they were explaining grammar. In addition, as some students pointed out, there appears to exist a tendency on the part of the teachers to explain grammatical phenomenon in English first and if students had problems understanding it, teachers would explain it in Czech afterwards.

Several additional answers and reactions to the main question were provided by students. For instance, 14.04% of students evaluated their teachers' way of teaching/explaining grammar by the following adjectives/adverbs: *entertaining, interesting, engaging* (5 students), *comprehensible* (4), *with ease* (1), *extensive* (1), *dull, terse* (1), *well – he uses interesting examples which are easy to remember*<sup>12</sup> (1). 11.88% of students pointed out that their teachers explained grammar in a way so that the learners would understand and comprehend it. The following comment provided by one of the

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<sup>10</sup> Not all students replied to all questions.

<sup>11</sup> *[Učitel vysvětluje] svými slovy, což je pro mne lepší.; [Učitel vysvětluje] anglicky, což není dobrý; [používá] GT + svými slovy – velmi užitečné; Pro úplné pochopení je lepší vysvětlovat zároveň česky.; Ocenila bych vysvětlování gramatiky v AJ.*

<sup>12</sup> *[Učitel vysvětluje] zábavně, zajímavě, záživně, srozumitelně, lehce, rozsáhle, nezáživně, stroze, dobře, zajímavými a zapamatovatelnými příklady*

students specifies this stance: *He uses all the possible tools so that everybody understands it.*<sup>13</sup> 3.24% of respondents answered that the way teachers explained grammar depended on the particular situation and grammatical phenomenon, 2.16% of students wrote that they had already been taught by several different English teachers and that every teacher had his own teaching style, and one learner commented that he did not know.

### **4.3. Learner questionnaire – knowledge of metalinguistic terminology**

This part of the questionnaire investigated learners' knowledge of twenty grammatical terms (11 terms for parts of speech, 4 for clause elements and 5 for verb tenses). Students were asked, first, to provide a Czech term for the English term for parts of speech (task 1a) and to locate within an English sentence provided by the researcher one example of each of the eleven parts of speech (e.g. *noun, countable noun, adjective* etc.) (task 1b); second, respondents were given four sentences and were asked to identify in each the word or phrase performing a specified grammatical function (e.g. *subject, indirect object*) (task 2) and, third, respondents' task was to supply appropriate metalanguage themselves by providing English (task 3a) and Czech labels (task 3b) for five different verb tenses and aspects which they first had to identify in each of the five given sentences. It can be seen from the description of the testing procedure, that two of the three main tasks (which required either passive or active knowledge of the terms) were divided into two subtasks (the section testing the knowledge of parts of speech and verb tenses). Therefore, the assessment of the results was carried out for the five individual subtasks. Students could obtain the maximum of 36 points for the correct completion of the five tasks (2 points for each item in the part-of-speech section, i.e. 22 points, 1 point for each correctly determined clause element, i.e. 4 points, and 2 points for each verb tense - 1 point for the Czech term and 1 point for the English term, i.e. 10 points).

#### **4.3.1. Student scores**

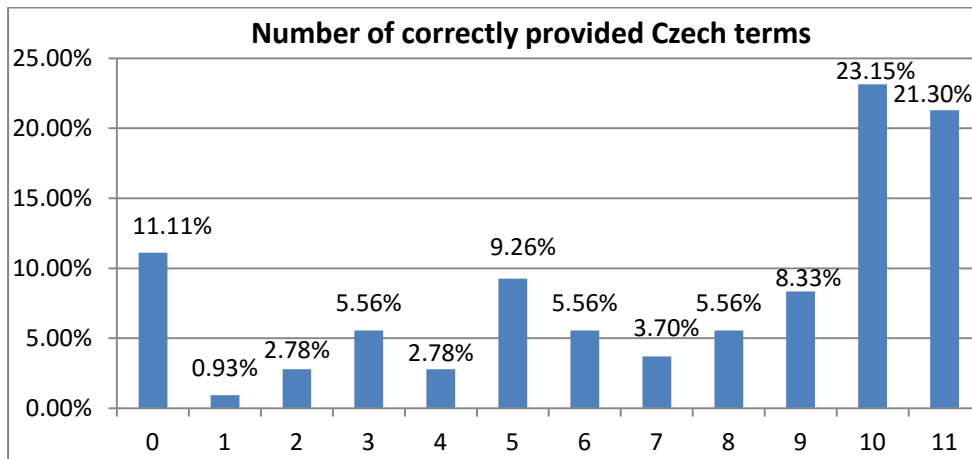
The following figures (Figures 3–10) illustrate scores obtained by students in each of the five subtasks mentioned in the previous section.

Figures 3 and 4, show the overall student scores in terms of the distribution of scores for the parts of speech, i.e. for the correctly translated term from English into Czech and for the correctly identified example in the sentence.

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<sup>13</sup> *Používá všechny možné varianty k tomu, abychom to pochopili.*

**Figure 3: Student scores for parts of speech – Czech terms (n=108)**



As can be seen from Figure 3, there is a wide range of students' knowledge of the Czech terms for parts of speech, from as low as 0 (11.11%) terms known to students to the maximum of 11 terms (out of 11) known to learners, with the mode of 10 and mean of 7.25 (SD=3.72). This means that most frequently students were able to provide ten correct Czech equivalents to the eleven English terms and that the average students score was 7.25 correctly translated terms. 12 (12.96%) students out of 108 did not provide any answer to this task (value 0). This result can be accounted for two main reasons, and these are, the lack of knowledge of the English terms or their Czech equivalents, or the unwillingness on students' part to complete this part of the questionnaire. Students who filled in the pencil-and-paper questionnaire were given a sufficient amount of time, thus time constraints can be excluded from the factors that may have caused the omission of this part.

**Figure 4: Student scores for parts of speech – identification in sentential examples (n=108)**

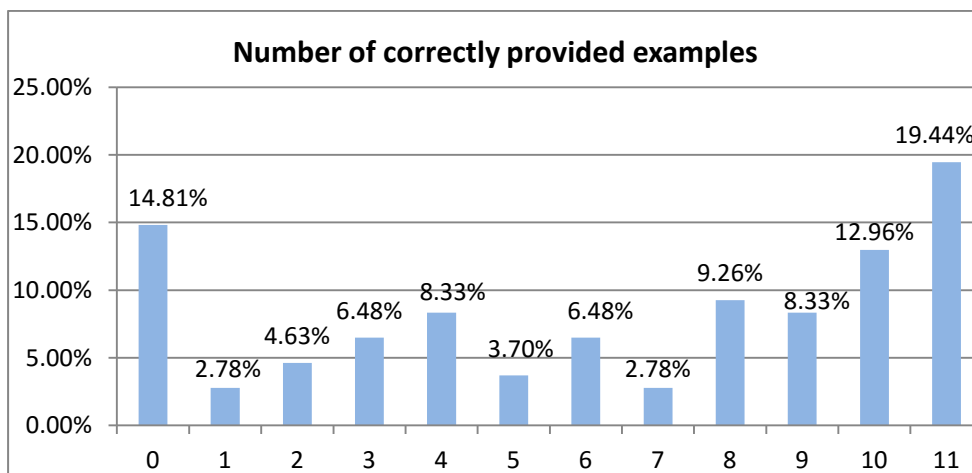
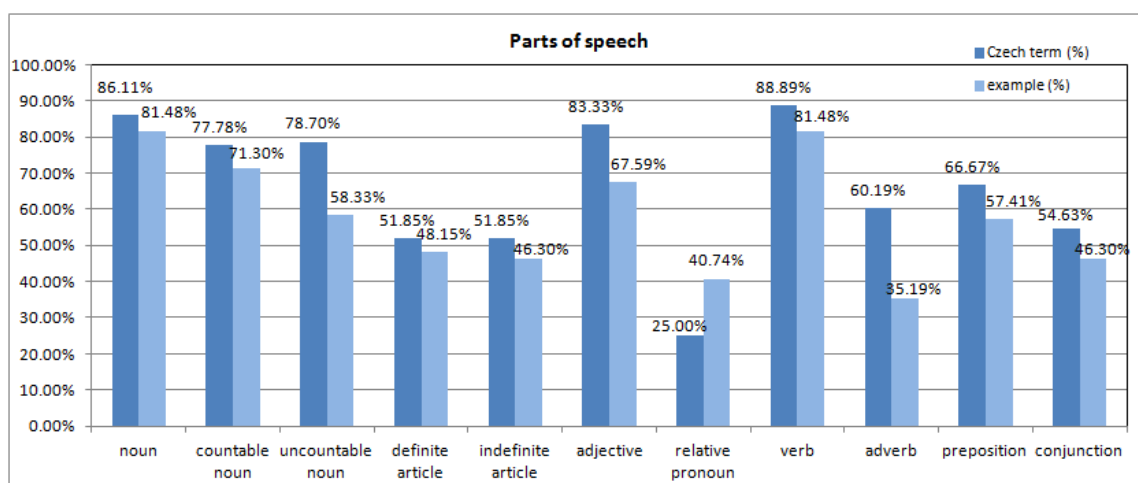




Figure 4 shows how successful students were in locating the examples of the eleven parts of speech in an English sentence. As can be deduced from the figures, this task proved to be more difficult for students than the first one, i.e. in total 32.4% of respondents were able to provide examples of at least 10 or 11 terms as opposed to 44.4% of learners who provided 10 or 11 Czech terms. Moreover, there were more missing responses in this task than in the first one (14.81% or 16 responses and 11.11% or 12 responses, respectively) and the mean score was lower than in the case of the first task (6.34 and 7.25, respectively). Standard deviation equalled 3.96.

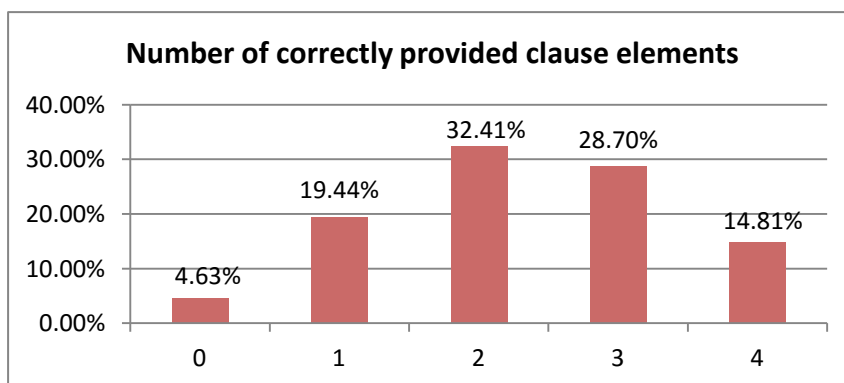
The scores for the two tasks (*1a* and *1b*) for individual parts of speech are illustrated in Figure 5 below:

**Figure 5: Student scores for parts of speech – Czech terms and the identification in sentential examples**

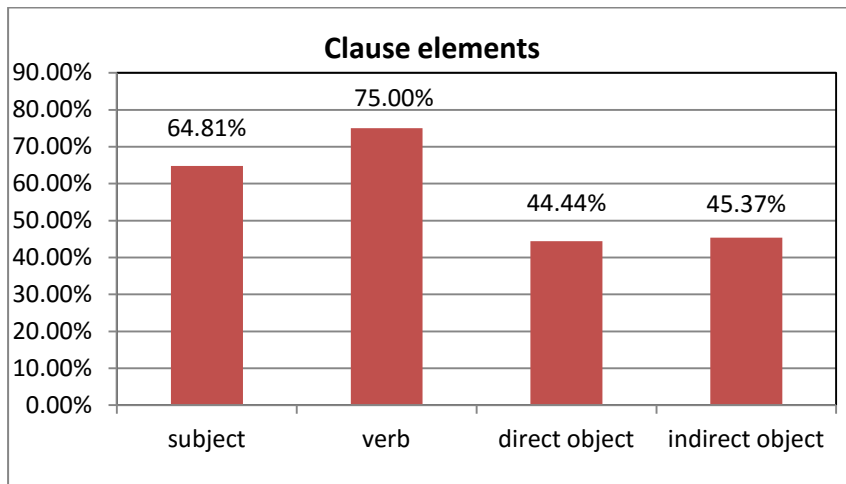


As far as the students' knowledge of English clause elements is concerned, Figure 6 and Figure 7 below provide an overview of the scores for these items and illustrate students' results in task 2:

**Figure 6: Student scores for clause elements – number of correctly identified terms**



**Figure 7: Student scores for clause elements – individual terms**

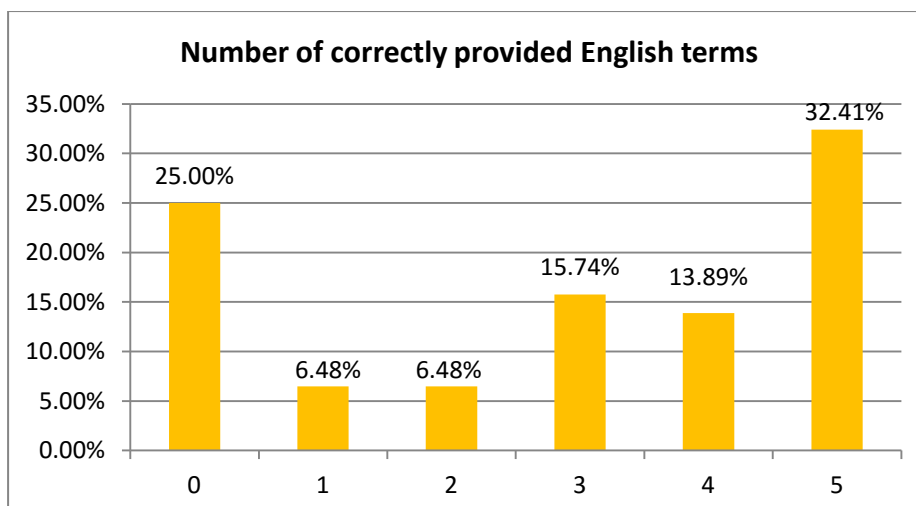


It can be seen from Figure 6 above that student scores for the correctly identified clause elements range from 0 (no identified clause element) to 4 (all clause elements correctly identified). The tendency for the score, however, is to range between 2 and 3 correctly identified items with the average score of 2.30 (SD=1.08).

