

State Higher Vocational School in Nowy Sącz

***The dynamics of native language
competence of a bilingual speaker
– insights into writing competency***

Anna D. Biedrzyńska

Nowy Sącz 2014

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‘The only languages that do not change are dead ones.’

David Crystal

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Anna D. Biedrzyńska

Introduction

Language dynamics in a bilingual speaker has been both a fascinating and vast field for investigation. The term ‘dynamics’ suggests continuous changes at different stages of language proficiency. In the context of contact linguistics the direction of those changes, i.e. whether they are language progression or regression, was often under discussion. There have been studies on many aspects of language dynamics among which that of attrition also appeared. Perhaps my interest in first language (L1) attrition would not have been aroused if it had not been for some personal experiences. Humorous and common conclusions shared by the MA students that the four-year course of intensive foreign language (FL) study had brought them to the point at which they experienced feelings of insufficient control over both L1 and FL and of semilingualism made me search for some explanations.

It has already been over three decades since Lambert and Freed’s (1982) *Loss of language skills* made a breakthrough in the study on first and second language attrition. The next book-format of papers on attrition appeared in 1991 in Seliger and Vago’s (ed.) *First language attrition* and dealt with pathological and non-pathological attrition at individual and societal levels. The beginning of 21st century saw a surge of interest in attrition which was initially largely individualised (Köpke and Schmid 2004), i.e. many projects on attrition were run parallel and their results being unpublished and unavailable could not be compared. However, after the turn of millennium the field of research on attrition started to unite and many efforts have been made to establish networks between researchers in the form of conferences and on-line databases. Also the field of language attrition has been split and divided into primary and secondary language attrition. Köpke and Schmid’s (2004) edition entitled *First language attrition: interdisciplinary perspectives on methodological issues* contains a collection of papers which present research designs and set a proposal for a common research framework.

This dissertation originated in the belief that developing competence in a foreign language (FL) entails changes in the realm of the mother tongue competence. The term ‘language change’ is obviously a vast one and covers a number of facets concerned with changes associated with both language system development and language breakdown. Since so perceived change would be much beyond the scope of this research, the focus has been restricted to the symptoms of the first language (L1) breakdown under the influence of an actively used FL or in other words - L1 attrition in the FL context. To be more precise, the primary attention is paid to potential changes in the use of Polish by the students of English at the Institute of the English Language at the University of Silesia. Such a choice of the area of study has been dictated by the interest in cross-linguistic phenomena and the perspective of didactic implications that the research is expected to produce both at the level of primary and higher bilingual education. In this work, the terms ‘deterioration’, ‘breakdown’, ‘deactivation’, ‘erosion’, etc. are synonymous with ‘attrition’.

This work consists of two parts. Part One comprises three theoretical chapters. Since no language change occurs in isolation, non-linguistic factors and neurological aspects are reviewed in them and aspects of structural linguistics, stages of summary writing and L1 norm are presented. Part Two provides description of the research

design, empirical studies and the results. In the last chapter the findings are summarized and conclusions drawn.

Perhaps, the greatest value of this work is that it contributes to understanding of the nature and the role of L1 attrition in L1 context. The L1 context, apart from the dialect loss, has not been the mainstream field for investigation and for this reason this work is a projection into a more specific area of L1 attrition.

Part One: Theoretical Background

Chapter I

Language development and change

1. Introduction

Language is a system of grammatical, lexical and phonological configurations shared by a group of people and used for communication. This basic definition may be extended to the roles that languages fulfil in the course of national history and heritage. Some metaphors render the multi-planed language functions. For instance, Crystal (2000) cites a Welsh proverb, which compares language to the heart without which the sense of nationality and its unique character are lost:

Cenedl heb iaith, cenedl heb galon

[‘A nation without a language is a nation without a heart’] (Crystal, 2000, p. 36)

The lifespan of languages depends on the lifespan of societies as languages die with the death of their last speakers. There have been no systematic and therefore no fully reliable records of the world languages and consequently it is now impossible to precisely state how many of them are already non-existent (Crystal, 2000). According to Crystal (2000), languages are dying at a fast rate and in the future more than half of the now existing languages will die.

Attrition, which is associated with language breakdown, does not necessarily lead to the complete language death but it may result in a limited control of a language system. De Bot (2001, cited from Hutz, 2004, p. 203) compares language to *a house* which once abandoned starts to systematically fall into the state of deterioration. Time and negligence make attrition progress. However, the change is not radical but rather slow and selective. The selectiveness of attrition has been depicted by Hutz (2004) who elaborated on De Bot’s (2001) metaphor and suggested that once left unattended, the language, just as a house, does not change into a ruin immediately. It is rather a slow process of gradual decay of the most susceptible elements in the first place and only later the more solid ones. Therefore the domain of vocabulary may be compared to the roof or windows as the most fragile parts of building construction whereas morphology and syntax – to the more fundamental parts, such as walls and foundation (Hutz, 2004, p. 203).

One may wonder why the mother tongue should attrite in the FL setting if it is regularly used within it. Perhaps it is a justifiable concern but it requires confirmation. What is certain, however, is that nowadays bilingualism (and more often multilingualism) is a goal for communities all around the world. Foreign languages, English in particular, are obligatory subjects in the school curricula. Social and economic pressures to teach and learn them are so profound that they appear to have blurred the concern for native language(s). Schmid (2004) draws the following conclusion:

(...) all efforts have been going to the teaching of second and foreign languages while the preservation of second and first languages and its transmission to the next generations in the case of migrants seems to be

deemed a non-issue. The point to be made here is that there is a danger of neglecting – and thus losing – a great wealth of language proficiency, the preservation of which would cost far less effort than the teaching of an unknown language from scratch. (2004, p. 355)

In the Polish context, the consequences of L1 neglect must have led the Ministry of Education to impose an obligation on all teachers to express concern for the Polish language which their students and they themselves use. This regulation was brought into force in the school year 2009/2010. The undertaken measures to approach the mother tongue as an asset to the nation have many supporters but, with all certainty, they must have had a reason, too.

2. Cognitive development

In considering the issue of language attrition the aspects of language development may not be neglected. Learning and unlearning are inherent parts of the human brain, present throughout the entire brain's lifespan. Languages are unique properties, acquired solely by humans, even in conditions described as less than ideal, such as low levels of intelligence or pathologies (Chomsky, 2006, p. 9). Aitchison (1998) made a humorous and illustrative comment that language is as natural for people as barking for dogs or chattering for monkeys, i.e. language is species specific and a distinctive feature of the human kind. However, it is a well-established belief that the brain's predisposition to acquire language in a formally unfocused manner has its limits, too. There is a certain period of brain's 'receptiveness', which is believed to be blocked after puberty. Although the human brain retains capacity for developing second and foreign languages throughout most of its life, the process of such development is significantly different from childhood mother tongue acquisition. The following chapter attempts to discuss the cognitive predispositions for language development and attrition.

2.1. Nature *versus* nurture in language development

There have been many attempts to explain the intricacy of the human learning so deeply engrained in the human nature. In these considerations, the roles of nature and nurture in language development were taken into account. The first, scientifically grounded hypotheses date back to the turn of the 20th century. A series of experiments with a dog, led a Russian psychologist, Ivan Pavlov, to a conclusion that human learning is a matter of associative training (of the kind: if A then B). Skinner (1957) described Pavlov's classical conditioning as 'respondent conditioning' since it dealt with the behaviour elicited as a response to the stimulus, and proposed his own theory of operant conditioning. In this kind of conditioning an animal learns an association between a motor task it performs and reinforcement. The reinforcement is either positive or negative and plays a major role in successful habit formation. Behavioural theories exerted a tremendous impact on language learning theory in general and viewed language development as a set of trained habits.

The present understanding of the learning processes has been enhanced by Rogers' (1951) humanistic theory of learning which stands in total opposition to the behaviourist tradition. Rogers directed the main focus on the person not only as an intellectual capacity but foremost emotional human being. His theory places the main emphasis on the humanistic context of emergence of a learner self-concept, which is the

driving force behind the learning effort. Thus, the teacher should create non-threatening conditions and act more as a facilitator, supporting and motivating the learners in their struggle to master new skills rather than a superior instructor. Learning also has its social dimension in learner interactions and cooperation in the tasks through which learners build their self-esteem.

Language develops in line with physical maturation. The apparent ease with which children acquire any language that is used in their immediate environment has brought many linguists to the conclusion that language must be pre-programmed in the human beings. Chomsky (2006) developed the notion of universal grammar accounting for a child innate ability to make hypotheses about language and decipher the accurate and erroneous patterns in spite of the fact that they might not have seen or even heard the pattern before. This phenomenon is also described as ‘poverty-of-stimulus argument’ (cf. Lightfoot and Fasold, 2006), which means that child language development is a process of systematic expansion of ‘a legitimate system in its own right’ (Brown, 2000, p.25) despite the existence of frequently contradicting linguistic information in a child’s environment. Children’s use of the mother tongue is innovative and parents frequently fail to provide corrections to their children’s performance. Thus, Chomsky proposed the existence of an internal, innate ‘language acquisition device’ (LAD) responsible for language acquisition. He also distinguished between the deep and surface structures of the language, which in turn allow for representing the same concept by employing various structural patterns, i.e. transformations (Chomsky, 2006). The result of child L1 acquisition is the tacit or latent language knowledge whose operation principles may be compared to those of a spider which ‘can spin a web successfully without any awareness of the principles it is following’ (Aitchison, 1998, p. 180).

FL development is not an identical process to L1 acquisition and involves a substantial degree of ‘nurture’. The answer to the question of how much it is nature that allows human beings for specifically FL attainment and how much it is nurture that facilitates the process may be found in the work of researchers such as, e.g. Skinner (1957), Aitchison (1998) and Chomsky (2006). As already mentioned, the early perception of language development did not go beyond a set of habits formed in the course of trial and error. Successive research, however, showed that it might be more applicable to the FL development rather than L1 acquisition. According to Berko Gleason (1993), the neurological perspective assumes the existence of certain biological predispositions and neuropsychological endowments for learning successive languages after the L1 acquisition has been completed. However, developing the secondary language systems may require much more form focused practice than subconscious intake. The conclusion may be that nurture ‘not only makes it all easier, but actually changes the way the brain organises itself’ (Aitchison, 1998, p.59). In other words, the humans possess the natural predisposition for learning of languages other than the mother tongue but need practice.