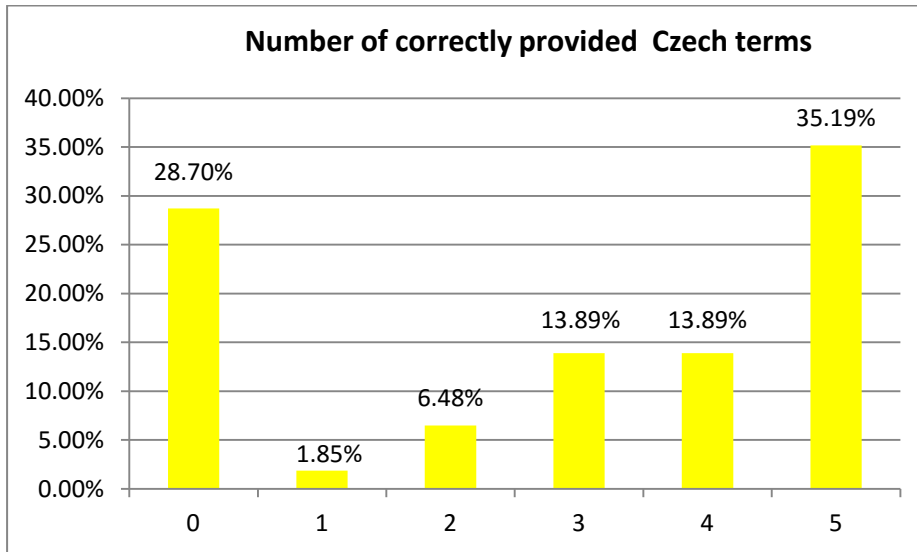
Moreover, as is shown in Figure 7 above, students were happiest with the term *verb* functioning as a clause element and they were more familiar with *verb* and *noun* than with *indirect* and *direct object*.

Figures 8 and 9 summarize the results from the two tasks which dealt with determining five verb tenses and with providing English and Czech terms for the tenses.

**Figure 8: Student scores for verb tenses – English terms**



**Figure 9: Student scores for verb tenses – Czech terms**



As can be seen from Figures 8 and 9 above, students were slightly more successful in correctly identifying the verb tenses and providing Czech terms for them than in providing English terms (the mean score for English terms was lower than for Czech terms, i.e. 2.84 and 2.88, respectively). Standard deviation was 2.00 in the first and 2.06 in the second task. 35.19% of students were able to provide Czech terms for all five tenses, whereas 32.41% of respondents were able to supply all five English terms.

At the same time, it can be noted that most unanswered items occurred in these two tasks. This result may be explained by the fact that the tasks may have been cognitively too complex or demanding for some students as there was simply ‘too much to think about and to answer’.

Figure 10 below summarizes the results from tasks 3a and 3b:

**Figure 10: Student scores for verb tenses – English and Czech terms**

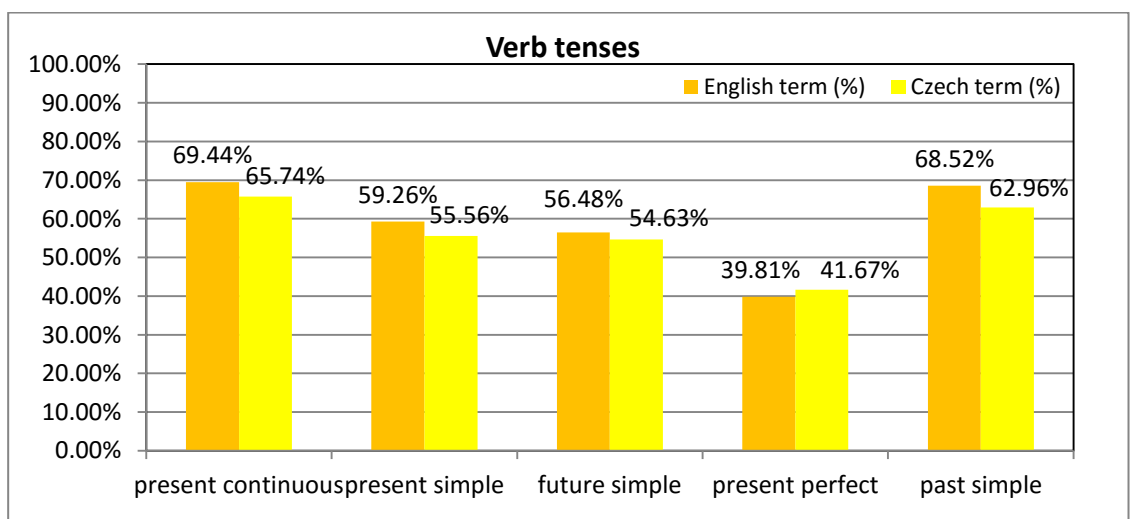
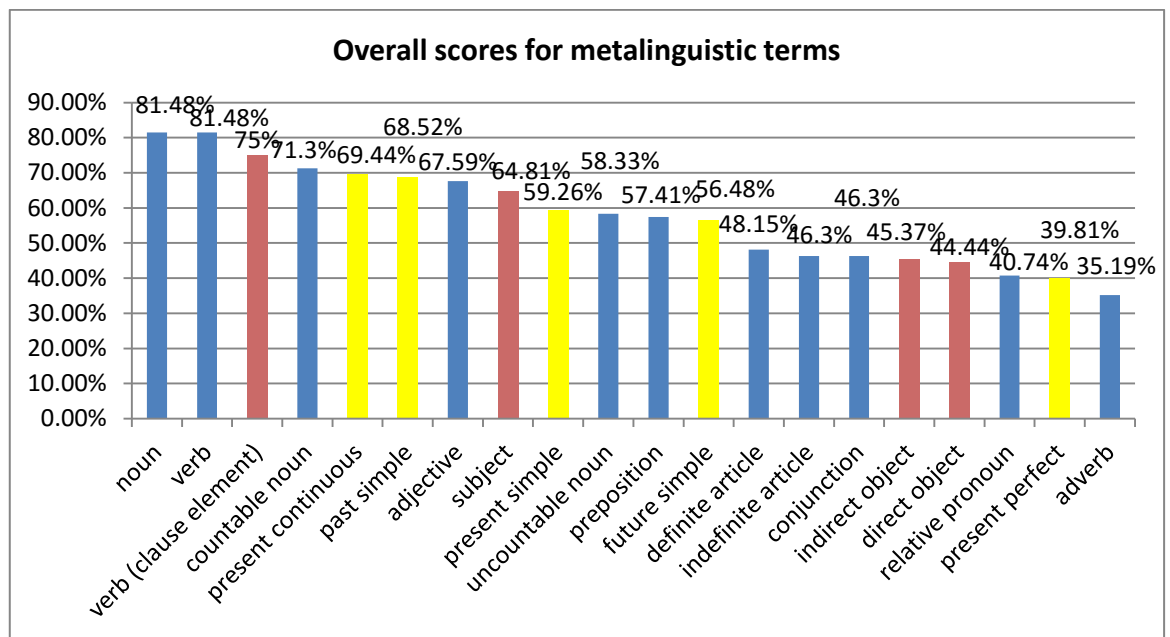


Table A included in Appendix III shows student scores for all 20 terms expressed in points. The maximum number of points respondents could obtain was 36 in total, the minimum was, naturally, 0.

#### 4.3.2. Item scores

Student scores<sup>14</sup> for individual items can be seen in Table B which can be found in Appendix IV. The items in the table were ranked according to their familiarity to students.

Figure 11: Scores for individual metalinguistic terms



As is shown in Figure 11 above, the two most popular terms were *noun* and *verb* with equally high scores (81.48%). This means that more than three quarters of students knew these terms and were most happy with them. These results suggest not only that students were very well familiar with the terms but also that these terms are very probably used in classrooms on a common and regular basis. The third most familiar term to students was *verb* functioning as a clause element (*predicator*) as three quarters of all respondents identified it correctly in the sentence. 71.30% of respondents knew the term *countable noun*, however, their score for *uncountable noun* was lower (by 12.97%) and therefore ranked tenth among the 20 terms. *Present continuous* was the most popular term from the category of verb tenses with 69.44% and the fifth most popular term from all the terms. The score for this tense was closely followed by the score for another tense – 68.52% of

<sup>14</sup> Only the scores for the productive knowledge of the 20 terms are presented in the study, i.e. only the results from sections 1b), 2, and 3a) were taken into account.

respondents knew the term *past simple*. The seventh place was taken by a part of speech (*adjective*) with 67.59%, whereas the eight position was occupied by a clause element (*subject*). More than half of the respondents were familiar with the following terms: *present simple* (59.26%), *uncountable noun* (58.33%), *preposition* (57.41%), and *future simple* (56.48%). *Future (tense)* is regarded as a highly familiar term (Berry, 2010: 229) and even though it is a misleading term in a way, i.e. sometimes *future* is not considered as a tense (Berry, 2010:33), students should be aware of this term, which they were to some extent.

Less than 50% of learners were familiar with the eight remaining terms: *definite article*, *indefinite article*, *conjunction*, *indirect object*, *direct object*, *relative pronoun*, *present perfect* and *adverb*. Similarly to the pair *countable–uncountable noun*, the scores for *definite* and *indefinite articles* were not equally high and differed by 1.85%, i.e. less students were familiar with *indefinite article*. The same number of students who knew the previous term also knew the term *conjunction* (46.30%). *Indirect object* which was the sixteenth most popular term with students and was closely followed by *direct object* which was known by 44.44% of respondents.

The score for the ‘refined’ part of speech – *relative pronoun* – was one of the lowest from the list of items due to its higher degree of specificity (*relative* alone is considered a less useful term in a classroom (Berry, 2010: 234)); the term ranked eighteenth. *Present perfect* was the second least familiar term to students. The term least known to students was *adverb* (only 35.19% of respondents knew this term), which was an unexpected finding as *adverb* is considered one of the highly recommended and highly familiar terms that are used in English teaching (Berry, 2010: 226). The deficiency in the knowledge of these three terms may stem from various reasons, e.g. the actual lack of knowledge, the difficulty of sentences in which students were supposed to identify the given part of speech, clause element or verb tenses, or learner variables such as the year of study, the overall experience with learning English, students’ frame of mind while filling in the questionnaire or simply the fact that a student’s English teacher rarely uses (these) metalinguistic terms may have affected students’ performances.

### **4.3.3. Categories of items**

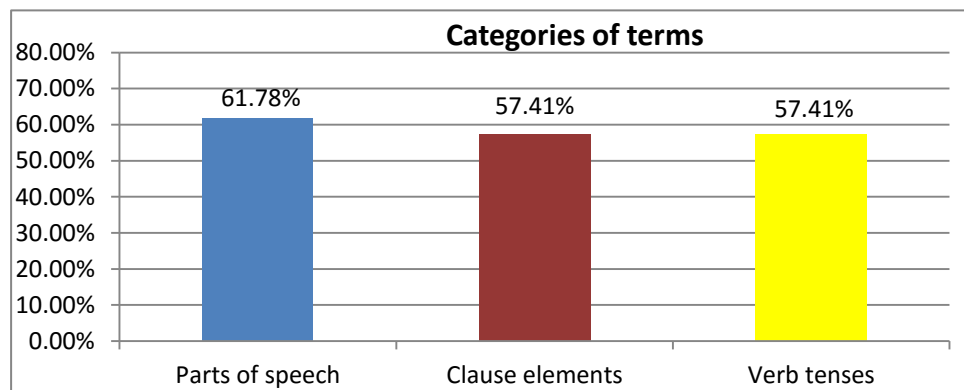
The tested metalinguistic terms were also analysed on the basis of their membership to three grammatical categories (parts of speech, clause elements, and verb tenses) to see whether any difference occurred in students’ performance in any of the categories. As can

be seen from Table 2 below, students were, in effect, equally happy with the three categories, nevertheless, *parts of speech* proved to be the category students were most familiar with. Rather unexpectedly, the figures for the other two categories indicate that students' knowledge of clause elements was at the same level as their knowledge of verb tenses.

**Table 2: Item scores according to the categories of metalinguistic terms**

Rank	Category	Number of items	Student knowledge of terms in % <sup>15</sup>
1	Parts of speech (items 1 - 10)	11	<b>61.78</b>
2-3	Clause elements (items 12-15)	4	<b>57.41</b>
2-3	Verb tenses (items 16-20)	5	<b>57.41</b>

**Figure 12: Mean scores for students' knowledge of grammatical terms according to the categories**



#### 4.3.4. Learner variables and student scores

The relation of student scores for the knowledge of the twenty metalinguistic terms to the gender, year of study and level of students' proficiency in English was analysed using the SPSS software. Chi-square tests (Pearson chi-square test and Linear-by-Linear Association) were used for the data analysis. The aim of the analysis was, first, to find out whose performance on the test (tasks *1a*, *1b*, *2*, *3a* and *3b* in the knowledge-based part) – whether girls' or boys' – was better, second, to examine whether there exists a relationship between the year of study and the extent of students' metalinguistic knowledge, and, third,

<sup>15</sup> In the case of *parts of speech* and *verb tenses* the percentage was calculated as the mean of the sum of the scores for each term in both subtasks (*1a* and *1b*, *3a* and *3b*), i.e. Czech term and example in the sentence for parts of speech and English and Czech term for verb tenses.

to determine whether there is a connection between respondents' level of proficiency and their knowledge of grammatical terminology.

The data used for the analysis were the points obtained by students in all five tasks, i.e. the maximum of 36 points which were further transformed into a three-point scale consisting of hypothetical grades<sup>16</sup> (first category = grades 1–2, second category = grades 3–4 and third category = grade 5) in order to fulfil the conditions of chi-square test used for the data analysis.

#### 4.3.4.1. Gender

As can be seen in Table 3 below, it was found that girls performed better on the 'test' on metalinguistic terminology and obtained higher grades from the 'test'. Hence it can be stated that girls' results from the test were significantly better (in terms of statistical significance) than boys' results. Obviously, the results are not significant as far as the difference in the mean scores for the two groups is concerned – the mean score of grammatical terms known for girls was only slightly higher than it was for boys. For a more detailed analysis of the data see the contingency table in Appendix V.

**Table 3: The relationship between gender and the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology**

	Number of respondents	Mean
Boys	43	22.6
Girls	64	23.08
<b>Total</b>	<b>107<sup>17</sup></b>	<b><math>\chi^2(2, n = 107) = 7.01, p = 0.030</math></b>

#### 4.3.4.2. Year of study

Table 4 below illustrates the comparison of mean scores for the first-, second-, third- and fourth-year students.

**Table 4: The relationship between year of study and the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology**

Year of study	Number of respondents	Mean
1	27	22.53
2	32	23.79
3	25	25.93

<sup>16</sup> Grade 5 = 0–14 points, grades 3–4 = 15–25 points, grades 1–2 = 26–36 points.

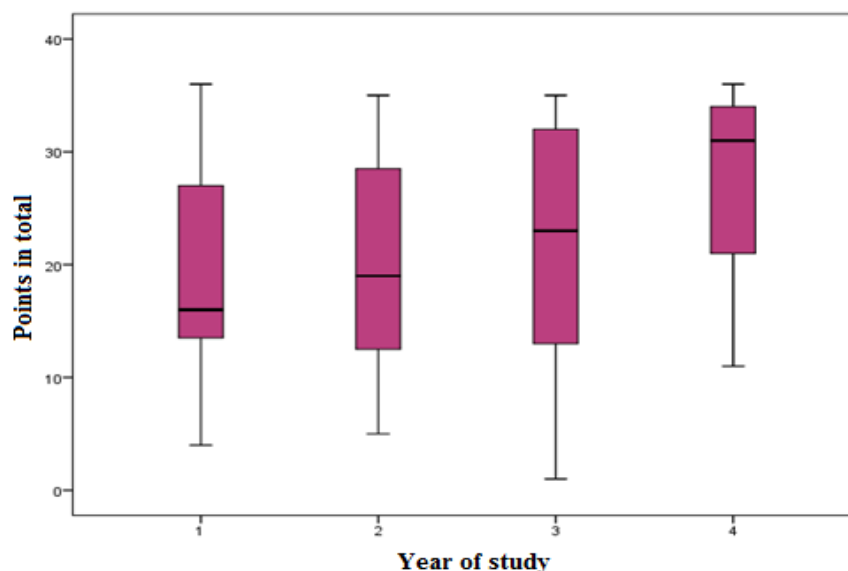
<sup>17</sup> One respondent (girl) did not complete the knowledge-based part of the questionnaire.

4	23	26.05
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b><math>\chi^2 (1, n=107) = 9.24, p = 0.002</math></b>

It was shown that metalinguistic knowledge of students in their fourth year of study was better than that of the students of the other three groups. Even though there is only a slight difference between the mean scores for the individual years of study, there exists a tendency for the values of the means to increase with the higher year of study. Therefore, it can be assumed that the level of metalinguistic knowledge of first-year students is the lowest from the four groups and that it is improving gradually. However, it has to be admitted that the number of respondents in each of the four years of study is not equal, and therefore, the data had to be analysed with the help of SPSS cross tabulation (see the contingency table in Appendix V). It was found that fourth-year students had a better knowledge of metalinguistic terms when compared with first-year students ( $p=0.003$ ). Moreover, it can be concluded that the knowledge of grammatical terms increases with the higher grades of study as the p-value was lower than 0.05 (see the contingency table in Appendix V).

Figure 13 below illustrates the distribution of points obtained in the knowledge-based part of the questionnaire by students in the four years of study.

**Figure 13: Distribution of points according to the year of study**



As can be seen from Figure 13 above, students of the fourth year of study were the most successful participants in the knowledge-based part of the survey with a considerably higher mean score than were the mean scores of third-, second- and first-year students.



Similarly, the minimum of points achieved by four-year students was higher than the minimum of points obtained by students of third-, second- or first-year of study.

#### 4.3.4.3. Level of proficiency

The last factor which was explored was the learners' level of proficiency. The calculation of the means for all six levels of proficiency is summarized in Table 5 below.

**Table 5: The relationship between the level of students' English proficiency and the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology**

Level of proficiency	Number of respondents	Mean
1	2 <sup>18</sup>	21.69
2	19	20.53
3	46	22.76
4	32	25.99
5	5	25.81
6	3	28.41
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b><math>\chi^2 (1, n=99) = 5.66, p = 0.017</math></b>

As is demonstrated in the table above, generally, there exists an increasing tendency of the mean scores for the levels of proficiency, however, it has to be acknowledged that there exists no direct relationship between students' proficiency and their results from the five-task test. The mean score for A2 is lower than the mean score for A1 and, similarly, the mean score for C1 is slightly lower than the means score for B2 level.

Moreover, a contingency table (see Appendix V) was drawn up to analyse the data. Only A1, A2, B1 and B2 levels were taken into account and the small number of C1 and C2 level students was discounted (n=99). It was found that students with higher level of proficiency had better results on the 'test' of metalinguistic knowledge (p=0.017).

#### 4.4. Teacher questionnaire – attitudes and beliefs

This section is constituted of a set of statements and questions which are concerned with teachers' attitudes toward and beliefs about teaching English, teaching English grammar, using grammatical terminology as well as teachers' beliefs about their students' attitude toward and knowledge of grammar and GT.

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<sup>18</sup> In total 3 students reported the A1 level, however, grades of one respondent were not available as she did not complete any of the knowledge-based tasks.

#### 4.4.1. Attitudes and beliefs regarding teaching English and English grammar

Teachers were asked to react to the following statement: *Teaching English language is important to me (1)*. The results showed that almost every teacher who filled in the questionnaire takes a positive stance to teaching the language as 97.92% of respondents recorded their answers on the positive end of the scale (60.42% answered *strongly agree*, 36.46% *agreed*, and 1,04% *slightly agreed* with the statement). Only 2.04% of teachers *slightly disagreed* with the statement. No negative answers (*disagree* or *strongly disagree*) were observed. In question (15) teachers were asked to specify their stance indicated in (1) by providing the answer to *why they consider teaching English important*. As obvious as the answer may seem, i.e. that it is the respondents' job and therefore it is important to them, the researcher was interested in whether teachers would mention other reasons why they find it important. Indeed, apart from the 24 teachers (23.04%) who wrote that teaching English is important to them because it is their job and it earns them a living, other more or less interesting responses occurred in the questionnaire. 26.88% of respondents were of the opinion that it is a norm to know the English language, as it is the lingua franca, or the global language of today's world. An identical number of respondents reported that English and teaching English is their hobby, that they devote their free time to teaching the language because they enjoy it and because it has become a (integral) part of their life. 17.28% of teachers viewed teaching as a useful, rewarding, satisfying, pleasing, or motivating activity. Two respondents added that teaching is challenging and creative. 20.16% of teachers believe that the importance of teaching English is related to their students' future studies and career, travelling, or communication in general. The respondents also thought that teaching English is important for their students in order to gain easier access to information. Communication and information (not related to students but to teachers) were mentioned by 12 teachers (11.52%). Other reasons, which were given by respondents are enumerated on the following lines: interaction with (young) people, students (7.68% of respondents); sharing and passing on knowledge, experience, views (5.76%); getting to know the culture of English speaking countries, positive attitude to the culture (3.84%); travelling, international friendship (2.88%); entertainment (literature, music etc.) (2.88%); more opportunities and possibilities (2.88%); deepening, brushing up teaching skills, communication skills (1.92%). Further, one teacher indicated that *Teaching enables you to influence younger generations with your own Self*, another teacher mentioned that he *does not want to forget how to teach English*, and one respondent replied quite pessimistically that he thinks it is important to teach English as it is *demotivating to know Czech speakers have low level of English proficiency*.

Statements (2), (3) and (4) examined *whether teachers find it important to continue studying English (2), whether they enjoy teaching English (3) and whether they think they are good English teachers (4)*. With the exception of one teacher (1.04%) who slightly disagreed with all three statements, the majority of teachers (98.96%) think that it is important not to stop learning English, likewise, they believe that they are good teachers of English and they enjoy teaching it.

The next set of statements ((5), (6), (7)) dealt with teachers' attitude toward teaching English grammar. It is evident from the results that a considerable importance is placed on teaching grammar (100% of respondents recorded their answers on the positive part of the scale) and 96.88% of teachers reported that they enjoy teaching it. Nevertheless, 97.92% of respondents indicated that they enjoy teaching conversation lessons as well.

#### **4.4.2. Attitudes and beliefs regarding teacher, grammar and grammatical terminology**

Teachers were asked to rate two statements (10), (11) which examined *whether respondents select grammatical terminology according to the age or grade of their students (10) or according to the textbooks teachers use in classes (11)*. The results support the fact that teachers take into consideration students' age/grade and the textbooks they use as 93.75% and 86.46% of respondents, respectively, slightly agreed, agreed or strongly agreed with the statements.

Statements (16) and (17) inquired *whether teachers feel confident in their knowledge of English grammar (16) and grammatical terminology (parts of speech, clause elements, verb tenses) (17)*. Almost all of the respondents (98.96%) provided a positive answer to the first inquiry, and only one teacher disagreed with the statement. Three teachers did not feel confident in their knowledge of grammatical terms (two disagreed, one slightly disagreed), however, the majority of respondents (96.88%) reported that they feel confident in their familiarity with GT (59.38% of respondents agreed, 22.92% strongly agreed and 14.58% slightly agreed with the statement).

Further, the use of grammatical terminology by teachers was investigated in statements (18), (19) and (20). A tendency to agreement with the first statement – *I like to use grammar terminology when explaining grammar in lessons* – was revealed and indicated by the results, that is, 91.67% of teachers answered they like to use GT when they explain grammar. The answers of seven respondents were located on the negative part of the scale, or in other words,

8.33% of teachers did not like to use GT in lessons. As far as the language of grammatical terminology is concerned, the majority of teachers (93.75%) stated that they actively use English GT in lessons, while on the contrary, less than three quarters of teachers (67.71%) maintained that they actively use Czech GT in lessons. It follows that 31 teachers disagreed with the statement regarding the use of Czech terms as opposed to 6 teachers who disapproved of the use of English terms in lessons.

Moreover, teachers' beliefs about the role of grammatical terminology in students' L2 acquisition were investigated. The next set of statements inquired *whether teachers think using grammatical terminology may facilitate students' progress in acquiring English (12), whether it may hinder students' progress (13), or whether respondents think that the knowledge of grammar terminology helps students acquire English (21)*. The results obtained from the study show that more than three quarters of respondents have a positive attitude to the fact that GT may perform a role in the acquisition of English. To be more specific, 86.46% (46.88% agreed) and 79.17% (42.71% slightly agreed) of teachers recorded their answers on the positive end of the scales in statements (12) and (21), respectively. In line with this finding, it has been revealed that teachers, on the whole, did not think that GT may hinder students' progress in learning English as nearly three quarters of the respondents (72.92%) indicated that they (slightly or strongly) disagreed with the statement (13) (39.58% disagreed). Nevertheless, it has to be acknowledged that GT was deemed to be a hindrance to L2 acquisition by 27.08% of teachers, which is not an insignificant number.

Finally, teachers were asked to express their opinion on the matter of *whether they believe that the knowledge of grammatical terminology is important for their students (14)*. The majority of teachers (79.17%) took a positive attitude to this matter, i.e. 42.71% of respondents slightly agreed, 32.29% agreed and 4.17% strongly agreed with the statement.

In addition, a number of multiple-choice questions were designed to obtain various types of information regarding teachers' beliefs about using GT in practice and their actual practice of using GT in teaching, and regarding teachers' beliefs about their studies of grammar in general. First question (32) dealt with teachers' previous experience with studying English grammar. Teachers replied either Yes or No to *whether they took a formal course in English grammar in their own studies*. 87.50% of respondents indicated that they took the course, 12.50% did not.