2.2. Intelligence

An undisputable factor underlying any learning is learner’s intellectual capacity. The potential to learn is referred to as intelligence. Some researchers, such as Lenneberg (1967), suggested that intelligence may not be considered a major factor in L1

acquisition since all children, except these with severe mental disability, acquire their mother tongue. Others, e.g. Oller (1981), put forward a view that intelligence and language learning are strongly interrelated if not identical. Ellis (1985) claimed that intelligence may be a significant predictor of success in L2 acquisition in a classroom setting dominated by formal instruction. This relationship, however, is not equally applicable in a naturalistic context, ‘when L2 knowledge is developed through learning how to communicate in the target language’ (Ellis, 1985, p. 111).

Currently, the definition of intelligence has gone far beyond linguistic and logical-mathematical dimension. Gardner (1993) has not only challenged the validity of the traditional intelligence quotient tests but also proposed a more diverse definition of the human intellect. His model of multiple intelligences consists of eight distinctive intellectual variables. Aside of linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences, Gardner added six additional intelligences, such as spatial, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalist. Further, Goleman (1995) considered emotion to be always first to react and therefore first to be taken care of in educational contexts. He emphasized that the starting point for any successful learning is settling the matter of emotional malaise of depression, irritation, distractedness, social withdrawal, etc. He also argued that through the lack of emotional intelligence (EQ) young people fail on various planes, including the educational one. Therefore, EQ has become an essential element of global intelligence conducive to the degree of educational success. Thus, overall understanding of intelligence in the context of language development consists of many aspects including logical thinking, ability of creative language use, mental model organization, sound recognition and production, building an affirmative image of oneself in social interactions, etc.

2.3. Memory

Difficulties in adult learning may be concerned with memory processing. Longstaff (2000) and Paradis (2004) presented a comprehensive overview of memory types. Namely, there are two well-known memory categories: declarative (also referred to as explicit) is memory for facts and procedural (also known as implicit or motor) is memory for skills. The former category comprises episodic memory, i.e. memory for specific events and semantic memory, i.e. memory for facts unrelated to events. The latter category is further divided into non-associative memory, i.e. habituation and associative, such as classical conditioning.

With time, memory deteriorates in at least two senses. First of all, elderly people experience problems when trying to acquire new knowledge, which may be seen, for instance, in their apparent inability to gain full control over new vocabulary even within their own mother tongue. That suggests that with age, the brain’s capability becomes largely diminished and neural connections are not easily restructured to allocate the novel data (Longstaff, 2000). Although it is natural for human memory to regularly eliminate some portion of the previously recorded data, there is vague or none such possibility of losing once acquired and established linguistic system (Herdina and Jessner, 2002), i.e. items in the human memory are not lost but relocated. This means that the linguistic data may become inaccessible but at the same time - retrievable due to appropriate cues. Thus, language attrition may be accounted for with two theories of forgetting. The first one views forgetting as a gradual process of information decay with

progression of which, the retrieval of the particular data grows increasingly difficult. The other theory is concerned with cognitive interference: accessibility is diminished because of new information covering up the old one (Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 94).

According to some researchers, specificity of the learned items as well as their meaningfulness contribute to their retention in memory. Ausubel (1968) accounted for forgetting with a theory of subsumption. The underpinning of the theory is a belief that meaningful learning is conducive to retention of the learned item in the long term memory. In rote learning the memorized material is believed to be stored as an isolated entity without established relationships with other concepts (and thus the first to be deleted from the memory banks). Meaningful learning entails subsuming items into an existing conceptual category. As a consequence, retention of the acquired items is enhanced since they are relatable to an already existing cognitive structure. Nevertheless, the subsequent 'obliterative' stage of this process is attrition, i.e. systematic forgetting, or in Brown's (2000) terms 'cognitive pruning' in the course of which items are incorporated into a more general conceptual framework and thus gradually lose their distinctive structure until finally they are no longer available. It is easier for the mind to organize the new data into a common, relevant cognitive structure rather than to retain diverse, specific and disorganized items. Language patterns in multilingual systems have to be reduced to fit into a common 'denominator' and be integrated into an overall linguistic framework. Seliger and Vago (1991) saw knowledge of two or more linguistic systems as 'coexisting in a state of competition for a finite amount of memory and processing space in the mind of the speaker' (p. 4).

2.4. Bilingual memory models

The bilingual semantic memory is often illustrated with the aid of two storage models of coordinate and compound, or following Cook's (2003) terminology - separation and integration models. The former dichotomy presupposes the existence of two separate systems of language representation. They are independent of each other and come into contact via the translation mechanisms. The separate storage model assumes the existence of separate memory devices for L1 and L2. Within the latter dichotomy, the bilingual memory is a common, interrelated storage system for both languages. In this integration model, language information is 'tagged' for its attributes and compiled into the same memory device. A common characteristic of both models is that they include a processing mechanism which allows for switching between languages. According to the independence model, a bilingual speaker should react to either language in the same way as a monolingual does. The interdependence model allows for a degree of interlingual interaction.

The question about the accuracy of the two models has not been fully resolved. After all, the storage patterns may ensue from the neurobiological factors related to age and order of language acquisition. It has been accepted, however, that coordinate bilingualism typifies learners acquiring both languages simultaneously, whereas compound bilingualism characterizes subsequent language learning (e.g. Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 9; Gabryś-Barker, 2005, p.24).

Many researchers (Cook, 2003; Herdina and Jessner, 2002; Jessner 2003) hold a view that the relationships between the languages in a bilingual mind are dynamic and

susceptible to change during the processes of both language acquisition and use. From this perspective, the change may occur in either of the separately stored language codes due to, for instance, changes in exposure and language use. Thus, one language code may evolve at the expense of the less used or unused one. Cook (2002) has suggested that the integrated language system may undergo changes as a whole.

Within the framework put forward by Seliger and Vago (1991), three stages of memory structuring according to the level of advancement are possible:

- **Compound I Bilingualism** is an incipient stage of bilingualism at which the target language is learnt through forming and testing hypotheses on the basis of the mother tongue. During this phase language transfer is directed from the primary language to the second language. This means that both languages are served by the common source of L1 knowledge which does not preclude operation of universal principles of language learning.
- **Coordinate Bilingualism** is the intermediate stage at which separation of two grammars takes place via the processes of restructuring, i.e. adapting the primary language rules to the target language, and recreation which entails devising unique principles applicable to the target language only.
- **Compound II Bilingualism** is characterised by the growth of the target language domain to the extent at which it starts to exert an impact on L1. At this level the primary language is modified according to the principles found in the target language.

Compound II Bilingualism may be compared to Cook's (2003, p. 8) 'partial integration model'. In his model, multilingual storage is unique in the sense that it differs from the monolingual forms of either language. At that stage bilingual users may have a feeling of losing control over their L1 because of transfer phenomena, forgetting of L1 grammar rules and vocabulary and using them incorrectly.

2.5. Critical period hypothesis

Ellis (1985, p. 108) pointed out that major differences in language development should be attributed to learners' age and stage of cognitive development. Children outperform adults in their final language proficiency and gain native-like control over L2. This relationship has won the metaphorical descriptions of 'younger equals better in the long run' (Singleton, 1995) and 'a tortoise and the hare effect' (Bialystok and Hakuta, 1994). The metaphors attempt to account for the fact that adult L2 learners outperform children in the early morpho-syntactic stage of L2 attainment, however, they rarely equal with young acquirers in terms of their final L2 control. Yet, L2 attainment usually happens at the cost of L1 quality and in some cases L1 loss. For instance, Pallier, et al. (2003) noted that children aged 3 to 8 lose their L1 when immersed into L2 environment and deprived of L1 contact. This interdependence between age and final language attainment draws a distinct line between child and adult language learning.

L1 acquisition is primarily subconscious and automatic. The Piagetian concrete operational stage (between age of 7 and 11) marks the onset of logical reasoning in a

child (Gerrig and Zimbardo, 2009, pp. 317-320). From this time on, a child acquires a new tool of conscious control over learning in general. An adult FL/L2 learner gains an early advantage from the well-developed meta-knowledge, abstract thinking abilities and awareness of one's own learning styles and strategies. A child's FL/L2 learning starts at much slower a rate. Child awareness of a language learning process is incomparable to that of an adult. Language learning is more dependent on inductive rather than deductive input, quite contrary to adult learning. However, this early advantage on the part of adults does not ensure their final success, which, more often than not, belongs to young learners.

The first years of human life are believed to be a period of the optimal conditions conducive to language acquisition in the course of which the language control is assigned to the left brain hemisphere in the process of lateralisation. The finite boundary marking the end of the critical time for brain's plasticity remains a bone of contention for the researchers. Penfield and Roberts (1959) stated that it lasts for the first ten years of life. In the opinion of Krashen (1973) and Paradis (2004), the period of optimal cognitive conditions for language development falls within first five years of life, whereas Ventureyra et.al. (2004) claim that it extends from two years to puberty.

Some cognitive researchers have proposed multiple sensitive periods during which different linguistic skills are assigned to the left part of the brain (cf. Ellis 1985, p. 108; Celce-Murcia et.al., 1996, p. 16). Such a proposition has been made to account for the fact that different L1 skills seem to establish at different times. For instance, pronunciation remains the 'least amenable to conscious manipulation' (Ellis, 1985, p. 109) and it is extremely demanding, if not impossible, to get rid of the foreign accent when speaking FL/L2. It means, taking the reverse perspective, that L1 pronunciation is much more resistant to attrition than any other skill. In general terms, it is widely accepted that puberty marks the beginning of the progressive loss of the brain's flexibility, especially in the area of accent, and L1 attrition after puberty has been considered rather unlikely.

2.6. Brain's structure and learning capacity

Neurological research provides a compelling, supplementary insight into language processing across human lifespan. The whole of language storage and retrieval processing takes place in the brain and, therefore, it is particularly relevant to this research topic.

The human brain is divided into two major sections: the brain stem with cerebellum responsible for sustaining the organism and the upper section of the cerebrum whose purpose is not connected with biological survival but integration with the environment (Aitchison, 1998, p. 51). The cerebrum is further divided into two cerebral hemispheres which are assigned various functions. Penfield is said to be a pioneer in mapping the sensory and motor brain in 1930s. Doidge (2007) reports that he used electric probes during a brain surgery to distinguish the healthy tissue from the unhealthy one and so was finally able to create the sensory and motor brain maps. Before those discoveries, however, language was already located in the left hemisphere by Broca and Wernicke in the 19th century.

Language may be localized in the left hemisphere but there have also been accounts of pathological damages to the parts of the brain believed to be the language areas without the result of speech loss as well as damages to ‘non-language’ areas which impaired speech. Some patients who had the whole of the left hemisphere removed suffered language loss initially. However, with time, they regained a limited range of linguistic skills. Some neurologists conclude that the right hemisphere has a limited potential for language and that the brain has the potential to re-locate the speech centres (Aitchison, 1998, pp. 56-58; Berko Gleason, 1993, p. 152).

Modern techniques allow for examining which brain areas of the upper section are involved in performing which activities, language included. These techniques range from ‘sodium amytal’ test, dichotic listening, electro-diagnosis and brain scans (Aitchison, 1998, pp. 53-59) to EEG (electroencephalography), TMS (transcranial magnetic stimulation), PET (positron emission tomography) and fMRI (functional magnetic resonance imaging), which show the brain activation patterns during language perception and production. The two latter techniques were used by Pallier et al. (2003) to investigate the patterns of brain activation when involved in L1 and FL tasks. Their fMRI study of the adopted Koreans in France suggested that children at the age between 3 and 8 years acquire their second language through the same brain areas as children acquiring their mother tongue. As a result there was no difference between the adult native French and adopted Koreans in terms of the brain activation when listening to Korean as a FL and French as an L1. However, it was observed that the brain activation on the part of the native French control group was broader. The conclusion was that it is possible for an L2 to replace an L1 in early bilinguals, however, such replacement may remain incomplete. Other findings implied that it may not be age that impacts the way the second language is represented in the brain but the level of proficiency. In the PET study cited by Pallier et.al. (2003) the comprehension task by advanced late bilinguals had the identical cortical representations for both L1 and L2 and similar to those of native speakers. This might suggest that the same brain areas hold the responsibility for operation of both L1 and L2 systems in advanced language learners.

It has been generally agreed upon that puberty marks the end of the critical period (as already mentioned in section 2.5. of this chapter) and the beginning of a gradual loss of plasticity of the neural circuits, which Pallier et al. (2003) referred to as the ‘crystallization hypothesis’. The main premise of the hypothesis in question is that the later a second language is learnt the greater the difference between the cortical representations of L1 and L2 in the brain. At the same time, it is assumed that L1 exposure leaves a long-lasting imprint in the neural circuits even when the L2 speaker completely ceases to use it.

The brain’s capability of ‘rewiring’ itself during puberty was proved by Hubel and Wiesel (1962). In an experiment on a kitten whose one eye was sewn shut, they discovered that when the part of the vision area in the brain stopped receiving stimulation from one eye, the brain area so far responsible for processing input from the shut eye started to process input from the open eye instead. The experimental kitten remained blind in the eye for the rest of its life which was taken as a definite proof that the brain’s plasticity ends at the same time as puberty begins. The beginnings of 21st century have seen further advancement in neuro-linguistics thanks to Merzenich,

Grajski, Jenkins, Recanzone and Peterson's (1991) discovery that brain retains its plasticity, i.e. ability to 're-wire' into adulthood. Merzenich is known for conducting a series of neurological experiments on monkeys which made him conclude that there are two stages of brain plasticity: the early one happening before the critical period and the late one taking place throughout human existence (Doidge, 2007). However, late brain plasticity is highly selective and dependent on the significance of input received. It is also competitive, which means that neurological connections that are no longer used are taken over to process other data. As Vetulani (2001) explains, learning a new skill entails reorganisation of cortical maps due to changes at the synaptic level which happen at the cost of other cortical maps' shrinkage. If the occurrence of changes in two given neurons, located before and after the synaptic connection, is sufficiently frequent the plastic change is highly feasible. In other words, strengthening the connection between given neurons results in weakening the old connections between other neurons (Pycha, 2000). From this perspective, brain circuitry is plastic and conducive to change; as the new material is learnt other information may become blurred or even inaccessible due to reorganisation of synaptic pathways.

Applying those discoveries into the FL/L2 context it now becomes clearer that difficulty learning FL/L2 may not result from the fixed assignment of bodily functions to brain areas but it is caused by L1 domination and growing numbers of neural connections that control it (Doidge, 2007). It seems logical to assume that some of those connections may again 'attrite' as newly developing FL/L2 requires a larger number of synaptic connections. This perspective gives quite a plausible explanation of L1 attrition under intensive FL instruction.

2.7. Neurobiology of affect

The neurological source of emotion centres in an almond shaped limbic structure called amygdala. Amygdala is involved in the appraisal of the feelings of fear when being threatened as well as pleasantness when it does not register a stimulus as harmful (Goleman, 1995). It is the birthplace of charm attached to and pleasure invoked by one language code rather than the other. For instance, the term 'researcher' may be found untranslatable in circumstances when its Polish translation of 'badacz' is perceived as inaccurate and lacking some of the assets that 'researcher' contains (Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2006, p. 243).

Schumann (1997) explains affective motivation to learn as consisting of homeostatic and sociostatic regulations. The former one describes the natural biological propensity to seek food, warmth or coolness and to know the environment by naming and categorizing its elements. The latter one refers to the inherited behaviour to seek societal affiliation and attachment. The state of pleasure may be derived from feelings of self-realization, enhanced self-esteem or sheer passion for achieving the target. The outcome of the homeostatic and sociostatic behaviour constitutes the system of somatic value. That system is not inherited but rather developed in the course of various life experiences.

Now when distances are easily overcome by convenient means of transport and people's mobile lifestyles, the pressure on FL development is much greater. Emotional attitudes still play an important role: the type of emotional load attached to language

may both foster and hamper its development and maintenance, and in extreme, unfavourable conditions contribute to language loss (cf. Aitchison, 1991; Pavlenko 2002, 2003; Hawkins, 2005).

3. Individual factors in L1 change

3.1. Self-esteem

Maslow (1970) placed self-esteem at the top of his hierarchy of needs and assumed that its satisfaction leads to self-actualization. Self-esteem is a product of social exchanges between the members of the society. According to Baileys (1983), it is a picture of oneself as a language speaker and, as a consequence, the measure of self-acceptance derived from the interpersonal linguistic interaction between self and others. Self-evaluation may play a crucial role in the mother tongue change under FL influences as the need for affirmation might be addressed by purposeful allowing linguistic influences from other foreign/second language system(s) to advocate of one's multilingualism and intellect. Self-esteem may be realized in written and spoken performance, e.g. by application of a fast growing number of English borrowing. Substantially, a great deal of those borrowing transfers stem from the lack of proper equivalents. There are certain contexts, such as sport, politics and mass media, in which speakers/writers employ English terms in place of their native synonyms ('futbol', 'drybling', 'presing', 'ofsajt', 'wizytować' [to come with a friendly visit], 'lunch', 'celebryta', 'gifty', 'charmsy', 'dromstiki' are only few examples of English words that entered the Polish lexicon). Many of them are technical terms or internationalisms used for convenience. Many other borrowed terms, however, are used to gain prestige and to earn acclaim of oneself. Therefore, as Bartmiński (2001) concludes, the modern Polish prefer to go for 'lunch' rather than 'obiad'. Self-esteem appears to be a crucial factor in individual language learning as it propels motivation.

3.2. Motivation

Motivation has been described as the internal need or willingness to perform effort in pursuit of a certain goal. It is considered as much an essential factor as external, biological conditions for language development (Dörnyei, 2001). Motivation in behaviouristic terms is merely anticipation of a reward and reinforcement gained from it. In the cognitive view, motivation links with satisfying certain cognitive needs of exploration, manipulation, activity, stimulation, knowledge and ego enhancement (Ausubel, 1968, pp. 368-379). Eventually, the constructivist approach relates motivation to individual decisions which are influenced by the social context (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 120).

In the discussion on motivation it would be impossible not to mention the most widely spread, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) dichotomy of instrumental and integrative motivation. The former, employed for instrumental goals, concerns motives such as better career opportunities. The latter, is activated for social assimilation. It would be extremely demanding to state the superiority of one type of motivation over the other. It is rather the matter of their intensity. The two orientations have traditionally been described in isolation and juxtaposed. However, it must not escape notice that the current reality for a number of Polish individuals requires a combination of both. 21st century saw a large number of the young generation leading immigrant lives in the English speaking communities. Driven instrumentally by the temptation of better social

conditions, they are required to make daily choices between integrating with the local communities and accepting the position of second class citizens.

According to Pfeiffer (2001, p. 111), the above approaches only partially account for what language motivation entails. He distinguishes between *emotional-affective aspect* of motivation, *social dimension* and *historical-social aspect*. Szalek (1992, p. 93) presented motivation in a hierarchical structure: the primary motivation addresses the most elementary needs of human existence, e.g. L1 acquisition, whereas the secondary motivation is less intense and accompanies development of additional languages and skills.

Speaking in terms of the motivation to maintain language, Brown (2000, p. 166) proposes to distinguish between four different motivation types:

- **Intrinsic-integrative motivation** is an internal propensity to maintain language and be an indistinguishable member of the community,
- **Intrinsic-instrumental dichotomy** refers to the learner's intrinsic aim to maintain a good measure of language skills for some instrumental purposes,
- **Extrinsic-integrative motivation** entails an external power enforcing language maintenance for integrative goals (for instance parents of children who emigrated or were born in an L2 environment insisting on their children to sustain L1),
- **Extrinsic-instrumental dichotomy** makes language maintenance dependent on external variables and instrumental targets (for instance in professional contexts to attract new clients).

Motivation certainly plays an important part in both language development and maintenance, however, not so much its type but its quality influences the language growth.

4. Summary

This chapter provided a brief review of issues connected with language development, maintenance and change. After the completion of the Piagetian stage of formal operations, the potential for learning increases due to the ability of abstract reasoning: constructing elaborate theories and testing them. Language learning becomes conscious and form focused as there is a strong need for data systematization. Affectivity may only add to that need. At the same time, the brain's potential to form new neural pathways is maintained, however, FL/L2 development is more strenuous because of L1 dominance both in L1 user's daily activities and brain circuitry.

Finally, it is compelling to note that observations of language nature and theories about it in the fields of linguistics and psychology correspond to the relatively recent neurological discoveries about language. For instance, Ausubel's (1968) claim that meaningfulness is essential in learning and Dörnyei's (2001) emphasis on the role of motivation receive some confirmation in the findings about the neurology of affect. Merzenich's et al. (1991) finding about the adult brain plasticity is especially important in this work because it elucidates that the mature brain has the potential to rewire itself under certain circumstances, i.e. language change is neurologically viable in conditions conducive to it.

Chapter II

Dynamics of a bilingual system

1. Introduction

In the previous chapter the primary focus was placed on theories of language development, maintenance and change. This chapter investigates the dynamics of the developed bilingual systems in linguistic terms and with special regard to L1 deterioration under the influence of another language system.