Further, answers to questions concerning the frequency of use of GT (25), the relation of the syllabus and textbooks and GT (28) and (29), the relation of teachers' previous learning experience and GT (30), and, finally, the importance of GT to teachers in their studies of

English (31) were required from teachers. As far as the first question is concerned, 70.83% of respondents stated that they use GT frequently, 26.04% replied that they use GT sometimes and 3.13% use GT rarely. No teacher indicated *never* as the answer to this question. Question (28) asked teachers *how compatible is the use of grammar terminology with the teaching approach/syllabus that is recommended*. 45.83% of respondents think that it is partly compatible with the syllabus/approach, 41.67% believe it is completely compatible, 4.17% answered that it is not really compatible with the syllabus, and 8.33% selected the rather indefinite answer *it is not clear*. The next question (29) examined teachers' opinions on *whether the textbooks they use generally have any grammatical terminology in them*. *Yes, a lot* was the most frequently selected answer (78.13% of teachers chose this option). The second most frequent response was *Yes, a little* (21.88%). The other two options (*No* and *I don't use textbooks*) were not selected by any of the teachers. Moreover, teachers were asked *how much grammar terminology their English teachers at school generally used* (30). Respondents could select one of the five options *absolutely – very – quite – not so – not at all*. 52.08% of teachers selected the third option (*quite*), 27.08% replied that their former teachers did not use GT very much (fourth option - *not so*), 17.71% of teachers' stated that their former teachers used GT very much and 3.13% of respondents opted for the first answer (*absolutely*). Similarly, teachers could select one of the five previously mentioned options in question (31) which asked them *how important grammar terminology was (or still is) in their own studies of English*. The results indicate that GT is very important for teachers' own studies of the language (51.04% of respondents chose the second option). Grammar terminology is quite important for 26.04% of teachers and absolutely important for 16.67% of respondents. Not so much importance is given to GT by 6.25% of teachers as the respondents selected the fourth option *not so*.

Three ready-made answers were available to teachers, but the possibility to provide their own answer to questions (26) and (27) was offered as well. Question (26) inquired *what reasons teachers think there are for using grammatical terminology*. 73.72% of teachers think that using grammar terminology makes explaining easier, 23.04% of respondents believe that students cannot learn the grammar of a language without knowing the terms, and 4.8% of teachers indicated that it enable them to demonstrate their knowledge. 24% of teachers decided to give their own answer to this question. The answers were divided into six categories according to the topics covered in the answers. The first reason pointed out by 8 teachers (7.68%) was that students may need GT for their future studies at universities, for understanding various study materials, sources, instructions in examinations or tests.

Comparison with other foreign languages or with students' mother tongue was the second most frequently mentioned reason stated by 7 teachers (6.72%). Six respondents (5.76%) think that explaining and understanding is easier, faster, better when GT is used, while knowing and understanding the logic of the language and how the language system works was noted by 4.8% of respondents. Three teachers (2.88%) believe that using grammatical terminology depends on student's level of proficiency, on the possession of innate sense of how the language works, and therefore, students may or may not profit from using GT. The two following reasons were suggested by two individual teachers: *It is a part of language learning and cannot be omitted* and *Students should understand what their teacher is talking about*. In what teaching situations do you use grammar terminology? (27) was the second question where teachers could provide their own answer or choose at least one answer from the three given options. Most of the teachers (81.6%) answered that they use GT when explaining new items, 69.12% of respondents use GT when they do exercises or tasks with students and 61.44% teachers use it when giving information about mistakes, e.g. in marking compositions. Twelve teachers (11.52%) replied in their own words and their responses were divided into three categories: 1. presentation of new language (e.g. vocabulary) (3 teachers; 2.88%), 2. explanation of grammar (and grammar revision, practice) (3 respondents; 2.88%), 3. other – one teacher indicated that he uses GT in concept checking questions, and in giving instructions, one respondent stated that he uses GT in correction, one teacher does so in conversation and finally, one teacher pointed out that he does not use GT, if possible.

#### **4.4.3. Attitudes and beliefs regarding students, grammar and grammatical terminology**

Statements (8), (9), (22), (23) and (24) investigated teachers' beliefs about students' attitudes toward grammar and grammatical terminology. More than half of the teachers (59.38%) think *that their students enjoy learning grammar* (8). However, no teacher indicated that he strongly agreed with this statement as all the positive responses were distributed between the other two positive categories (slightly agree – 41.67% and agree – 17.71%). 28.13% of teachers slightly disagreed, 9.38% disagreed and 3.13% strongly disagreed with the statement. Second statement *I think my students are happy with using grammar terminology in lessons* (9) provoked negative reactions in 53.13% of teachers who think that their students are not happy with using GT in classes. On the other hand, almost the same number of teachers (45 compared to 51) indicated that they (slightly) agreed with the statement and thus, were of the opposite opinion.

Teachers were also asked *whether they think that their students are able to identify grammatical terms in an English text* (22), (23), (24). As has been demonstrated by the results, most of the teachers (96.88%) think their students are able to identify terms denoting *verb tenses* (24), a slightly lower percentage of respondents (87.50%) believe that students are able to identify English *parts of speech* (22), and *clause elements* are believed to be the most difficult terms for identification in an English text (23) from the three categories as ‘only’ (in comparison with the other two categories) 76.04% of teachers responded positively, i.e. 41.67% slightly agreed, 32.29% agreed and 2.08% strongly agreed with the statement. However, it has to be taken into account that 23 teachers (22.08%) (slightly or strongly) disagreed with the statement.

Two multiple-choice questions (33) and (34) examined teachers’ beliefs about the importance (33) and usefulness (34) of the knowledge of GT to their students. More than half of teachers (56.25%) believe that it is quite important to know GT for students, 22.92% of respondents think that it is not so important, however, 19.79% believe that the knowledge of GT is very important for students. One teacher believes that knowing GT is not important at all and no respondents think that it is extremely important for students to know GT. In a similar vein, there exists a tendency for teachers to believe that the knowledge of GT is quite useful for their students (58.33% thought so). Almost one quarter of respondents (21.88%) considered it very useful to know GT, whereas, 18.75% of teachers think that the knowledge of GT is not so useful for students. Similarly to the previous question, one teacher believes that knowing GT is not useful at all and no respondents think that it is extremely important for students to know GT.

Moreover, four teachers made use of the opportunity to react to the questionnaire and to the issue of grammatical terminology in general. Their observations are presented below (the interesting opinions and suggestions are in bold):

(1) *I find it important to teach students **WHY they are learning certain things**. Since I am a Czech teacher as well I know which terminology they have already mastered and what I can rely on when teaching them English. While teaching Czech, **I always tell them how this terminology (and understanding what it really means) will help them to learn (any) foreign language.***

(2) *While filling in the questionnaire I was irritated by the absence of differentiation between good students with the innate sense of language, and weaker students who need to build their English upon rules and therefore terms. **When teaching students with the innate sense, you can use grammar terminology only as a “bonus” because they somehow naturally understand how all the stuff works together.***

(3) *Your questionnaire is fine, but I was a little confused about the Part II. Usually, I use Czech grammar terminology and the English terminology is just complementary. **Because when the students don't even know the meaning of the Czech term, teaching the English terms would be useless and maybe counterproductive.** So I wasn't sure in the Part II if you mean the Czech terms or the English ones.*

(4) *I think gymnázium students should acquire the basics of the theory of the language. Knowledge that is comparable to the approach they get in other academic subjects as well. (Can you imagine a physics lesson doing experiments without extracting the formulas? Will the students be able to extract AND apply the rules themselves?) In my opinion, learning English at a grammar school is not just a survival course. I am determined students should broaden their knowledge of the language itself as the organism and enjoy its beauties. I find the questionnaire itself showing slight disbelief in grammar teaching.*

#### **4.5. Teacher questionnaire – awareness of students' knowledge and teachers' use of MT**

This section discusses the question of whether secondary-school teachers are aware of their students' knowledge of the selected metalinguistic terms and whether teachers use the given terms in teaching.

##### **4.5.1. Teachers' estimation of students' knowledge of MT**

Respondents were asked to answer either *yes* or *no* to whether they think their students are likely to know the twenty given terms (*noun, countable noun, subject, present simple, etc.*). Table 6 below summarizes the findings from the survey:

**Table 6: Teachers' estimates of students' knowledge of grammatical terminology**

<b>Term</b>	<b>Student score %</b>	<b>Teacher estimate %<sup>19</sup></b>	<b>Difference in %</b>
<i>noun</i>	81.48	98.96	16.39
<i>countable noun</i>	71.30	98.96	27.66
<i>uncountable noun</i>	58.33	100	41.67
<i>definite article</i>	48.15	95.83	47.68
<i>indefinite article</i>	46.30	95.83	49.53
<i>adjective</i>	67.59	98.96	31.37
<i>relative pronoun</i>	40.74	66.67	25.93
<i>verb (part of speech)</i>	81.48	100	18.52

<sup>19</sup> Some terms were not evaluated by all 96 teachers – the number of respondents ranged from 91 to 96. The estimate scores provided in Table 6 are the local (and not global) scores.



<i>adverb</i>	35.19	95.83	60.64
<i>preposition</i>	57.41	98.96	41.55
<i>conjunction</i>	46.30	53.13	6.83
<i>subject</i>	64.81	94.79	29.98
<i>verb (clause element)</i>	75	96.88	21.88
<i>direct object</i>	44.44	32.29	-12.15
<i>indirect object</i>	45.37	28.13	-17.24
<i>present continuous</i>	69.44	100	30.56
<i>present simple</i>	59.26	100	40.74
<i>future simple</i>	56.48	91.21	34.73
<i>present perfect</i>	39.81	98.96	59.15
<i>past simple</i>	68.52	100	31.48

As can be seen from the table, there exists a strong tendency on the part of teachers to be very optimistic about students' knowledge of metalinguistic terms. Except for four terms (*relative pronoun, conjunction, direct object* and *indirect object*), respondents believe that learners are likely to be familiar with grammatical terminology to a large extent as more than 90% of teachers provided the answer of *yes* to the sixteen remaining terms. *Uncountable noun, verb, present continuous, present simple* and *past simple* were even regarded by teachers as likely to be known by 100% of students.

Attention has to be turned now to the difference in teacher estimate scores and student knowledge scores. As has been determined in section 3., more than 40% is considered to be a substantial difference between the two scores. There occurred seven cases where teachers were much more optimistic about students' knowledge than was the actual learners' knowledge – *uncountable noun, definite article, indefinite article, adverb, preposition, present simple* and *present perfect* are the terms which were substantially overestimated by teachers (highlighted in red in Table 6). The knowledge of two terms (*direct* and *indirect object*) was underestimated by teachers (highlighted in blue) as students' familiarity with these terms was greater by more than 10% than was the teacher estimate. In addition, respondents' estimate of three terms (*noun, verb, conjunction*) may be regarded as nearly in line with students' knowledge of these terms as the difference in the two figures for each term was the lowest of the twenty items (highlighted in green in the table above).

Therefore, the null hypothesis from section 3. has to be rejected and the alternative hypothesis has to be accepted as valid for the seven grammatical terms. The difference in

scores for the remaining terms was not substantial (the cut-off point was lower than 40%), however, the inconsistency in the scores for these terms cannot be ignored.

#### 4.5.2. Teachers' use of MT

Second task assigned to teachers in the knowledge-based part of the questionnaire was to determine whether they use the given terms in teaching. Similarly to the first task, respondents were asked to select either the *yes* option if they use the term or *no* if they do not use the term in classes. The results are shown in Table 7 below:

**Table 7: Teachers' use of grammatical terminology in teaching compared to students' knowledge of GT**

<b>Term</b>	<b>Student score %</b>	<b>Teacher use %</b>	<b>Difference in %</b>
<i>noun</i>	81.48	97.87	16.39
<i>countable noun</i>	71.30	96.74	25.44
<i>uncountable noun</i>	58.33	96.74	38.41
<i>definite article</i>	48.15	95.83	47.68
<i>indefinite article</i>	46.30	95.83	49.53
<i>adjective</i>	67.59	97.87	30.28
<i>relative pronoun</i>	40.74	85.11	44.37
<i>verb (part of speech)</i>	81.48	98.94	17.46
<i>adverb</i>	35.19	97.83	62.64
<i>preposition</i>	57.41	98.91	41.50
<i>conjunction</i>	46.30	79.12	32.82
<i>subject</i>	64.81	97.85	33.04
<i>verb (clause element)</i>	75	100.00	25.00
<i>direct object</i>	44.44	47.83	3.39
<i>indirect object</i>	45.37	44.57	-0.80
<i>present continuous</i>	69.44	100.00	30.56
<i>present simple</i>	59.26	98.91	39.65
<i>future simple</i>	56.48	90.11	33.63
<i>present perfect</i>	39.81	98.94	59.13
<i>past simple</i>	68.52	100.00	31.48

As is demonstrated in Table 7, most of the terms (16) are used in practice by more than 90% of teachers. *Verb*, *present continuous* and *past simple* are used by 100% of respondents. The four remaining terms (*relative pronoun*, *conjunction*, *direct object*, *indirect object*) are used by less than 90% of respondents. As can be seen from the fourth column of the table there are

six terms (highlighted in red) whose scores differ substantially (by 40% and more) from student scores. On the other hand, as far as the use and the knowledge of four terms (highlighted in green) are concerned, it was found that teachers' use and students' knowledge of the terms were balanced (as is suggested by the figures in green).

#### 4.6. Problematic items

The overestimation (or underestimation) of some grammatical terms alone does not necessarily pose a problem in the process of teaching (and learning). The real problem occurs when teachers also want to use these terms in lessons. Therefore, terms were considered problematic when a substantial difference between student scores and teacher scores for the use of the items occurred. Teachers' desire to use the six terms in red (*definite article, indefinite article, relative pronoun, adverb, preposition, present perfect*) exceeds students' collective knowledge of these terms. The scores for the problematic terms are shown in Table 8 below:

**Table 8: Metalinguistic terms frequently used by teachers but not very well-known to students**

<b>Term</b>	<b>Student score %</b>	<b>Teacher estimate %</b>	<b>Teacher use %</b>
<i>definite article</i>	48.15	95.83	95.83
<i>indefinite article</i>	46.30	95.83	95.83
<i>relative pronoun</i>	40.74	66.67	85.11
<i>adverb</i>	35.19	95.83	97.83
<i>preposition</i>	57.41	98.96	98.91
<i>present perfect</i>	39.81	98.96	98.94

As is shown in Table 8 above, only one of the six terms can be considered less problematic than the other five as the score for the use of the term *relative pronoun* is lower than the remaining five and, moreover, the difference in the score for teacher estimate and for learner knowledge is not so large (25.93%) as opposed to the difference between the scores for the other five items. Moreover, as can be seen from the table, the difference in scores for teacher estimate and teacher use of *definite article, indefinite article, adverb, preposition and present perfect* is only slight, which suggests that teachers not only overestimated students' knowledge of these terms but also that the teachers' predilection to use the items is considerably greater than students' knowledge of the terms. For this reason, teachers should pay more attention to the use of these terms and should check and review students' knowledge of the items and possibly handle these terms more carefully.

#### **4.7. Limitations of the study**

As far as the limitations of the study are concerned, it has to be admitted that some of the teachers and learners who participated in the survey were not teachers and learners who share the same classrooms. With the exception of three teachers who were addressed directly by the researcher and who completed the Teacher questionnaire and distributed the pencil-and-paper Learner questionnaire among their students, the teachers who participated in the research were evaluating the knowledge of their own students, however, it is probable that the students who completed the questionnaire were not these particular students. Thus the findings of the survey may be less reliable than is desired. The reliability of the results could have been increased by personally administering both questionnaires in schools to teachers and their students. However, due to time constraints and due to the fact that the number of teachers who would participate in the study would in all probability had to be lower (than 96), the researcher decided to combine both possibilities, i.e. pencil-and-paper questionnaire as well as questionnaires which could be accessed online.

Another drawback of the questionnaire may be seen in that teachers were asked, in general, whether they thought their students knew the given terms. It was not specified whether the knowledge in question should be receptive (students are able to recognize the given metalinguistic term) or productive (students are able to identify examples of the given metalinguistic terms and to produce the terms themselves).

In addition, teachers may have recorded different answers, if students' level of proficiency or the year of study had been specified, i.e. teachers' reactions would depend on the students' English knowledge level and experience in English learning.

#### **4.8. Summary**

The five previous chapters (4.2., 4.3., 4.4., 4.5. and 4.6.) presented the findings from the Learner and Teacher questionnaires. Based on the results from the attitudinal parts of the two questionnaires it can be suggested that there is a stronger tendency on the part of teachers than on the part of students to react positively to the given statements and questions, i.e. most of the statements and questions were answered by selecting one of the answers located on the positive side of the scale (*slightly agree – agree – strongly agree*). Students' reactions were less positive, (mostly ranging between *slightly disagree, slightly agree* and *agree*) yet still located on the positive side of the scale.

The data yielded from the attitudinal part of the Learner questionnaire indicate a general trend towards a very positive attitude to English and to English grammar. However, a less positive attitude is held by students to grammatical terminology. A similar attitude is taken by learners to their English teachers and grammar or teachers and grammatical terminology.

Furthermore, it has been found that students have a fairly good knowledge of the twenty metalinguistic terms (the mean score for students' knowledge of all terms was 57.87%). This means that more than a half of the students knew all twenty terms.

The data obtained from the attitudinal part of the Teacher questionnaire indicated that teachers have a strong positive attitude to teaching English and English grammar. Moreover, it can be observed that teachers take an equally positive stance on grammatical terminology. Teachers' reactions to students' relationship to terminology were slightly less positive than the reactions to the two previous topics, however, the figures were still far from being 'in the red'.

The findings from the knowledge-based part of the questionnaires suggest that teachers tend to overestimate students' knowledge of metalinguistic terms and, moreover, they wish to use the given terms in teaching, which may cause problems with mutual understanding between teachers and students. Based on the results, it would appear that there is a considerable potential for misunderstanding (Berry, 1995: 61).

## **5. Discussion of findings**

This section provides a deeper insight into the findings from the current research presented in the previous chapters and an attempt is made to interpret the data by making comparisons between the results obtained from Learner and Teacher questionnaires, i.e. the analysis is based on the investigation of the consonant or contradictory tendencies on the students' and teachers' part as well as on the exploration of possible relationships between individual questionnaire items.

As has been mentioned in section 4.2.1., students have a very positive attitude to studying English and English grammar. This may be related to the fact that teachers, likewise, expressed their overall positive stance to teaching English and English grammar. It can be suggested, therefore, that teachers' positive attitude to their profession has a positive impact on students' view of English not only as one of the school subjects but also as a useful and meaningful tool for learners' lives. Moreover, as was reported by some students, teachers can explain grammar well, engagingly, and in a comprehensible way so that everybody understands. In other words, teachers seem to know how to engage their students' attention and motivate them to study the language. Alternatively, the credit may be also given to students alone, as they seem to be interested in the language and seem to appreciate the benefits of knowing the language, as English was found very important to learners particularly in the professional (future career) and academic (future studies, education) spheres as well as in the sphere of travelling. It can be inferred from the answers obtained from students that they value English for the fact that it enables them to get information and to communicate with today's globalized world where the knowledge of English is very useful and where it is a norm and a necessity, as was indicated by some students. Some learners feel that English forms an important part of their lives due to the role that it plays in students' free time where English is either the source of entertainment for learners or the language alone is regarded as a hobby by students.

Teachers' responses overlapped, in effect, with those provided by students. The most frequently cited reasons by teachers regarding the importance of English to their students were students' future studies and career, travelling, communication and access to information. Moreover, a substantial number of teachers share a positive attitude toward students and they are pleased to help the students, interact with them and to pass knowledge onto them.

Everything that has been suggested so far suggests that teachers regard students' needs as well as learners' relationship to English and to them it is important, which is one of the essential aspects of a successful learner-teacher interaction.

As far as grammatical terminology is concerned, students' attitude towards it was rather ambivalent, i.e. the importance of the knowledge of the terminology differed, according to students' answers, for each category of the terms. Learners generally considered the knowledge of labels for verb tenses more important and useful than the knowledge of terms for parts of speech and clause elements. The predominant slightly negative attitude to terminology may be related to students' slightly negative beliefs about their own knowledge of the terms and about the GT which was found (useful but) boring by the majority of students.

On the other hand, teachers mostly found the knowledge of GT important for their students and, at the same time, felt confident in their own knowledge of it. Possibly for this reason teachers tend to use terminology in classes to a considerable extent as was revealed in the knowledge-based part, which may be accounted for by the fact that they believe that GT may facilitate students' acquisition of English. In a similar vein, teachers thought that students believe that GT is quite important and useful for the students. However, contrary to these findings, more than half of the teachers admitted that students may not be happy with using GT in classes. Furthermore, students' ability to identify grammatical terms in an English text was viewed very positively by teachers, whereas students' themselves did not think so highly of their ability to identify the terms in an English text. It has to be taken into consideration, that problems may arise from these discrepancies between what teachers and students think and do regarding the terminology. It seems that in order to avoid possible misunderstandings between the two participants of the education process, it is advisable for teachers to become more aware of learners' beliefs about grammatical terminology and their knowledge of it.

In general, it can be recommended to both teachers and students, ideally, to communicate with each other, share opinions on and thoughts about not only grammatical terminology or grammar but also about the teaching/learning process as a whole to create a friendly atmosphere where the fear of sharing an opinion or making a mistake does not exist or is at least reduced. In other words, the human aspect of teaching should not be neglected in the education process.

As far as the data collected in the knowledge-based part, the following observations were made. In general, it was noted that students had a fairly good knowledge of the examined grammatical terms. The terms were divided into three categories from which parts of speech

were the most popular with students (61.78%). The other two categories were known to learners to the same extent (57.41%). *Noun* and *verb* (part of speech), *verb* (clause element) and *present continuous* were terms from each category students were most familiar with. The most popular term with students was *noun* and *verb* (part of speech) (81.48% of learners knew these terms) and the term least known to learners was *adverb* (35.19%). It was rather surprising that learners should have such a poor knowledge of this term, as it is considered highly familiar with students (Berry, 2010: 226). Moreover, as has been expected (see section 3.), learners demonstrated little knowledge of the labels for clause elements, i.e. for *direct* and *indirect object* (compared to other two terms for clause elements, *subject* and *verb*). This may be accounted for by the fact that these terms are regarded as scientific (and not pedagogic) by Berry (2010: 22) and, therefore, are not, in all probability, used by teachers and in study materials for secondary schools to a large extent. As far as the terms for verb tenses are concerned, it was found that learners are familiar with the terms to some extent (on average 57.41% of respondents knew the five terms), however, one term – *present perfect* – was not very well known to students. This was rather unexpected, as it was believed that this term is used by teachers and in textbooks to a considerable extent. In addition, contrary to the findings from the survey, *present* and *perfect* were evaluated as highly recommended and indispensable by Berry (2010: 225).

When a comparison was made of the results obtained from the knowledge-based part of the Learner questionnaire and those obtained from the Teacher questionnaire, it was found that teachers held very optimistic beliefs about students' metalinguistic knowledge and, in general, tended to overestimate learners' knowledge of the terms. Moreover, it was revealed that except for three terms (*conjunction*, *direct object* and *indirect object*), the seventeen remaining terms were actively used by more than 80% of teachers in lessons. The considerable disparity between student scores and teacher estimate of students' knowledge of GT and teacher use of GT in class suggests that inconsistencies may exist between teachers' use of the terminology and teachers' awareness of students' familiarity with the terms. The possible explanation for the fact that teachers were not very well acquainted with learners' actual metalinguistic knowledge may lie in the insufficient examination and checking of the knowledge by teachers when they start teaching students or in the course of the teaching/learning process, at a point in time when teachers feel it would be convenient to introduce the terminology to students.

The fact that students' knowledge of GT was considerably misjudged (overestimated) by teachers, may, in the end, have a more negative impact on the teaching/learning process than



the underestimation of the knowledge would have. That is to say, if the knowledge of GT was underestimated, teachers would probably pay more attention to it (than they would in the case of the overestimation) and would take action to ensure that their students acquire the knowledge of terms the particular teacher wants to use in the classroom.

Moreover, student scores were investigated in relation to three learner variables. Female students in their fourth year of study and those with higher level of proficiency were found to be more successful in the 'test' of metalinguistic knowledge (the results proved to be statistically significant), as would perhaps be expected. In other words, the study showed a significant correlation between the number of points students obtained in the knowledge-based part of the questionnaire and students' gender, year of study and English proficiency.

When the results from the present survey were compared with the results obtained in one of the studies which were key to the design of the research conducted for the purpose of this thesis, i.e. with Berry's (1995) study whose major aim was to investigate the gap between university-level learners' knowledge of GT and teachers' awareness of this knowledge and to find out whether grammatical terms used by teachers correspond to those understood by learners (Berry, 1995: 54). Even though more terms (50) were examined by Berry and the methodology (as far as the student tasks are concerned) was different from the one employed in the present study (i.e. students were supposed to answer *yes* or *no* whether they thought they know the given term and in case of 'yes' were asked to exemplify the item using a word or sentence with the relevant part(s) underlined (Berry, 1995: 55), the outcome of the studies was, in effect, similar, in that teachers misjudged students' metalinguistic knowledge. However, teachers' expectations were generally lower than were actual student scores for that knowledge. Thirteen terms were underestimated by teachers as opposed to ten underestimated items. The difficulty teachers had with the estimation of students' awareness and knowledge of the terms deserves to be dealt with in order to be overcome.

Further, it has to be mentioned that Berry's study had one indisputable advantage over the present study, i.e. that of investigating students and the teachers that taught them in reality (although it has to be acknowledged that the number of participants was not sufficient as only seven teachers participated in the study and, thus, the reliability of the findings may be questioned).

From the data obtained in the present survey, a tentative generalization can be made – considering the relatively high number of respondents that participated in the study as well as the fact that teachers<sup>20</sup> and learners from different regions of the Czech Republic and

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<sup>20</sup> In total, 1,206 grammar school teachers were sent the link to the questionnaires.

attending different types of secondary schools were addressed and selected randomly – that the population of grammar school teachers and students can be assumed to resemble our sample. Of course, it has to be admitted that the teachers and learners who voluntarily completed the lengthy questionnaires demonstrated their considerable interest in and positive attitude toward the English language and, for this reason, may not be regarded as a very representative sample of the whole grammar school teacher and learner population.

## 6. Conclusion

The theoretical part of the thesis provided an insight into the role metalanguage and metalinguistic terminology may play in grammar teaching and learning. Furthermore, quite a detailed overview of research on learners, teachers and their knowledge of metalinguistic terminology was presented in this section. Moreover, the concept of metalinguistic terminology was defined and benefits and limitations of the use of it were briefly outlined. The extent of the use of the terminology, the source of it and the characteristics of the 'right' term were speculated about. In addition, approaches to teaching grammar and the role metalanguage plays in them as well as the relationship between the use of metalanguage and learner's age and mother tongue were commented on. Finally, an overview of the factors that may influence the use of metalanguage in teaching and learning was provided, and teacher and learner beliefs about the use of metalanguage in the classroom were discussed as well.

The empirical part dealt with the analysis of the data obtained in the questionnaire survey among Czech grammar school teachers and learners. The questionnaires were completed by 96 teachers and 108 learners, which enabled the researcher to analyse a substantial number of responses and reactions to statements, multiple-choice or open questions regarding, first, learner beliefs about and attitudes toward English, English grammar, the use and the knowledge of grammatical terminology, the teachers' way of explaining grammar and using the terminology, and second, teacher beliefs about and attitudes toward teaching English, English grammar, the use of metalinguistic terminology and their beliefs about learner attitudes toward terminology. Moreover, teachers' estimation of students' knowledge of grammatical terminology as well as the use of it by teachers in classes were investigated and compared with the results obtained in the part of the Learner questionnaire which tested learners' knowledge of the twenty metalinguistic terms selected by the researcher.