The contemporary Polish language has absorbed a vast number of borrowing transfer whose primary or secondary source is the English language. The technological advancement and freedom in the fields of personal views, art trends and foremost speech have contributed to the spur of foreign, especially English, expressions in Polish. Bartmiński (2001) points to the fact that on the one hand, the linguistic canon of the Polish language has been permanently questioned in fighting for freedom of expression. On the other hand, however, it ‘suffers from erosion, fading and blurring in the situation of educational crisis and illiteracy spreading among the society (the young generation in particular)’ (Bartmiński, 2001, p. 16).¹ The influence of the English language, which initially marked its presence in the areas of science and technology, currently affects other fields. Bajerowa (2001, p. 45) notices that the modern Polish language has to compete with English in certain areas of science and culture, which is caused by the fact that foreign terminology is strongly associated with prestige. The change of Polish under the influence of English, knowledge of which is taken for granted on personal and professional grounds, is feasible and unavoidable.

Language evolution has always entailed some absorption of foreign items, especially those concerned with technology and science. According to Markowski and Puzynina (2001, p. 56), the number of international terminology has been rising in all languages in the world, constituting an element of unification of cultures and as such should be allowed to a certain degree. In their opinion, FL elements enrich L1, and redundancy of terminology is desired in any language system. However, too extensive introduction of internationalisms is not a desirable process either. After all, the primary language function is communicative and too many transfers may disturb or completely block the message comprehension and, as a result, fail to fulfil its elementary role. Linguistic innovations should be treated with a dose of criticism for yet another argument. Language system developed over centuries, shaped by history and culture is a unique element of the national heritage. In this sense, ‘it obliges and it should not be ruined or altered either by interference of dilettantes and prospectors of cheap effects or by inertia and intellectual idleness’ (Markowski and Puzynina, 2001, p. 55).² Language, being the integral part of the national identity, should not be freely substituted with FL structures for reasons, such as gaining prestige and for other reasons, such as mental laziness or carelessness.

¹ Translation: mine.

² Translation: mine

To begin the discussion on a change in a bilingual system, it is necessary to look into the situation in which at least two language systems come in contact at the individual and societal levels. This chapter also aims at formulating a definition of language attrition in the context of intensive exposure to FL as a departing point for research on L1 erosion in an L1 setting.

2. Bilinguality

In the past, some considered bilinguality an abnormal state of mind similar to split personalities and schizophrenia. However, half a century ago Peal and Lambert (1962) found that bilinguals prove better in verbal and non-verbal intelligences than monolinguals. That indicated that their concept formation and mental flexibility were enhanced. Nowadays, the knowledge of two systems is believed to facilitate organization of thought, raise awareness of a language system as one of many language systems, boost awareness of linguistic choices and enhance information processing control (e.g. Hamers and Blanc, 1989, p. 47). Bilinguals are reported to exceed monolinguals in analytic processing of verbal input, creativity, awareness of language arbitrary nature and detecting syntactic ambiguity. They are also believed to have a more profound ability to reflect on language and to be better at problem solving tasks (Cook, 1992).

The definition of bilinguality is not unanimous among researchers. Linguistically speaking, a bilingual person possesses generally unspecified knowledge of two language systems (Czykwin and Misiejuk, 2002, p. 94). However, such a definition does not serve a satisfactory explanation. It is essential to specify the level of linguistic knowledge that an individual needs to attain in order to be described as bilingual. For Bloomfield (1984, p. 56) a bilingual person possesses the native-like competence in both languages. Such a person is also called a balanced bilingual or ambilingual. However, it has become common knowledge that balanced bilinguality is a rare phenomenon and requires consistent strain to maintain and develop the two systems equally well. It is also more reasonable to assume that two languages in a bilingual mind are used differently for different contexts and in different ways rather than to the same, native-like, extent. In fact, the term 'native-like' is also obscure. It may be argued whether it refers to the advanced levels of control over the four language skills, such as listening, reading, speaking and writing, or to the tacit (in Chomskyan terms) language competence, such as that acquired from early childhood. Davies (2003, p. 78) goes further in this claim and emphasizes that the term native-speaker is too often taken for granted. After all, some native speakers never fully develop their mother tongue and should be referred to as semilinguals (as opposed to linguals).

Understanding of dimensions of bilinguality which will be followed in this work was constructed by Hamers and Blanc (1989) at the end of 20th century. In Hamers and Blanc's framework, bilinguality is considered from different perspectives as a multidimensional term, which is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Dimensions of bilinguality according to different variables

Competence in both languages	1. Balanced biliguality 2. Dominant bilinguality
Cognitive organization	1. Compound biliguality 2. Coordinate bilinguality
Age of acquisition	1. Childhood bilinguality a) simultaneous b) consecutive 2. Adolescent biliguality 3. Adult bilinguality
Presence of L2 community in environment	1. Endogenous bilinguality 2. Exogenous bilinguality
Relative status of the two languages	1. Additive bilingualism 2. Subtractive bilinguality
Group membership and cultural identity	1. Bicultural bilinguality 2. L1 monocultural bilinguality 3. L2 acculturated bilinguality 4. Deculturated bilinguality

Source: Bilinguality and bilingualism (p. 9), J.F., Hamers and M. H. A., Blanc, 1989, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

According to the level of attained competence, bilinguality may be divided into balanced and dominant. The term balanced bilinguality, as mentioned earlier, is often referred to the state of equilibrium reached between the levels of competence in two languages. Dominant bilinguality is related to the state in which the level of attained competence in one language is superior to the level of attained competence in the other. It is typically the mother tongue that develops the patterns of dominance over the subsequently learned tongues in the case of post puberty learners. In terms of the mental representation and organization of bilinguality, the general distinction is made between compound and coordinate bilinguality. The former one presupposes the existence of what Kecskes and Papp (2003) refer to as the common underlying conceptual base (CUCB), i.e. a unitary system of concepts for both languages. Coordinate bilinguality consists of two separate systems of semantic representation with corresponding equivalents. Depending on whether languages were acquired simultaneously through unfocused language practice (for instance in a mixed language family) or consecutively, i.e. after the primary L1 principles were mastered, bilinguality may be simultaneous or consecutive. Consecutive childhood bilinguality is rather informal but may possess some traits of intentional learning, for instance, with the aid of the multimedia programmes. Adolescent and adult bilinguality are usually formal and form focused. Another distinction has been drawn between endogenous bilinguality in the presence of L2 community and exogenous bilinguality without the presence of L2 community, e.g. official L2 languages. Finally, the degree of perception of social prestige is essential in the development of additive or subtractive bilinguality. The former usually takes place in simultaneous and consecutive L1 and L2 acquisition. This kind of bilinguality is based on the premise that the learner has developed cognitive function of language in L1 and is able to exploit it in establishing the second language system in the context in which both languages are equally valorised. In circumstances of low perception of L1

social prestige, L1 skills may remain underdeveloped before schooling and the cognitive function of language is addressed in L2 only. In such a case, the subtractive type of bilinguality may develop. Last but not least, in terms of group membership and cultural identity, the difference is made between: bicultural bilinguality, which involves acceptance of both cultures and their equal valorisation by their members, L1 monocultural biliguallity, which means renouncing one culture in favour of the other, L2 acculturated bilinguality, which denotes rejecting the mother tongue culture in favour of the second language culture and deculturated bilinguality, which takes place when the L1 culture is rejected, however, the target language culture is not fully adopted.

The presented dimensions may be interrelated and interdependent to varying degrees, thus making bilinguality a truly intricate state. For instance, age of language acquisition of a bilingual has impact on cognitive organization, level of language competence and the degree of acculturation. Additionally, presence of L2 speech community may influence both age of language development and level of competence. So understood bilinguality is an extremely complex concept.

2.1. Bilingual identity

There have been attempts to explain identity from the position of psychological theories as the concept of oneself built on the basis of differences that distinguish the person from other people. In the light of social sciences, the term 'identity' has been explained as the sense of belonging to a particular nation, group, subgroup, gender, etc. and from where one's self esteem is derived. In the process of identity construction language is considered to be the core and integral part (Czykwin and Misiejuk, 2002, p. 71). It is believed that bilingual speakers build their identity under the influence of two languages and their cultures. As Hamers and Blanc (1989, p. 121) point out, it is a reciprocal process in which bilinguality leaves an imprint on identity, which in turn has an impact on the bilingual development.

The question is whether such changes in bilingual identity are connected with the level of bilingual proficiency. For Beardsmore (1982) the advanced level of L2 marks the beginnings of L2 cultural competence. The quality of this language-related process of identity building must also depend on the type of learning context and in the case of naturalistic setting – on the target community. Pavlenko (2002) suggests that choices of belonging to a particular L2 group frequently do not depend on L2 learners themselves but on the particular target community and their attitudes toward bilinguals. After all, developing cultural competence does not necessarily mean facing completely new behaviour for a number of cultural norms are widely spread across communities. Pavlenko remarks that no amount of positive attitude and motivation on the part of an L2 acquirer can overcome racism, stereotyping and lack of social dialogue from the target group.

Acquiring FL culture in a FL context certainly differs in qualitative aspects and is more selective. Learners may choose, for example, the most appealing or compatible elements of FL culture. For instance, wishes: 'Have a nice weekend' have already been well integrated in the Polish politeness formulas although some people born in 1950s recall how weird they initially sounded. In the same vein, the Valentine's Day has become a Polish festival, too (acutely criticized by cultural purists). However,

Halloween, although attractive to young generation, has been found socially unacceptable and too interfering with the native solemnity of celebrations.

Finally, it must be emphasized that it is rather impossible to know the hierarchy of values, lifestyle, patterns of behaviour and thinking relying solely on language course books. They may additionally provide stereotypical content following the policy of presenting the country in the possibly best, but unfortunately, subjective light. Thus, a FL learner may be richer in knowledge about FL culture and even contribute to importing some FL elements into one's own culture but usually has no such opportunity to immerse in it. Nevertheless, cross-cultural awareness helps to draw a sharper picture of oneself.

2.2. Bilingual language modes

Languages in a bilingual mind may be activated to varying degrees. Language activated at the level of conceptualisation may be different from language activated at the level of formulating a message and still vary from the language activated during message production (Gabryś-Barker, 2005, p. 121). This 'state of activation of the bilingual's languages and language processing mechanisms, at a given point in time' (Grosjean, 2001, p. 2) has been defined as language mode. The mode may be monolingual when only one language is chosen for information processing or bilingual when the language user fluctuates between two languages, activating and deactivating them interchangeably. The choice of mode depends on the context and interlocutors' language competence. If participants of a speaking event share the same knowledge of languages, language mode activation may fluctuate between monolingual and bilingual. Grosjean illustrates the language mode continuum with the diagram in Figure 1.