In view of the fact that the aim of the thesis was to provide a wider picture of the issue of metalinguistic terminology, i.e. to view it from the perspective of both groups of participants in the education process, the survey was conducted among both, teachers as well as learners. Due to this procedure, valuable data were obtained whose interpretation may shed more light upon the complex didactic issue of the way of teaching and the effectiveness of the tools used in teaching.

As far as it could be observed, students' attitude toward English as well as toward English grammar is similar to teachers' attitude toward teaching English and teaching English grammar, i.e. both groups of participants have almost equally positive attitude toward the

language and its grammar. Learners' attitude toward grammatical terminology is, in general, not as positive as it is toward grammar.

Students' opinion on terminology in general is rather ambivalent, although terms for verb tenses are considered more important for studying English by students than the terms from the other two categories and are believed to facilitate learning of the language more than the terms for parts of speech and clause elements. Furthermore, students generally tend to think they do not possess a sound knowledge of grammatical terminology, and they find it useful but boring and pay medium attention to the terminology in their studies. On the other hand, learners generally think they are able to identify grammatical terms for parts of speech, clause elements and verb tenses in an English text.

Teachers, on the contrary, feel very confident in their knowledge of metalinguistic terminology and they like to use it in teaching grammar. Moreover, they believe that grammatical terminology may facilitate and help students acquire English. However, teachers do not generally think that learners are happy with using grammatical terminology in lessons. As far as the students' ability to identify terms for the three categories is concerned, teachers believe (more strongly than students do) that students are able to identify them in an English text. Generally speaking, teachers find the knowledge of grammatical terminology quite important and quite useful for their students.

As regards the knowledge of grammatical terminology, learners are familiar with it to a certain extent. To be more precise, it can be concluded that learners' knowledge of the terms is, in general, fairly good, however, teachers' expectations about it exceed the reality of what students actually know to a considerable extent. This inconsistency between expectations and reality together with the fact that teachers want to use grammatical terminology in the classroom and they do so extensively may give rise to misunderstandings between the two parties or may reduce the effectiveness of the employment of the terminology. Based on these findings, it may also be suggested that students, in general, are behind their teachers' use of metalinguistic terminology, i.e. that, indeed, there exists a gap between students' knowledge of the terminology and teachers' beliefs about how much terminology students know and how much terminology teachers employ in lessons.

Bearing this in mind, teachers are recommended to become well aware of their students' metalinguistic awareness, and to check their students' knowledge, especially of the terms they want to make use of to be able to use them reliably in the classroom. Moreover, teachers should become familiar with learners' metalinguistic awareness particularly after learners' transition from primary to secondary school, i.e. in students' first year of study at a grammar

school and, further, they should examine learners' metalinguistic knowledge before the transition from secondary to tertiary education, especially if learners intend to focus on languages in their future studies where the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology is indispensable. However, metalanguage is likewise important at the secondary level as it underlies not only the teaching of vocabulary but also the teaching of other aspects of the English language (Berry, 1995: 63). Therefore, teachers should reconsider their attitude toward grammatical terminology and should tailor its use to the needs of the students as well as their age and level of proficiency. Moreover, more effective ways of checking on students' knowledge of grammatical terminology and of teaching the terms less known to students should be devised.

Naturally, an objection may be raised against the use of grammatical terminology as such. Some students may not have natural aptitude for learning languages and, therefore, may find metalinguistic terms not very helpful as they may represent a hindrance to their acquisition of the language rather than a tool which may aid them in learning. Moreover, some teachers may take a similarly negative stance to the use of terminology in teaching, especially if they are advocates of communicative language teaching. Despite the emphasis on learners' communicative abilities nowadays, it is of no less importance to be able to understand the intricacies of the language system, to know how it functions and how the components of the system are interrelated. The knowledge of the labels for the elements of the system contributes to learning and, eventually, using the language in the desired communicative situation with greater efficiency.

Similarly, the majority of teachers think that grammatical terminology used under circumstances favourable to its employment (e.g. in the context of teaching grammar to a more advanced group of students without the innate sense of language) may serve as a powerful tool for gaining insight into how the language system works and may enable students to explore the differences between Czech and English language systems. Teachers play a significant role in introducing this tool to learners and in guiding and teaching them how to use it efficiently and autonomously. Students' autonomy in learning English should be the common aim of teachers as well as students. Thus, learners are required to possess a certain degree of knowledge of metalinguistic terminology, and their familiarity with the terminological system will, in turn, lead to greater learner autonomy. A reasonable amount of grammatical terminology may be, therefore, considered for the good of the learners as well as teachers who may use it as one of the tools which may help their students understand the message teachers want to get across to them.

On the whole, this study revealed some interesting and valuable findings about the role metalinguistic terminology plays in Czech secondary schools. Some of the data were not analysed and interpreted (for instance, individual scores for teacher estimates or the mistakes students made in the knowledge-based part of the questionnaire) due to space constraints. Moreover, to make the findings more relevant to the population of Czech grammar school teachers and students, a future survey would have to be conducted among learners and teachers sharing the same classrooms. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the results the research has yielded will prove to be beneficial to the community of Czech grammar school teachers and students.

## Résumé (česky)

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá rolí metajazyka a metalingvistické (metajazykové) terminologie ve výuce angličtiny jako cizího jazyka. Cílem práce je poskytnout širší přehled o problematice metajazyka a metajazykové terminologie jako takové, a zároveň získat vhled do současné situace používání metajazykové terminologie na českých gymnáziích. Dále si tato práce klade za cíl zjistit, jaké postoje a přesvědčení mají učitelé a studenti gymnázií nejen o metalingvistické terminologii, ale také o výuce anglického jazyka a anglické gramatiky. Práce se také zaměřuje na to, jakou znalost metajazykové terminologie současní studenti gymnázií mají a zároveň se snaží vyzkoumat, jaké povědomí o této znalosti mají gymnaziální učitelé a do jaké míry používají dané metajazykové termíny.

Výzkum v této oblasti se doposud věnoval této problematice převážně na úrovni terciárního vzdělávání, a většina studií je tudíž zaměřena na univerzitní studenty a na učitele působících na univerzitách. V několika studiích zabývajících se problematikou metajazykové znalosti se objevil názor, že důvodem nižší znalosti metajazykových termínů na terciární úrovni může být nedostatečná metajazyková příprava ze středních škol. Z tohoto důvodu je výzkum pro účely této práce prováděn v oblasti sekundárního a nikoliv terciárního vzdělávání. Výzkum je zaměřen na studenty a učitele gymnázií (čtyřletých i osmiletých, státních, soukromých i církevních), jelikož gymnázia jsou považována za vzdělávací instituce, které mají studenty připravit pro případné studium na vysokých školách, a z toho důvodu mají poskytnout studentům všeobecný rozhled, a zároveň je vybavit potřebnými znalostmi a kompetencemi v jednotlivých vzdělávacích oblastech.

Jednou z těchto oblastí je i oblast Jazyka a jazykové komunikace, do níž spadá i výuka angličtiny jako cizího jazyka. Aktivní znalost anglického jazyka je v současné době nezbytná jak z hlediska globálního, neboť přispívá k účinnější mezinárodní komunikaci, tak i pro osobní potřebu žáka, protože usnadňuje přístup k informacím a k intenzivnějším osobním kontaktům (RVP G, 2007: 12).

V Rámcově vzdělávacím programu pro gymnázia je pro tuto oblast vymezen vzdělávací obsah, který studentům ukládá osvojení si receptivních, produktivních a interaktivních řečových dovedností. Učivem jsou pak jednotlivé jazykové oblasti jako fonetika, pravopis, lexikologie a gramatika. V rámci studia gramatiky si mají studenti osvojit jmenné a verbální fráze, morfémy, prefixy, sufixy, další vyjádření minulosti, přítomnosti a budoucnosti, rozvíte věty vedlejší, složitá souvětí, odvozování, transpozici, transformaci a valenci (RVP G, 2007:17). Metajazyková či také gramatická terminologie není ve vzdělávacím obsahu

explicitně zmíněna, ale předpokládá se, že je její znalost do určité míry nezbytná, a to z důvodu použití metajazykové terminologie ve výuce mateřského jazyka a také kvůli skutečnosti, že termíny jsou do jisté míry pravděpodobně používány při studiu výše zmíněných gramatických konceptů, ať už v mateřském či v cizím jazyce.

Hovoříme-li o metajazyku a metalingvistické terminologii, je nezbytné tyto dva koncepty definovat. Metajazyk je jazyk, který je používán pro popis jiného (cílového jazyka). Dá se také říci, že je to jazyk, prostřednictvím kterého o cílovém jazyku hovoříme. Pro znalost metajazyka je v této práci užíván termín *metalinguistic knowledge* a pro znalost metajazykové terminologie je používán termín *metalingual knowledge*. Znalostí metajazykové (nebo také gramatické) terminologie rozumíme znalost technických termínů, které jsou používány pro popis cílového jazyka. Těmi jsou například termíny, které označují jednotlivé slovní druhy, větné členy či slovesné časy (*podstatné jméno, podmět, přítomný čas prostý* apod.). Za termíny se v této práci nepovažují výrazy jako *slovo, věta, otázka* a podobně, ačkoliv jsou také součástí metajazyka (*metatalk*) používaného v jazykových třídách. Za důležitou součást znalosti metajazyka je považována právě znalost metajazykových termínů, tj. autorka této práce předpokládá, že znalost metajazyka nemůže existovat bez určité znalosti terminologie, ačkoliv jiní autoři (Berry) jsou opačného názoru.

V kontextu angličtiny jako cizího jazyka může být metajazyková znalost definována zeširoka jako znalost syntaktických, morfologických, lexikologických, pragmatických a fonologických aspektů tohoto jazyka. V této práci se ale zaměříme pouze na syntakticko-morfologickou, neboli gramatickou stránku jazyka, a tudíž je zde metajazyková znalost chápána jako explicitní znalost gramatiky anglického jazyka a schopnost tuto znalost slovně formulovat (nejedná se tedy o samotnou znalost gramatiky, ale o schopnost tuto znalost vyjádřit slovy).

Na metajazykovou terminologii je v oblasti osvojování cizího jazyka nahlíženo z různých úhlů pohledu. Někteří teoretici ji považují za nadbytečnou přítěž, jiní za užitečnou pomůcku ve výuce. Učitelé a studenti mohou k terminologii také zaujímat ambivalentní postoje, které se odvíjí od jejich přesvědčení ohledně znalosti a využití terminologie ve výuce a při studiu a od jejich samotné znalosti terminologie jako takové.

Nespornou výhodou využití metajazykové terminologie ve vzdělávacím procesu je úspora času. Pokud se učitelé a studenti dohodnou (v ideálním případě) na používání termínů ve výuce, určí si na začátku vzájemné interakce termíny (nebo si v průběhu výuky a studia vytvoří seznam termínů), které budou používat. Tím učitel získá nejen přehled o termínech, které studenti znají nebo by měli znát, a může je tak bez problému ve výuce používat, ale také



tím ušetří cenný čas, který je na českých gymnáziích omezený na čtyřicet pět minut na jednu výukovou hodinu. Dalším argumentem pro využití metajazykové terminologie je skutečnost, že studenti se s terminologií setkávají v různých učebních pomůckách (učebnice, slovníky, materiály pro samostudium). Cílem učitelů by proto mělo být seznámit studenty s potřebnou terminologií, aby byli schopni samostatného studia i bez pomoci učitele. Poslední výhodou terminologie je skutečnost, že její znalost umožňuje studentům snáze pochopit systém jazyka a uchopit jazykové struktury, což by bez terminologie bylo s největší pravděpodobností složitější, přinejmenším pro studenty, kteří nemají přirozené nadání a cit pro jazyk.

Nevýhodu metajazykové terminologie můžeme spatřit v případě, kdy je učitelem nadužívána a stává se hlavním cílem výuky, kterým by ale mělo být osvojení si komunikativních dovedností v anglickém jazyce, a také v případě, kdy učitel nemá povědomí o znalosti daných termínů u studentů. V takových situacích může použití terminologie výuku a studium značně zkomplikovat. Stejně tak může učební proces zkomplikovat komplexní a technická povaha termínů, jelikož svou abstraktností může pro studenty představovat zátěž navíc.

Z tohoto důvodu by mělo být vymezeno, do jaké míry metajazykové termíny používat, za jakých okolností je používat, jaké charakteristiky by měly termíny mít a jaké proměnné, které mohou ovlivnit učitelovu volbu využití terminologie, vstupují do vzdělávacího procesu. Přesný počet termínů, které má učitel využívat není jasně daný, ale jak již bylo řečeno, učitel by neměl studenty přetěžovat terminologií v situacích, kdy ji není tolik zapotřebí (například v konverzačních částech hodiny). Učitel by měl zvolit vhodnou terminologii (pokud se tedy rozhodne terminologii používat) na základě výukového cíle dané hodiny či na základě dlouhodobějšího cíle výuky, na základě materiálů používaných ve výuce, na základě kontextu výuky – studium cizího jazyka na univerzitě vyžaduje jinou úroveň znalosti metajazykové terminologie než například studium jazyka v rámci večerního kurzu na jazykové škole – či na základě potřeb, názorů a přesvědčení studentů.

Zásadním ukazatelem pro to, jakou terminologii zvolit, by však pro učitele měly být faktory, které mohou ovlivnit použití terminologie i výuku jako takovou. Těmito faktory jsou proměnné u studentů jako například: doba předchozího studia cizího jazyka, současná jazyková úroveň, věk studentů a jejich mateřský jazyk (a případné zapojení metajazykové terminologie do výuky rodného jazyka), učební styl a motivace, a v neposlední řadě také předchozí znalost metajazykové terminologie a postoj, který k ní studenti zaujímají (zde je záhodné, aby učitel, který chce terminologii používat, zkontroloval, do jaké míry s ní jsou studenti seznámeni a jaký názor na ni mají).