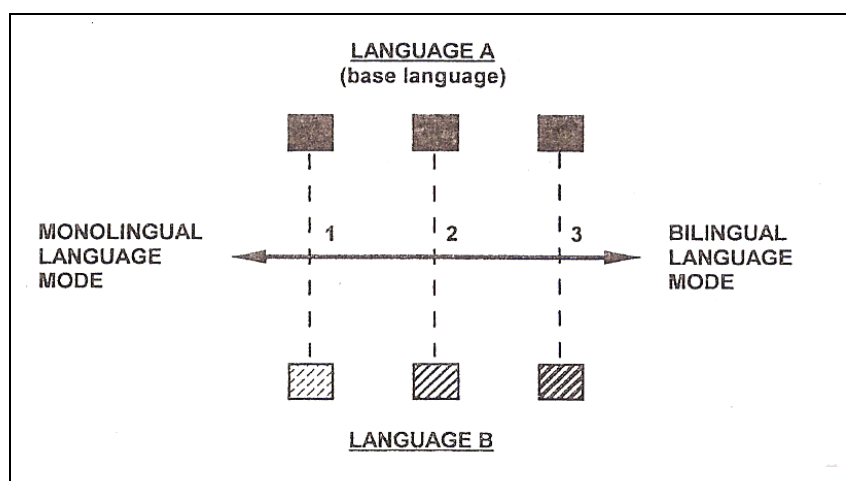


Figure 1. Language mode continuum.

Source: "The bilingual's language modes", F. Grosjean, 2001, p. 3. In: J. L. Nicol (ed.), One mind, two languages: bilingual language processing. Oxford: Blackwell.

In this diagram, the base language (language A) remains permanently in a state of activation which is indicated by black colour in the squares. At the levels of production and perception a bilingual may remain in the monolingual mode when the interlocutor is a monolingual user. In such a case language B becomes completely deactivated which is illustrated by the discontinuous lines. At this level of monolingual mode the language

which is not being processed is referred to as ‘inhibited’ (e.g. Green, 1998), ‘deactivated’ (e.g. Grosjean, 2001, p. 6) or ‘dormant’ (e.g. Gabryś-Barker, 2005, p. 122).

The monolingual processing situation prevents interferences and changing of the base language. In the intermediate mode, if the interlocutor has, for instance, a limited proficiency in language B, it is only partially activated. As concerns proficient bilingual communication, the two language modes are both activated, however, to slightly different extents, i.e. with greater activation of language A as the main processing language. Bilinguals are assumed to adopt the base language first and incorporate FL elements, i.e. the guest language elements, such as code-switching and borrowing whenever needed. The extent to which L1 behaviour is affected by the FL mode depends on variables such as the amount of received FL input and produced FL output, amount of alternating between languages, ease with which both languages are processed and the frequency with which the base L1 is changed for FL (Grosjean, 2001, p. 6). As observed by Gabryś-Barker (2005, p. 122), activation of the particular language mode may be either intentional or unintentional. Intentional activation takes place whenever the speaker perceives the language code as more emphatic or facilitative medium of conveying the particular piece of information. Unintentional activations are done automatically and may not be explained in terms of reasons for the language choice. Bilinguals may also consciously activate the bilingual mode for perception when they expect the message to contain elements of both languages.

The discussion of language modes is essential in understanding various cross-linguistic phenomena in L1 production. As claimed by Grosjean (2001, p. 14), a failure to recognize the language mode makes it hardly possible to draw a clear line between interferences, which occur in a monolingual mode and other forms of language mixing, which are typical of the bilingual mode. It is possible that in the bilingual mode the guest language never reaches the same levels of activation as the base language and that the dormant language in the monolingual mode is never fully deactivated. Thus, it is just another window on why patterns of L1 use change and why L1 may exhibit signs of decline.

2.3. The competence of a bilingual user

Internalization of implicit and explicit language rules into an organized system is generally referred to as competence. Chomskyan understanding of competence places emphasis on the tacit knowledge of structures, which is not conducive to conscious analysis. Such knowledge is unrestricted by memory limitations in the sense that the speaker-hearer is able to produce and comprehend an infinite number of innovative language constructions.

Competence is realized during performance, when a certain degree of deviation from the language norm is possible without affecting the quality of underlying competence. In the communicative orientation, Hymes (1972, cited in Herdina and Jessner 2002, p. 31) sees competence as not merely knowledge about language but also the ability to use this knowledge in discourse for negotiation of meaning. So perceived competence equips a language user with skills to initiate, sustain and terminate communication appropriately. Canale and Swain (1980) have added a sociolinguistic dimension in which competence consists of the knowledge of the socio-cultural norms

governing language use and strategic dimension which covers verbal and non-verbal communication strategies, such as self-repairs, paraphrases, hesitations, repetitions, guessing, etc. Some recent studies suggest changes in the mental functioning of bilinguals. At a certain level of proficiency, Kecskes and Papp (2003, p. 249) propose the operation of the Common Underlying Conceptual Base (CUCB), which is a sort of a mental 'box' comprising knowledge about languages and concomitant concepts, which are either language and culture neutral or language and culture specific. CUCB plays a role in confronting new information with the existing socio-cultural knowledge and contributes to formation of socio-cultural background knowledge (Kecskes and Papp, 2003). A bilingual user with the developed CUCB benefits twice in terms of information processing skills and educational attainment that may be nurtured through both language channels.

In the discussion on bilingual competence, the central focus is often placed on the relationship between the knowledge of language rules and performance errors. In the area of studies on bilingual competence a vital question is whether the established L1 knowledge is susceptible to permanent restructuring or only temporary forgetting. Measuring competence is quite demanding as on-line L1 processing does not simply translate into competence (Sharwood Smith and Van Buren, 1991). The processing difficulties are known to exert negative influence on language production while the underlying knowledge may actually stay intact. Language errors clearly imply disturbances at the level of language control and language access but they do not necessarily stand for the deterioration of L1 knowledge. Errors may also be the result of the, so called, 'imperfect learning' of the mother tongue, which may also be an outcome of regional language use. Performance, however, becomes input which is then the basis for competence formation (Sharwood Smith and Van Buren, 1991, p. 19). Competence and performance are thus interrelated and it would hardly be possible to measure language competence without investigating on-line processing. Sharwood Smith and van Buren (1991) suggest that language change, especially one that involves a certain measure of linguistic loss, occurs at both levels of competence and performance. The major reason for attrition of competence is seen in the lack of language input and language non-use. For instance, in the study of Russian L2 users of English carried out by Pavlenko (2003), the participants were in the circumstances of limited or none L1 input since late childhood and early adulthood. That had a negative effect on their L1 grammar (in particular tense, rules, prepositional choice and lexis) which was manifested in loan translation, semantic extension and retrieval difficulties. Thus, it seems sensible to state that competence vulnerability is triggered when language users are deprived of language input.

2.4. Multicompetence

To emphasize learner possession of multiple language competences, the term 'multicompetence' was introduced. Multicompetence has been defined as a unique state of mind in its own right (cf. Cook, 1992, 2003; Herdina and Jessner, 2002; Schmid, 2004) and according to Cook (1992) it begins 'when the user's grammar starts to differentiate between parameter settings for L1 and L2' (Cook, 1992, p. 581). Cook (2003, p. 2) states that since languages co-exist within the same mind, they must constitute 'a language super-system'. It is the system which manages the processing of

languages, i.e. switching between the codes, conceptual domains, different phonological systems, grammars, etc. In that sense multicompetence stands for a much different system from that of a monolingual.

Referring the notion of multicompetence to the FL context, it might be hypothesised that in circumstances of intense, high quality instruction, there may be three stages of linguistic development as presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Stages of multilingual development

Stage 1. Emerging bilingualism	L1 → FL
Stage 2. Semilingualism	L1 ↔ FL
Stage 3. Multicompetence	Unique system of L1 and FL

At the initial stage of emergence of the FL competence, a number of transfer phenomena occur from L1 into FL. This is caused by learner reliance on the mother tongue competence when acquiring new linguistic forms (Latkowska, 2006, p. 151) and whenever the FL competence is insufficient. At the intermediate stage, enhanced and still developing FL starts to encroach on L1 competence causing FL-driven transfers. Some of the hypotheses about FL are still based on L1 knowledge and thus L1 → FL transfers also occur. At the final stage, however, a different state of mind is reached. At this stage the L2 user's linguistic system becomes unique and is not a mere approximation of a monolingual system (Cook, 2003). The final stage is characterised by high levels of L1 and FL competence and metalinguistic awareness. The competing linguistic data have been systematized, which does not mean that they are identical with monolingual systems. In so defined multilingual development, deviances from L1 norm are a natural developmental stage of becoming multilingual.

3. Languages in contact

Language change resulting from language contacts will sometimes be classified as positive and at some other time as negative. Cook (2003, p. 12) has also pointed out that some outcomes are neutral, i.e. neither positive nor negative and encompass salient changes in the accent, pronunciation, style of conversation, etc. According to Cook, neutral outcomes of languages in contact have double nature: negative whenever they hinder successful task accomplishment and positive whenever they facilitate it. Since the products of language contact situations form a broad field for investigation, the focus will be placed on outcomes described as language attrition.

3.1. Defining L1 attrition

Gradual loss of accessibility of a language system is believed to be an outcome of language non-use over time and lack of exposure (Gabryś-Barker, 2003, p. 109), but also crosslinguistic interferences from other languages which are being developed (Sharwood Smith and Van Buren, 1991). As any other type of knowledge, the language knowledge competes for the memory space and, if not activated, is subject to the processes of erosion and inaccessibility. For instance, De Bot and Hulsen (2002) report:

Fifteen years of language attrition research in various countries all over the world have made it clear that the real picture is rather different: neither first languages nor second languages are immune to loss. With non-use they fade, and though they keep their place in our memory system, they become less accessible up to the point where the knowledge has sunk beyond reach and is for practical purposes lost. (De Bot and Hulsen, 2002, p. 253)

De Bot and Hulsen's definition of language attrition includes a contact linguistic perspective and is identified as language loss. But there have also been attempts to define attrition from the perspectives of sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. During the first decade of 1980s, language attrition was described as a loss of language or its elements, which was perceived as either an individual, political or social phenomenon (Lambert and Freed, 1982). According to Yağmur (2004) those different perspectives and their different methodologies have led to inconsistencies in the definition of language attrition itself and related terminology, such as language shift and language loss.

In literature on the subject, the two terms, i.e. language attrition and language loss, have frequently been used interchangeably. For De Bot and Hulsen (2002, p. 254) language loss is an umbrella term for two related concepts of intergenerational L1 loss referred to as language shift and intragenerational, i.e. individual, language loss defined as attrition. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 2. In a similar vein, Yağmur (2004) defines language shift as societal loss, which is the progressive loss of language skills by successive generations within a community in which the number of domains for L1 use dwindles. The first immigrant generation passes on the already attenuated, i.e. attrited, linguistic system to the second generation. The incomplete system which is acquired by the second generation undergoes further attrition and such a reduced language system is again transmitted to successive generations until it eventually dies. L1 is believed to be lost within three or four generations in a contact situation with the language of ethnic majority. Yağmur also defines attrition as individual loss over time in language contact situations.