Obecně je doporučováno terminologii nepoužívat nebo používat omezeně u studentů s nižší jazykovou úrovní a u mladších studentů (například u dětí na úrovni předškolního vzdělávání a prvního stupně), kteří prozatím nemají natolik vyvinuté abstraktní a analytické myšlení jako studenti starší (dospívající a dospělí). Podobně je záhodno nahlížet na mateřský jazyk studentů a na případné rozdíly mezi tímto a cizím jazykem. Rozdílná typologie jazyků, ale také i skutečnost, že se některé gramatické jevy nebo struktury v obou jazycích liší nebo v jednom z nich vůbec neexistují, se může projevit i v použití metajazykové terminologie (například koncept určitých a neurčitých členů, který v českém jazyce neexistuje). Všeobecně se ale věří, že znalost metajazykové terminologie, kterou student získá v rámci studia mateřského jazyka, mu může být nápomocnou při studiu cizího jazyka, tj. termíny, které označují stejné koncepty v obou jazycích mohou pomoci studentovi cizího jazyka lépe porozumět dané mu cizímu jazyku a i terminologii, která je používána v rámci jeho výuky.

Volba termínů také závisí na vlastnostech těchto termínů. Pro gymnaziální studenty jsou považovány za vhodnější termíny pedagogické, a nikoliv vědecké, které jsou určeny spíše pro jazykové vědce a akademiky (termíny jako například *premodifier*, *suffix*, *transitive verb*), dále termíny přesné a distinktivní (pokud je možno použít více termínů pro stejný koncept či jev, učitel by měl vybrat jeden termín a být konzistentní v jeho užívání), a v neposlední řadě by mělo být snadné se dané termíny, které by měly být vybírány také podle užitečnosti a frekvence použití ve výuce, naučit a zapamatovat si je.

Učitelé mohou být při rozhodování se, zda terminologii používat (a jaké termíny vybrat) či nikoliv, také ovlivněni řadou faktorů, kterými jsou například jejich vlastní zkušenosti ze studií či předchozí zkušenosti z výuky, jejich úroveň znalosti anglické gramatiky a terminologie a také přesvědčení o tom, jak nejlépe učit anglickou gramatiku (je součástí učitelovy metodiky i používání metajazykových termínů?) a jak moc je terminologie užitečná a prospěšná pro studenty.

Přesvědčení a postoje k výuce gramatiky, gramatické terminologii a ke studentům byly také mimo jiné součástí výzkumu, který byl proveden mezi učiteli a studenty na českých gymnáziích, a jež byl uskutečněn prostřednictvím elektronických i papírových dotazníků. Dotazník pro studenty se skládá z 57 položek (uzavřených, polouzavřených i otevřených otázek) a dotazník pro učitele sestává z 80 otázek. Oba dotazníky jsou tvořeny třemi částmi – částí názorovou, která se zabývá postoji studentů a učitelů nejenom k anglickému jazyku, anglické gramatice, ale především i ke gramatické terminologii, částí znalostní, ve které je zkoumána úroveň znalosti metajazykové terminologie (termíny pro slovní druhy, větné členy a slovesné časy) u studentů, a zároveň i povědomí učitelů o této znalosti, tj. zda-li si učitelé

myslí, že studenti dané termíny znají či nikoliv. V této části dotazníku byli také učitelé dotázáni, zda dané termíny při výuce používají či nikoliv. V poslední části dotazníků účastníci průzkumu vyplňovali údaje osobního charakteru týkající se výuky a studia angličtiny (například úroveň znalosti AJ). Při vytváření dotazníků se autorka této práce částečně inspirovala dotazníky použitými v rámci dvou dalších studií metalingvistické terminologie (Berry, Bloor). Dotazníkového šetření se zúčastnilo 108 studentů a 96 učitelů, kteří vyplněním dotazníku poskytli hodnotná data, která byla vzápětí vyhodnocena a analyzována vzhledem ke stanoveným výzkumným otázkám.

Po vyhodnocení názorové části dotazníků byla vyzorována tendence u učitelů reagovat a odpovídat velmi kladně na uvedená tvrzení a otázky; velmi často se objevovala jedna z těchto odpovědí: *spíše souhlasím – souhlasím – rozhodně souhlasím*. Odpovědi studentů nebyly zaznamenány v tak kladných hodnotách jako u učitelů, stále se však pohybovaly v kladnější části použité Likertovy škály (*spíše nesouhlasím – spíše souhlasím – souhlasím*).

Co se týče první podoblasti otázek, tj. vztahu k anglickému jazyku a anglické gramatice, bylo zjištěno, že studenti i učitelé gymnázií mají obecně ke studiu a výuce anglického jazyka a anglické gramatiky velmi kladný vztah, ačkoliv kladnější odpovědi mírně převažovaly u učitelů. Mezi těmito výsledky ze studentského a výsledky z učitelského dotazníku můžeme vyzorovat pravděpodobnou souvislost – kladný vztah studentů k tomuto jazyku a jeho gramatice může souviset s velice kladným postojem učitelů k angličtině a k anglické gramatice. Tuto hypotézu podporuje i fakt, že někteří studenti uvedli, že se učitelé snaží vysvětlovat anglickou gramatiku co nejsrozumitelněji, tedy tak, aby každý student pochopil daný gramatický jev, a zároveň ji prezentují zábavnou a motivující formou. Nicméně zásluhu na kladném přístupu k anglickému jazyku nelze upřít ani studentům, kteří uvedli, že je pro ně studium angličtiny velmi důležité, a to převážně v oblasti vzdělávání či budoucího kariérního uplatnění, ale také v oblasti cestování, komunikace a přístupu k informacím, které jsou v dnešním globalizovaném světě dostupné především právě v anglickém jazyce. Učitelé shledávají angličtinu rovněž velmi důležitou, a to nejen z toho důvodu, že výuka tohoto jazyka je jejich povoláním. Učitelé přisuzují anglickému jazyku důležitost i z hlediska jejich studentů, tj. zastávají názor, že angličtina je pro studenty důležitá ze stejných důvodů, jaké uvedli studenti, tedy kvůli budoucímu studiu a povolání, cestování a dostupnosti informací. Výzkum také naznačuje, že učitelé mají pozitivní vztah ke studentům, kterým rádi pomáhají osvojit si anglický jazyk, jsou s nimi rádi v interakci a těší je předávat jim své znalosti.

Další podoblastí, která byla zkoumána, byl postoj studentů a učitelů ke gramatické terminologii. Podle obdržených odpovědí lze usuzovat, že studenti mají k terminologii méně

kladný vztah než učitelé. Studenti si nejsou svou znalostí terminologie příliš jistí, a domnívají se, že znalost termínů jim obecně při studiu může i nemusí pomáhat, jelikož jsou toho názoru, že znalost termínů pro slovesné časy jim studium může usnadnit spíše než znalost termínů pro slovní druhy a větné členy. Je však nutno uvést, že všeobecně se reakce studentů na terminologii pohybovaly kolem středních hodnot, tj. *spíše nesouhlasím* a *spíše souhlasím* nebo *moc ne* a *docela*, a tak můžeme považovat jejich vztah k terminologii za ambivalentní. Učitelé zaujímají k metajazykové terminologii kladný postoj, jsou si v její znalosti jistí a domnívají se, že je její znalost pro studenty důležitá a užitečná. Zároveň si ale uvědomují, že použití terminologie jako pomůcky ve výuce nemusí být pro některé studenty vhodnou volbou. Dále bylo zjištěno, že v určování metajazykových termínů v anglickém textu učitelé věří studentům více než si věří samotní studenti. Toto zjištění se ukázalo být pravdivým po provedení analýzy dat ze znalostních částí obou dotazníků.

V rámci první úlohy ve znalostní části měli studenti zaprvé, uvést český ekvivalent k anglickému termínu pro jedenáct slovních druhů a zadruhé, najít v souvětí převzatém z Bloorova dotazníku slovo, které daný termín označuje. Studenti byli úspěšnější v poskytnutí českého ekvivalentu; nejznámějšími termíny pro ně byly *verb*, *noun* a *adjective*. Ve druhé úloze měli studenti identifikovat čtyři větné členy (*subject*, *verb*, *direct object*, *indirect object*) ve čtyřech různých větách. Studenti byli schopni identifikovat nejčastěji dva termíny, přičemž nejpopulárnější byly *verb* a *subject*. Ve třetí úloze měli studenti za úkol, zaprvé, identifikovat daný slovesný čas a uvést anglický i český termín pro tento čas. Pro studenty bylo snazší uvést české termíny pro slovesné časy a zároveň pro ně bylo nejsnazší z pěti slovesných časů identifikovat přítomný průběhový čas, tj. *present continuous*.

Dvanáct termínů z dvaceti znalo více jak 50% studentů; osm termínů bylo studentům méně známých (znalo je méně než 50% studentů). Nejpopulárnějšími termíny byly pro studenty *noun* a *verb*. Nejpopulárnější kategorií termínů byly slovní druhy, větné členy a slovesné časy se dělily o druhé a třetí místo.

Výsledky ze znalostní části studentského dotazníku byly porovnány s výsledky ze znalostní části dotazníku pro učitele, kde byli učitelé dotázáni, zda si myslí, že studenti daných dvacet termínů znají či nikoliv, a zda učitelé tyto termíny ve výuce sami aktivně používají. S výjimkou čtyř termínů (*indirect object*, *direct object*, *conjunction* a *relative pronoun*) se více jak 90% učitelů domnívá, že studenti těch šestnáct zbylých termínů zná, a zároveň těchto šestnáct termínů používá ve výuce. Čtyři výše zmíněné termíny používá méně než 90% učitelů.

V návaznosti na analýzu výsledků ze znalostních částí dotazníku jsme došli k závěru, že učitelé poměrně výrazně přeceňují metajazykovou znalost studentů a mají nejasné povědomí o tom, jakou znalost metajazykových termínů studenti mají ve skutečnosti. Tato tendence učitelů být optimističtí, co se týče obeznámenosti studentů s termíny, spolu s faktem, že většina učitelů termíny ve výuce používá, může vést při používání metajazyka v hodinách angličtiny k nepochopení mezi studenty a učiteli, a tím i k méně efektivní výuce a studiu.

Bylo by proto vhodné, aby si učitelé byli více vědomi toho, jaké termíny studenti znají více a jaké méně či vůbec, aby našli způsob, jak tuto znalost zkontrolovat (především u termínů, které sami chtějí ve výuce používat), a pokud se rozhodnou metajazykovou terminologii používat, aby našli vhodný způsob, jak ji zapojit do výuky, tak aby byla využita efektivně a smysluplně. Při rozhodování by se měli – vedle svého úsudku – řídit také potřebami studentů, výukovými cíly a studijními materiály, které jsou ve výuce používány. Cílem učitelů by mělo být vést studenty k autonomii a naučit je, jak se učit efektivně a se zájmem. Užití metajazykové terminologie v rozumné míře může splnění tohoto cíle napomoci, a zároveň může usnadnit komunikaci a interakci mezi učiteli a studenty, což je v oblasti vzdělávání neméně důležité.

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## Appendix I: Final form of the learner questionnaire

### Metajazyk ve výuce AJ – dotazník pro studenty

Tento průzkum je prováděn pod záštitou Ústavu anglického jazyka a didaktiky Filozofické fakulty Univerzity Karlovy za účelem lépe porozumět postojům studentů na českých gymnáziích k anglické gramatické terminologii a zároveň získat vzhled do jejich znalostí této terminologie.

Dotazník se skládá ze tří (Část I - III). Přečtěte si, prosím, pozorně instrukce u jednotlivých částí a v souladu s nimi vyplňte své odpovědi. Dotazník je anonymní, nebojte se tedy prosím odpovídat pravdivě. Data získaná v rámci průzkumu budou použita pouze pro akademické účely (diplomová práce). Mnohokrát Vám děkuji za Vaši pomoc a čas!

#### Část I

V této části zakroužkujte vždy jedno číslo od 1 do 6 podle toho, do jaké míry s uvedenými výroky souhlasíte či nesouhlasíte. Nevynechejte, prosím, žádné tvrzení.

Rozhodně nesouhlasím	Nesouhlasím	Spíše nesouhlasím	Spíše souhlasím	Souhlasím	Rozhodně souhlasím						
1	2	3	4	5	6						
(Příklad) Pokud rozhodně souhlasíte s tímto výrokem, vyplňte kolonku následovně:											
Moc rád/ráda lyžuju.				1	2	3	4	5	6		
1. Domnívám se, že umím anglicky.						1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Znalost AJ a jeho studium jsou pro mě důležité. *						1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Učit se AJ mě baví.						1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Znalost anglické gramatiky a její studium jsou pro mě důležité.						1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Baví mě, když se v hodinách AJ věnujeme gramatice.						1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Věnovat se v hodinách AJ gramatice mi přijde užitečnější než věnovat se konverzaci.						1	2	3	4	5	6

\* 7. Pokud jste zakroužkovali 4, 5 či 6, upřesněte, prosím, PROČ jsou pro Vás znalost a studium AJ důležité. Uveďte alespoň jeden důvod. (např. cestování, budoucí povolání, studium...)