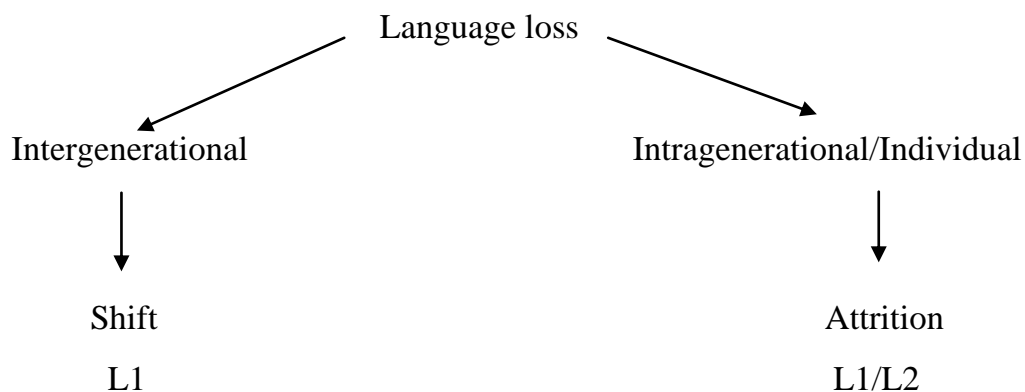


Figure 2. Typology of language loss.

Source: “Language attrition: tests, self-assessment and perceptions”, K. De Bot, M. Hulsen, 2002, p. 255. In: V. Cook (ed.), *Portraits of the L2 user*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Porte (2003, p. 103) adopts a definition of attrition which identifies four types of language attrition according to the context:

- L1 attrition in an L1 environment (originally related to pathological loss and extended to non-pathological processes, such as, e.g. dialect death),
- L1 attrition in an L2 environment (usually concerns migrant communities and losing their mother tongue competence under L2 influence, it also includes dialect loss),
- L2 attrition in an L1 context (refers to FL loss in particular but also to L2 loss caused by reasons such as re-emigration),
- L2 attrition in an L2 context (associated with memory decline related to age).

From the sociocultural perspective, language attrition may be an outcome of imperfect learning and extra-linguistic factors. Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000 cited in De Bot and Hulsen, 2002, p. 257) point out that languages are not lost in isolation but in contact situations and that L1 loss in an L2 environment often entails emergence of a new identity attenuated to the new context. In that new context, switching of the inner voice from L1 to L2 marks the change in the self-concept.

In the psycholinguistic view, language attrition refers to temporary unavailability of language items or difficulty in their retrieval rather than genuine language loss. Andersen (1982) claimed that individual language loss should be associated with L1 forgetting along the progressive decline in its use exhibited by a range of paralinguistic features, such as frequent hesitations, false starts, self-repairs, pauses, etc.

Herdina and Jessner (2002, p. 91) relate the process of attrition to the amount of effort and time spent on 'refreshing the knowledge of an L2 or L3'. Similarly, Yağmur (2004, p. 136) defines individual language attrition as 'the gradual loss of competence in a given language' due to lack of language use over time. Re-establishing the ties with the forgotten language may lead to its rapid regain. This, as claimed by Harley (1994, p. 691, cited in Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 98), should be regarded as ultimate evidence that languages attrite in the sense that they are not completely removed from the memory but lost 'retrievably'. Gabryś-Barker (2003) supports this stance describing language attrition as a temporary language loss, being the result of de-stabilisation, de-learning and backsliding. While language loss denotes an irreversible, i.e. permanent process of losing language items (Gabryś-Barker, 2003), language attrition refers to the decreased language skills as a result of overusing some areas of the language system (Wysocka, 1999). Table 3 presents various definitions of language attrition.

Table 3. Definitions of language attrition

Lambert, R.D. & Freed, B.F. (1982, p. 1)	<i>Language Attrition may refer to the loss of any language or any portion of a language by an individual or speech community. It may refer to the declining use of mother tongue skills by those in bilingual situations or among ethnic minorities in (some) language contact situations where one language, for political or social reasons, comes to replace another.</i>
Scharwood Smith, M. (1994, p. 195)	<i>Another name for language loss, i.e. when learner's competence or control in a given L1 or L2 undergoes change which may be seen principally as a reduction of knowledge and/or skill and not just as one process in developing towards the language norms; divergence from the norms of the language when the learner no longer uses the language either receptively or productively (often while acquiring a new language).</i>
Latkowska, J. (1998)	<i>The dismantling and reordering of the primary language in a contact situation with another language.</i>
Seliger, H. (1999, p. 605)	<i>The loss of aspects of previously fully acquired primary language resulting from the acquisition of another language.</i>
Wysocka, M. (1999, p. 425)	<i>Diminished linguistic skills as a result of overuse of certain elements of the language system.</i>
Jessner, U. (2003, p. 237)	<i>Incomplete or insufficient language proficiency (...), seen as a gradual process of decay is to be observed in all forms of language learning.</i>
Gross, S. (2004, p. 284)	<i>L1 attrition is the restructuring of the L1 linguistic system according to L2 patterns under the psycholinguistic pressures of bilingualism. However, L1 attrition may also be internally induced in the sense that some changes are motivated by universal strategies based on markedness, for example. L1 attrition is distinguished from language shift in that attrition is intragenerational, whereas language shift is intergenerational.</i>
Paradis, M. (2004, p. 28)	<i>Attrition is the result of long-term lack of stimulation. Intensive use/exposure to one of the languages in a bilingual environment leads to a lower activation threshold for that language (i.e., it requires fewer resources), even in early, fluent, behaviourally balanced bilinguals.</i>
Pavlenko, A. (2004, p. 27)	<i>Loss of some L1 elements, seen in inability to produce, perceive, or recognize particular rules, lexical items, concepts, or categorical distinctions due to L2 influence.</i>
Schmid, M.S. & Köpke, B. (2009, p. 210)	<i>A change in the native language system of the bilingual who is acquiring and using a second language (L2). This change may lead to a variety of phenomena within the L1 system, among which are interferences from the L2 on all levels (phonetics, lexicon morphosyntax, pragmatics), a simplification or impoverishment of the L1, or insecurity on the part of speaker manifested by frequent hesitations, self-repair or hedging strategies.</i>
Bardovi-Harlig, K. & Stringer, D. (2010, p. 2)	<i>Language attrition may refer to loss of language as a result of contact with majority languages, loss of language by communities, or loss of language by individuals in both pathological and nonpathological settings.</i>

The definition accepted for the purposes of this book distinguishes between language loss as a permanent state and attrition as a temporary state (as proposed by Wysocka, 1999 and Gabryś-Barker, 2003). Attrition is approached as a psycholinguistic phenomenon and a deviant product of languages in contact in the L1 setting. Language deviation, transfer, overuse and other linguistic disorders which stand in opposition to the L1 norm are regarded as symptomatic of L1 attrition.

3.2. The theoretical framework of language attrition

Investigating L1 attrition may not take place without the overview of the most influential hypotheses and theories accounting for it.

One of the most influential hypotheses is ‘Fossilization hypothesis’, according to which, before the L1 regression processes commence the language system ‘freezes’, i.e. stops progressing. Selinker (1972) used the term fossilization to refer to the final stage of L2 attainment which was characterized as non-progression of structures ‘despite continuous exposure to input’ (Selinker, 1992, p. 257) and ‘language incompleteness’ (Schachter, 1990, p. 99). Fossilization has been considered a result of repeated input and limited language exposure (Sharwood Smith, 1994). The circumstances in which an L1 may fossilize, i.e. may fall into the state of permanent non-progression, involve the lack of exposure to the model L1 and foreign language influences which interfere with the standard L1 (Wysocka, 2009).

Another hypothesis, ‘The Regression Hypothesis’, was originally proposed to account for pathological language loss in aphasic patients and, according to De Bot and Weltens (1991), dates back to Ribot (1883) who concluded that the order of multi-language acquisition was mirrored in aphasic language loss. The hypothesis was then developed with reference to aphasic attrition of phonology by Jakobson (1941). Finally, since it became evident that the hypothesis was not valid for aphasic language disorders because they rather depended on external forces connected with the kind of brain injury, the idea was transferred to the field of non-pathological language loss. However, its validity in the research on L1 attrition has also been challenged. First of all, according to Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer (2010), the sequence of innate linguistic acquisition may be irregular once the abstract language principles are internalized. Secondly, the studies on regression hypothesis did not confirm it empirically, i.e. stages of attrition did not correspond to any known stages of acquisition (Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer, 2010).

An alternative for explaining language attrition in terms of regression has been found in Eckman’s (1977) ‘Markedness Differential Hypothesis’. The theory distinguishes between unmarked language items, i.e. items with a wider range of distribution and core rules, and marked ones, i.e. such items which are more complex and exceptional (Sharwood Smith, 1994). The preference of unmarked items over the marked ones is regarded as a likely symptom of attrition. This likelihood has been represented by the equation:

L2 (unmarked) and L1 (marked) → L1 (unmarked) (Seliger and Vago, 1991, p.13)

When a bilingual user chooses to replace a marked L1 feature with an unmarked L2 feature, it may be described as an act of L1 attrition. For example, for Seliger and Vago (1991), replacing marked dative alterations in L1 with unmarked prepositional

phrases characteristic for L2 may be symptomatic of attrition. From this perspective, attrition is language simplification in the course of which marked L1 patterns are eliminated in favour of unmarked L2 structures.

In a neuro-linguistic view, a neuron must reach a certain activation level, referred to as 'activation threshold' (Paradis, 2004), to produce a response. In circumstances of high activation threshold, i.e. when many impulses are required, the language item remains inactive. However, when the activation threshold is low, the language item may be easily activated because a small number of impulses are required for its activation (Paradis, 2004). It is assumed that in bilingual production, activating one of the languages results in automatic rise of the activation threshold for other languages so as to avoid interference. The 'Activation Threshold Hypothesis', according to Paradis, is based on the premise that activation of linguistic representations depends on the frequency and recency of their use. That is why some expressions are more available than other in a given language.

Another hypothesis - the 'Dormant Language Hypothesis' - accounts for L1 attrition in terms of language inactivation rather than its complete loss (Crystal, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer, 2010). Crystal (1997) explains that usually only one language is dominant whereas other languages remain dormant to varying degrees. The unused language becomes dormant when it is difficult or impossible to recall automatically. The dormant language can, however, be re-activated through re-learning (Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer, 2010).

Finally, language attrition has been accounted for in the framework of the 'Dynamic Model of Multilingualism' (DMM) developed by Herdina and Jessner (2002). In their model, the user's languages are viewed holistically with features of one language affecting the whole system. In DMM, multilingualism is 'the command and/or use of two or more languages by the respective speaker' (p. 52) which is further described as '2+n languages'. Multilingualism is seen as interconnected learner and bilingual systems with ongoing changes in individual multilingual proficiency (Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 53). The global system is like a living organism and is characterized by 'entropy' (Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 81), i.e. randomness, mixing and disorder which are naturally occurring symptoms in the course of the system's organisation. As such, the multilingual proficiency may not be compared to the monolingual norm. Within DMM, maintaining and managing more than one language is a challenge because of multidimensional interference effects. What is more, the system tends to adapt to and provide for the constantly changing environment and changing communicative requirements. In this sense, the multilingual system is dynamic. Non-linearity, reversibility, complexity and change of quality all manifest the system's dynamics. In DMM, the growth of the system is similar to the sine curve, where the beginnings of the system's growth are slow, then the system's growth accelerates and finally remains at a stable level, i.e. reaches the state of equilibrium (Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 100). Stable multilingualism is seen as 'ambilingual balanced bilingualism' (Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 118). Language loss is seen as an adaptive process in which the system is adapted to a situation of insufficient language maintenance. In other words, the system starts to erode if insufficient maintenance effort is invested in maintaining its stability. Jessner (2003) presents language attrition as a

necessary stage in multilingual development, which occurs naturally in L2 development as a result of interdependent language systems. Attrition of one language does not occur in isolation but is closely related with acquisition and use of another language and is a natural product of multilingual development. Time and maintenance play key roles in shaping the quality of language recall. The more learning and recall are stretched in time, the greater the difficulty during retrieval. Herdina and Jessner (2002, p. 96) emphasize that attrition is rarely spectacular and hardly observable in early stages.

More recently, Schmid and Keijzer (2009) carried out a study on the phenomenon of L1 reversion among the eldest (over 75 year-old) migrant speakers. Their findings suggest that attrition mechanisms alleviate among the eldest group of migrants (possibly due to regained contacts with L1 during retirement and returning to memories from earlier decades of life in L1 context). Schmid and Keijzer's study seems to confirm that L1 reversion processes indeed operate among the eldest multilingual speakers.

To sum up, all of the so far presented hypotheses add to the global understanding of L1 attrition as a complex process of language change. During this process, L1 deterioration is generally seen as the result of strong L2/FL position. Language attrition emerges as the product of constant 'fight' between language systems for the amount of activation and distribution. In the course of the mutual linguistic interferences a bilingual user tends to economize the operation of language systems through their simplification and reliance on unmarked language features. This evolves into a unique multilingual system in which patterns of use for each of the languages vary from those of a monolingual. This unique system as a whole is subject to further evolution.

3.3. Transfer-related symptoms of L1 attrition

One of the symptoms of L1 attrition are transfer phenomena. Language transfer is an intriguing psycholinguistic and socioaffective notion involving mutual interactions between the acquired languages. It is bipolar with positive and negative consequences and bi-directional, i.e. interaction may be caused by L1 in L2 (L1→L2) or L2 in L1 (L2→L1). Transfer used to be considered a major factor responsible for hampering the progress in the second language acquisition and it has been defined as an inappropriate use of elements of one language as a result of implementing the rules and structures governing other language(s) (e.g. Hamers and Blanc, 1989, p. 22; Kecskes and Papp, 2003, p. 251). Sharwood Smith (1983) argued that transfer is a 'fundamental process in [language] loss' (p. 229). It is now a common belief that L1→L2 transfer is dominant in the first phase of the L2/FL development when the level of L2/FL proficiency is relatively low and learners rely on their knowledge of L1. The other type of transfer L2→L1, also referred to as 'backward' or 'reverse' transfer (Cook, 2003, p. 1), is characteristic of consecutive, i.e. more advanced phases of FL/L2 acquisition, when learners have established a 'Common Underlying Conceptual Base' (CUBC) responsible for the operation of conceptual level in more than one language (Kecskes and Papp, 2003).

Transfer, according to Kecskes and Papp, 2003, may be:

- linguistic (phonetic, lexical or structural implementation of L1 knowledge to FL/L2),

and

- conceptual (pragmatic transfer of knowledge or skill acquired through the means of one language system to another linguistic system developed by the learner).

The general distinction is made between positive transfer stemming from the similarities in the areas of semantics, syntax, phonology, writing system, etc. and negative transfer, i.e. interference. The former facilitate operation of language systems, whereas the latter outcomes form a long list of linguistic deviances, which include:

- underproduction, i.e. a tendency to employ high frequency structures, avoiding patterns which pose difficulty (cf. Odlin, 1989),

- overproduction, i.e. an excessive use of words as a consequence of taking a descriptive approach to deal with avoidance of more direct (and perhaps more unique) items (cf. Odlin, 1989),

- misinterpretation, i.e. failure to recognize words, sounds and structures and their misunderstanding; misinterpretations may be both linguistic and cultural,

- calques, i.e. structural loans, literal translation of syntactic structures,

- stylistic deviation, i.e. an outcome of mediation of stylistic norms between languages - cross-linguistic influence contributes to forming stylistically inappropriate patterns and structures which are linguistically acceptable but stylistically awkward (Sharwood Smith, 1983, p. 226),

- monostylism is a symptom of the stylistic recession (Dressler, 1991, p. 101). The term refers to the reduction of the stylistic repertoire and reliance primarily on the casual style even for formal domains. The language user's style of speaking seems 'narrow' and inadequate for certain speech contexts,

- lexical borrowing, i.e. a lexical loan from another language, which is adjusted in terms of morphology and pronunciation. Borrowing is an effective strategy of language enrichment, especially when the native language system lacks certain terminology. Hutz (2004, p. 195) calls them 'necessary loanwords' meaning that their use is justified by non-existence of the same (e.g. culturally related) concepts in other languages. However, excessive use of FL/L2 transfer affects the style and may be a sign of L1 lexical inaccessibility. Pavlenko (2004, p. 50) claims that the use of borrowings may be regarded as a sign of attrition when they continue to be chosen despite the existence of their native equivalents,

- strategic borrowing is the use of an FL/L2 lexical item to fill the vocabulary gap, also referred to as 'lexical communication strategy' (Odlin, 1989, p. 146),

- quotations are lexical borrowings which are not morphologically assimilated but have retained the original form, e.g. 'pop-art', 'fair play', 'leasing'. Zimnowoda

(1998, p. 16) has labelled them quotations in contrast to ‘intrusions’, i.e. foreign substitutes of the mother tongue equivalents which stand out,

- code switching, also known as ‘substitution’ (Odlin, 1989, p. 37), means mixing elements of different languages and may be considered a type of transfer. Code mixing may occur at the levels of lexis, syntax and semantics. Some of the borrowed lexical items are adapted grammatically to the language of the speaker and are known as ‘loan blending’ (Hamers and Blanc, 1989, pp. 35-36). The fact that code switching is a term frequently mentioned in the literature on second and foreign language development and bilingualism (e.g. Ellis, 1985; Odlin, 1989; Herdina and Jessner, 2002; King, 2006) points to the role code mixing plays in the bilingual development. Code mixing is often a result of inaccessibility of particular items in one language under the influence of another language system. Finally, code switching may be simply a strategy in bilingual interaction which fulfils communicative needs (Hamers and Blanc, 1989, p. 35). Users of the same languages apply this strategy in interaction for different purposes, such as to talk about issues to which they have access through more than one language,

- approximation is a lexical item or syntactic structure which approximates the target form in terms of semantics and/or phonetics,

- semantic extension refers to acquiring a new aspect of meaning by the lexical item, also described by Hutz (2004, pp. 198-199) as a ‘semantic transfer’. Hutz states that radical increase of semantic transfers serves as evidence of the speaker’s gradual conversion to the target language (TL) conceptual system. That, according to Hutz, is not surprising because the word semantics is in general susceptible to change,

- semantic narrowing is the process of restricting the broader meaning of a lexical item to the more specific one. The two processes of extension and narrowing may occur in language production as individual variation or as a more systematic tendency in the word longevity. It may occur that a single lexical item undergoes the process of semantic narrowing and then semantic extension (and vice versa). Pavlenko (2004, p. 51) claims that at the level of individual language use semantic extensions (as in the case of the Cuban verb ‘correr’ used metaphorically for running the office), and semantic narrowings (such as reduction of a more permanent concept of the Russian word ‘neschastlivaia’ to a temporary feeling identical with the English concept of ‘unhappy’) are indicative of language attrition.

Sporadic occurrence of one of the described symptoms should not be too abruptly identified as language attrition. However, their re-occurrence in language production might be the onset of linguistic or conceptual change.

3.4. Language maintenance

It has been mentioned that language practice plays an important part as a preventive measure against attrition. It is now necessary to put into focus effort invested in language maintenance. As previously mentioned, socio-affective attitudes, such as perception of L1 prestige and self-esteem, may either promote or hinder investment of cognitive effort in L1 sustenance, especially when it has to be split between two (or more) languages. Rarely is this split even and as a consequence the patterns of language domination are not the same.

The type and amount of input are of equal importance. Sharwood Smith and Van Buren (1991) speculate that language is maintained through the availability of the ‘positive evidence’, i.e. language data containing possible structures. Thus, L1 change may not only be due to the lack of exposure to L1 or its non-use but also to the lack of confirming linguistic evidence of what constitutes the L1 system.

The role of language maintenance in preventing L1 attrition has also been mentioned by Herdina and Jessner (2002, p. 98) who claim that the language system’s stability is dependent on a number of factors, such as language knowledge, proficiency, age of acquisition and effort invested in its stabilization. The maintenance effort may be of two types. First, it may be nurtured through the social context in which the language is the means of meaning negotiation. Secondly, it may be intra-individual and take the form of inwardly driven verification of own hypotheses about the language, e.g. consulting dictionaries.

Finally, Jessner (2003) highlights that cognitive strain is required by the brain to constantly participate in ‘matching and differentiation of two or more language systems’ (p. 241) whereas the simplification measures in the form of transfer may manifest reduced cognitive effort which leads to L1 deterioration (Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 103).

4. Overview of studies on attrition

In various studies on L1 attrition, a number of data collection methods have been devised and applied. Table 4 presents examples of attrition studies, their focus and obtained results. The table lists studies on L1 attrition according to the type of language activity in which participants were involved and also according to the findings.