Vůbec ne	Velmi málo	Moc ne	Docela ano	Velmi	Naprosto					
1	2	3	4	5	6					
(Příklad) Pokud máte velmi rádi svíčkovou, vyplňte kolonku následovně.										
Máte rádi svíčkovou?					1	2	3	4	5	6

8. Je znalost anglické gramatiky nezbytná pro to, abyste mohli říct: „Umím anglicky.“?	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. Je ke studiu anglické gramatiky důležité znát anglické názvy slovních druhů (např. noun, adverb, preposition, atd.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. Pomáhá Vám při studiu AJ znalost názvů slovních druhů?	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. Je ke studiu anglické gramatiky důležité znát anglické názvy větných členů (např. <i>subject</i> , <i>object</i> atd.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. Pomáhá Vám při studiu AJ znalost názvů větných členů?	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. Je ke studiu anglické gramatiky důležité znát anglické názvy slovesných časů (např. <i>present simple</i> , <i>past continuous</i> atd.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. Pomáhá Vám při studiu AJ znalost názvů slovesných časů?	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. Uspadňuje Vám znalost a používání slovních druhů, větných členů a slovesných časů studium AJ?	1 2 3 4 5 6
16. Jak moc váš učitel AJ v hodinách používá anglické gramatické termíny jako jsou slovní druhy ( <i>noun</i> , <i>adjective</i> , <i>verb</i> ...), větné členy ( <i>subject</i> , <i>object</i> , ...), názvy slovesných časů ( <i>present</i> , <i>tense</i> , <i>past tense</i> , ...), atd.?	1 2 3 4 5 6

Rozhodně nesouhlasím	Nesouhlasím	Spíše nesouhlasím	Spíše souhlasím	Souhlasím	Rozhodně souhlasím
1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Myslím si, že moje znalost anglické gramatické terminologie (slovní druhy, větné členy, atd.) je velmi dobrá.				1	2 3 4 5 6
18. Při studiu AJ používám anglické gramatické termíny.				1	2 3 4 5 6
19. Umím určit slovní druhy v anglickém textu.				1	2 3 4 5 6
20. Umím určit větné členy v anglickém textu.				1	2 3 4 5 6
21. Umím určit slovesné časy v anglickém textu.				1	2 3 4 5 6
22. Můj učitel AJ umí vysvětlit anglickou gramatiku.				1	2 3 4 5 6
23. Můj učitel AJ vysvětluje gramatiku pomocí anglických gramatických termínů.				1	2 3 4 5 6
24. Jsem rád, když můj učitel AJ vysvětluje gramatiku anglicky.				1	2 3 4 5 6
25. Jsem rád/a, když můj učitel AJ vysvětluje gramatiku česky.				1	2 3 4 5 6

26. Můj učitel AJ věnuje v hodinách gramatice ..... pozornost.

- žádnou
- malou
- střední
- velkou

27. Gramatické terminologii věnuji při studiu AJ ..... pozornost.

- žádnou
- malou
- střední
- velkou

28. Jak byste ohodnotil/a svou znalost anglické gramatické terminologie (AGT)?

- Mám velmi dobrou znalost AGT a jsem si v ní jistý/á.
- Mám docela dobrou znalost AGT a jsem si v ní docela jistý/á.
- Nemám moc dobrou znalost AGT a nejsem si v ní moc jistý/á.
- Nemám dobrou znalost AGT a nejsem si v ní vůbec jistý/á.

29. Jak byste ohodnotil/a užitečnost a zajímavost anglické gramatické terminologie ve výuce?

- Je užitečná a zajímavá.
- Je užitečná, ale nudná.
- Není užitečná, ale je zajímavá.
- Není užitečná a je nudná.

30. Představte si situaci, kdy Váš učitel AJ vysvětluje nějaký gramatický jev (např. *minulý čas, stupňování adjektiv* atd.). JAK učitel tento jev vysvětluje? Používá gramatickou terminologii, nebo se jí snaží vyhýbat? Vysvětluje jev svými slovy, nebo používá poučky z učebnice? Vysvětluje gramatiku anglicky nebo česky?

.....  
.....

## Část II

1. Nejprve přeložte anglické termíny do češtiny (např. *interjection* - *citoslovce*). Poté najděte v souvětí uvedeném níže **JEDEN** příklad požadovaného slovního druhu (např. *interjection* - *Wow!*). Slova mohou být použita i vícekrát.



Materials are delivered to the factory by a supplier, who usually has no technical knowledge, but who happens to have the right contacts.

	Český termín	Příklad ze souvětí
<i>noun</i>		
<i>countable noun</i>		
<i>uncountable noun</i>		
<i>definite article</i>		
<i>indefinite article</i>		
<i>adjective</i>		
<i>relative pronoun</i>		
<i>verb</i>		
<i>adverb</i>		



## Appendix II: Final form of the teacher questionnaire

### Metalanguage in EFL - English Teacher Questionnaire

#### Part I

*In this part, we would like you to tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by simply circling a number from 1 to 6. Please do not leave out any of items.*

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Teaching English language is important to me. *					1 2 3 4 5 6
2. I find it important to continue studying English.					1 2 3 4 5 6
3. I enjoy teaching English.					1 2 3 4 5 6
4. I think I am a good English teacher.					1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Teaching English grammar is important.					1 2 3 4 5 6
6. I enjoy teaching English grammar.					1 2 3 4 5 6
7. I enjoy teaching conversation lessons.					1 2 3 4 5 6
8. I think my students enjoy learning grammar.					1 2 3 4 5 6
9. I think my students are happy with using grammar terminology in lessons.					1 2 3 4 5 6
10. I select grammar terminology according to my students's age/grade.					1 2 3 4 5 6
11. I select grammar terminology according to textbooks I use in classes.					1 2 3 4 5 6
12. I think using terminology in class may facilitate students' progress in acquiring English.					1 2 3 4 5 6
13. I think using terminology in class may hinder students' progress in acquiring English.					1 2 3 4 5 6
14. I think it is important for my students to know grammar terminology.					1 2 3 4 5 6

\* 15. *If your answer was 4,5, or 6, please specify WHY you consider teaching English important.*

.....

16. I feel confident in my knowledge of English grammar.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17. I feel confident in my knowledge of English grammatical terms (word classes, clause elements, verb tenses etc.).	1 2 3 4 5 6

18. I like to use grammar terminology when explaining grammar in lessons.	1 2 3 4 5 6
19. I actively use English grammar terminology in lessons.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20. I actively use Czech grammar terminology in lessons.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21. I think the knowledge of grammar terminology helps students acquire English.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22. I think my students are able to identify word classes in an English text.	1 2 3 4 5 6
23. I think my students are able to identify clause elements in an English text.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24. I think my students are able to identify verb tenses in an English text.	1 2 3 4 5 6

*Please choose one of the options below each question.*

**25. How often do you use grammar terminology in your teaching?**

- never                       rarely                       sometimes                       frequently

**26. What reasons do you think there are for using grammar terminology?**

- Students cannot learn the grammar of a language without knowing the terms.  
 Using grammar terminology makes explaining easier.  
 It enables teachers to demonstrate their knowledge  
 Other (please specify): .....

**27. In what teaching situations do you use grammar terminology?**

- When giving information about mistakes, e.g. in marking compositions  
 When explaining new items  
 When doing exercises/tasks  
 Other (please specify): .....

**28. How compatible is the use of grammar terminology with the teaching approach/syllabus that is recommended?**

- completely                       partly                       not really                       it is not clear

**29. Do the textbooks you use generally have any grammatical terminology in them?**

- Yes, a lot                       Yes, a little                       No                       I don't use textbooks

**30. How much grammar terminology did your English teachers at school generally use?**

- none                       a little                       some                       a lot

**31. How important grammar terminology was (or still is) in your own studies of English?**

- absolutely                       very                       quite                       not so                       not at all

**32. In your own studies did you take a formal course in English grammar?**

- Yes                       No



**33. How important do you think the knowledge of English grammar terminology is for your students?**

- absolutely       very       quite       not so       not at all

**34. How useful do you think is using grammar terminology for your students?**

- extremely       very       quite       not so       not at all

### Part II

*Please decide whether you think your students are likely to know the given terms (noun, countable noun, etc.) and whether you actively use these terms when you teach. Answer YES or NO.*

<b>Term</b>	<b>Students are likely to know</b>	<b>I use the term when I teach</b>
<i>noun</i>		
<i>countable noun</i>		
<i>uncountable noun</i>		
<i>definite article</i>		
<i>indefinite article</i>		
<i>adjective</i>		
<i>relative pronoun</i>		
<i>verb (word class)</i>		
<i>adverb</i>		
<i>preposition</i>		
<i>conjunction</i>		
<i>subject</i>		
<i>verb (clause element)</i>		
<i>direct object</i>		
<i>indirect object</i>		
<i>present simple</i>		
<i>present continuous</i>		
<i>present perfect</i>		
<i>past simple</i>		
<i>future simple</i>		

**Part III**

**Gender:**  Male  Female

**Age:** .....

**Mother tongue:**  Czech  Other (please specify): .....

**Years of teaching:** *How long have you been teaching English?* .....  
*How long have you been teaching at secondary schools?* .....

**Teacher training:** *How long did you study for becoming a teacher of English? Where did you study?*  
.....

**English proficiency:** *Please rate your current overall proficiency in English by ticking one.*

- A1 (beginner)
- A2 (elementary)
- B1 (intermediate)
- B2 (upper intermediate)
- C1 (advanced)
- C2 (proficiency)

**Thank you very much for completing the questionnaire! ☺**

## Appendix III

Table A: Distribution of student scores for the 20 terms.

Number of points	Absolute frequency	Percentage
0	1	0.93%
1	1	0.93%
4	3	2.78%
5	2	1.85%
6	2	1.85%
7	2	1.85%
8	1	0.93%
9	1	0.93%
10	2	1.85%
11	4	3.70%
12	3	2.78%
13	3	2.78%
14	6	5.56%
15	6	5.56%
16	6	5.56%
17	1	0.93%
18	2	1.85%
20	3	2.78%
21	5	4.63%
22	4	3.70%
23	1	0.93%
24	2	1.85%
25	1	0.93%
27	5	4.63%
28	2	1.85%
29	4	3.70%
30	5	4.63%
31	6	5.56%
32	3	2.78%
33	7	6.48%

<b>34</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>5.56%</b>
<b>35</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4.63%</b>
<b>36</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2.78%</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>100%</b>
<b>Mean</b>	<b>7.25</b>	
<b>SD</b>	<b>3.72</b>	

## Appendix IV

Table B: Scores for individual items (terms) in student questionnaire.

Rank	Term	Students %
1-2	Noun	81.48
1-2	Verb	81.48
3	Verb (clause element)	75
4	Countable noun	71.3
5	Present continuous	69.44
6	Past simple	68.52
7	Adjective	67.59
8	Subject	64.81
9	Present simple	59.26
10	Uncountable noun	58.33
11	Preposition	57.41
12	Future simple	56.48
13	Definite article	48.15
14	Indefinite article	46.3
15	Conjunction	46.3
16	Indirect object	45.37
17	Direct object	44.44
18	Relative pronoun	40.74
19	Present perfect	39.81
20	Adverb	35.19

## Appendix V: Contingency tables

			Gender		Total
			Boys	Girls	
Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	1 - 2	Count	14	32	46
		% within Gender	32.6%	50.0%	43.0%
		Std. Residual	-1.0	.9	
	3 - 4	Count	11	20	31
		% within Gender	25.6%	31.2%	29.0%
		Std. Residual	-.4	.3	
	5	Count	18	12	30
		% within Gender	41.9%	18.8%	28.0%
		Std. Residual	1.7	-1.4	
Total		Count	43	64	107
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	40.2%	59.8%	100.0%
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.005 <sup>a</sup>	2	.030
Likelihood Ratio	6.946	2	.031
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.091	1	.014
N of Valid Cases	107		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.06.

		Year of study		Total	
		1	4		
Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	1 - 2	Count	8	16	24
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	29.6%	69.6%	48.0%
		Std. Residual	-1.4	1.5	
	3 - 4	Count	9	5	14
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	64.3%	35.7%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	33.3%	21.7%	28.0%
		Std. Residual	.5	-.6	
	5	Count	10	2	12
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	37.0%	8.7%	24.0%
		Std. Residual	1.4	-1.5	
Total		Count	27	23	50
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	54.0%	46.0%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.880 <sup>a</sup>	2	.012
Likelihood Ratio	9.379	2	.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.566	1	.003
N of Valid Cases	50		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.15.

		Year of study				Total	
		1	2	3	4		
Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	1 - 2	Count	8	10	12	16	46
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	17.4%	21.7%	26.1%	34.8%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	29.6%	31.2%	48.0%	69.6%	43.0%
		Std. Residual	-1.1	-1.0	.4	1.9	
	3 - 4	Count	9	11	6	5	31
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	29.0%	35.5%	19.4%	16.1%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	33.3%	34.4%	24.0%	21.7%	29.0%
		Std. Residual	.4	.6	-.5	-.6	
	5	Count	10	11	7	2	30
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	33.3%	36.7%	23.3%	6.7%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	37.0%	34.4%	28.0%	8.7%	28.0%
		Std. Residual	.9	.7	.0	-1.8	
Total		Count	27	32	25	23	107
		% within Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	25.2%	29.9%	23.4%	21.5%	100.0%
		% within Year of study	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.507 <sup>a</sup>	6	.074
Likelihood Ratio	12.216	6	.057
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.238	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	107		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.15.



			Level of proficiency		Total
			A	B	
Grades (1-2), (3-4), 5	1 - 2	Count	4	36	40
		% within level of proficiency	19.0%	46.2%	40.4%
		Std. Residual	-1.5	.8	
	3 - 4	Count	7	22	29
		% within level of proficiency	33.3%	28.2%	29.3%
		Std. Residual	.3	-.2	
	5	Count	10	20	30
		% within level of proficiency	47.6%	25.6%	30.3%
		Std. Residual	1.4	-.7	
Total		Count	21	78	99
		% within Grades(1-2), (3-4), 5	21.2%	78.8%	100.0%
		% within level of proficiency	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.795 <sup>a</sup>	2	.055
Likelihood Ratio	6.065	2	.048
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.662	1	.017
N of Valid Cases	99		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.15.