Table 4. Overview of studies on attrition at the levels of production, processing and perception

LEVEL	RESEARCH FOCUS	LANGUAGE CONTEXT	OBTAINED RESULTS	RESEARCHER
PRODUCTION	A young child’s use of pronouns.	L2	Syntactic loss.	Ammerlaan et.al. (2001)
	Lexical diversity in written expression.	L2	Decreased degree of text sophistication.	Laufer (2003)
	Discourse Completion Task (DCT)	L2	Differences in the use of preparatory strategies and syntactic and lexical downgraders.	Cenoz (2003)
	Speaking tasks	L2	Lexical confusions, reductions, interferences, repetitions, neologisms, code-switching, syntactic simplifications, omissions and reductions.	Ben-Rafael (2004)

	Longitudinal case study on written performance	L2	Increase in the frequency of the strategic loan words and semantic overextensions.	Hutz (2004)
PROCESSING	Language tasks management by bilingual students.	L1	L1 attrition in competence and performance.	Latkowska (1998)
	Video retelling task.	L2	Hesitations, code-switching, loan translation, shifting from L1 to L2 conceptual domains.	Pavlenko (2003)
	Static group comparison.	L2	Decrease in language processing skills rather than loss of relative clause structures.	Yağmur (2004)
PERCEPTION	Syntactic judgment task	L2	Firm knowledge about what is grammatical; insecurity about what is ungrammatical.	Altenberg (1991)
	A case study in the field of word order judgment.	L2	Acceptance of the majority of wrong word order as correct.	Seliger (1991)
	Appropriateness' judgment tasks.	L2	A significant difference between the two groups was found with the immigrant group failing to recognize ca. 40% of wrong collocations.	Laufer (2003)

The areas of investigation in those studies involved syntax, diversity of linguistic means and on-line language processing. They were divided into three categories of studies on attrition: language production, processing and perception. A number of studies applied a set of tools measuring different language areas and for this reason the presented categories may overlap.

In terms of the findings at the level of production, Ammerlaan et.al. (2001) reported syntactic loss in the use of pronouns in a young child. Laufer's study (2003) on three groups of Russian immigrants in Israel discovered the decline in the degree of text sophistication which was proportional to the length of stay in the L2 environment. The conclusion drawn from that study was that progress of language attrition was slow but steady. Cenoz (2003) investigated 49 Spanish participants with high English language skills in performing request situations. The situations were then investigated in terms of alerters, request strategies, syntactic, lexical and phrasal downgraders and mitigating supportives. Apart from the differences in the use of preparatory strategies and syntactic and lexical downgraders, no significant differences were found between the requests provided by the experimental group and the Spanish control participants. Another researcher, Ben-Rafael (2004), studied 65 Francophones living in Israel and 18 non-

Hebrew-speaking Francophones living in France. The major focus was on speaking tasks, such as Francophone narratives, recorded discussions, semi-structured interviews and spontaneous conversations. During the study a number of processing difficulties were observed. Those difficulties consisted of lexical confusions, reductions, interferences, repetitions, neologisms, code-switching, syntactic simplifications, omissions and reductions. However, they were perceived as only partially outcome of language attrition and partially of language processing. Finally, Hutz (2004) carried out a longitudinal case study on a German emigrant to the USA, who was regularly visiting Germany. The gathered language corpus consisted of 75 letters written in German. It was observed that the semantic field was very susceptible to attrition, i.e. the number of semantic overextensions increased dramatically during the first three decades after emigration and remained on a high level. Morphosyntactic domain remained rather unaffected in comparison to semantic and syntactic realms. The frequency of the strategic loan words, with an exception of a period of intensified L1 contact, was on the increase. A considerable amount of attrition was assumed to occur during the first 10-15 years after emigration.

There were a number of studies on L1 attrition which returned results signalling processing difficulties and cross-linguistic interaction. In her study, Latkowska (1998) engaged students in five language tasks, i.e. FL → L1 translation of 26 phrases containing idiomatic expressions, synonymy recollection test, test on inflections, untimed translation task and acceptability judgment of the literal translations produced by the students in test 1. On the basis of poor results, Latkowska concluded that L2 exerts influence on L1 at the level of performance and competence both of which are susceptible to cross-linguistic influences. No such results, however, were obtained in the area of morphology. Pavlenko (2003) collected ca. 150 word-long narratives elicited from bilingual participants on video films. She found hesitations, instances of code-switching, loan translation and shifting from L1 to L2 conceptual domains. Yağmur (2004) compared a group of 40 Turkish immigrants in Australia and a group of 40 Turkish informants in Turkey. The comparison was conducted by the means of linguistic test, verbal fluency and narration tasks, self-rating scale and questionnaires including lexical items and analytic versus synthetic structures in Turkish. Decrease in language processing skills rather than linguistic loss was reported.

Another group of studies dealt with language perception by bilinguals. For instance, Altenberg (1991) studied L1 syntactic rules under the L2 influence in the case of two German native speakers in the USA. The participants had firm knowledge about what was grammatical, however, they felt insecure about what was ungrammatical. Seliger (1991) researched the influence of Hebrew on the previously acquired English in a bilingual female child at the age of 9 until 10.5. He found that the child accepted the majority of wrong word order as correct. The conclusion drawn was that the unlearning process was triggered by substituting English word order rules with the Hebrew rules. Laufer (2003) engaged the participants of her study in appropriateness' judgment tasks. The collocational knowledge of a group of 30 Russian immigrants in Israel was under investigation. In the study, the immigrant group failed to recognize ca. 40% of wrong L1 collocations and the L1 of the Russian immigrants exhibited L2 features, e.g. Hebrew, words.

The discussed studies were in great majority only parts of more extensive research frameworks (which are not discussed here). Many researchers (e.g. Yağmur, 2004) criticize relying only on one type of tool (such as a case study, self-reported data or survey) as insufficient measures to testify to language attrition. In his opinion, a single measurement, especially the one based on opinion, self-evaluation, is highly subjective and may not be considered a valid and reliable measurement. In the same vein, translation tasks are also considered to be an ineffective attrition indicator for they require specific language abilities. Translation and interpretation skills should not be taken for granted even with regard to proficient bilingual speakers. What is more, there exist some clinical data that aphasic bilinguals may be capable of translating from one language into the other despite losing certain aspects of their competence in both languages (Hamers and Blanc, 1989, p. 19).

5. Summary

From the psycholinguistic perspective, language is undergoing a systematic loss of its elements unless sufficient attention is paid to it. Insufficient effort investment leads to linguistic attrition in the course of which language competence is restructured to fulfil the users' subjectively perceived needs. The stability of the language system is determined by the age of acquisition, quality of its maintenance and the number of other languages learnt, which in the light of DMM are viewed as interdependent systems (thus contradicting former understanding of multilingual competence as built of autonomous language systems). Attrition is a subtle process of loss of some portion of the language system. Its slow progress, however, may not rule out its presence. The research methodology, apart from being carefully planned, should include a combination of data gathering tools to bring the most comprehensive picture of the attrition processes.

Chapter III

Written performance in bilingual context

1. Introduction

It has been stated that attrition is a subtle process of change of the language system. The initial stage of language erosion is expressed through lower performance and increased scatter of performance which may be researched with explicit performance measures (Herdina and Jessner, 2002, p. 96). As Sharwood Smith and Van Buren (1991) remark, it is impossible to probe competence without investigating performance:

One might, for example, propose as a working hypothesis that, in normal situations, that is, where there has been no physical damage to the brain, it is impossible to lose L1 competence. This would mean that all attrition amongst normals can be accounted for as a loss of (fluent) access. This, however, would seem to be an undesirable starting point since one can never probe competence without involving performance mechanisms, however light the processing load involved in the given experimental task. (Sharwood Smith and Van Buren, 1991, p. 19)

The research described further in this work is based on the written production by Polish native-speakers. This chapter precedes it with the discussion on syntax, language norm and cross-linguistic phenomena. The presented typology of language errors does not take into account informal language use. Such an approach is dictated by the fact that writing, especially formal, is highly prescriptive. As Hutz (2004) explains, ‘in writing there is obviously much more focus on form and accuracy and therefore a higher degree of monitoring compared to the spoken channel’ (p. 194). Thus the chapter deals with the prescriptive language norm and formulates the definition of language deviance with reference to L1 dictionaries.

It is an overall impression that the fast-changing reality of today leaves increasingly less room for the cultivation of the traditional mother-tongue norm in both speaking and writing. Current social and cultural changes find their reflection in the type of language used. Bartmiński (2001, p. 16) notices that in the era of mass migration the relationship between language and nation has loosened and there are people with perfect command of native Polish, yet declaring themselves unrelated to their L1 cultural heritage. Bajerowa (2001, p. 45) reminds that the English-American culture is very attractive for the young generation and knowledge of English as the *lingua-franca* is indispensable to achieve one’s full potential and develop professionally. Social appraisal of English as FL – the hallmark of western affluence and prosperity - has led to the absorption of a number of English terms, imported verbatim or adapted according to the rules of Polish phonetics, morphology and spelling.

The growing number of FL imports in Polish is claimed to be a natural route of language development. Mańczak-Wohlfeld (2006, p. 14-15) sees FL influence as a natural, historically grounded phenomenon and emphasizes that languages, such as Greek, Latin, Spanish and French are known to have played the role of the *lingua*

franca in the past and influenced languages in a similar way. She admits, however, that although the acquaintance with the English language is still largely restricted to certain social groups, those groups hold the responsibility for incorporation of FL elements into Polish (Mańczak-Wohlfeld, 2006, p. 60).

2. A summary text as a genre

A summary text is a specific piece of writing which has (broadly speaking) two distinctive features. First of all, its length is reduced to the necessary minimum in terms of the size. Secondly, although reduced in size, its content includes the most essential points presented in the main text. In this sense summary texts form a distinctive literary type, i.e. genre. For instance, Harrison (2002) in his *Proficiency Testbuilder* coursebook enumerates the following features of a summary text in the form of tips:

- You must only include points which are totally relevant to the topic of the summary (...).
- This is not a composition, so keep the language that you use relatively simple. If you write long, elaborate sentences, you will not be able to cover all the main points in the required number of words (...).
- Don't copy whole sentences from the text – you are supposed to cover the relevant points in your own words as far as possible; although of course it may be impossible not to use some words and phrases from the texts.
- Make sure (...) that the points are linked in such a way that the summary flows well and makes sense as a whole. (Harrison, 2002, p. 35)

The skill of summarizing is essential in a range of contexts, including reporting, reviewing, writing essays, making notes, etc. and it is therefore a crucial skill in education (e.g. Yang and Shi, 2003; Keck, 2006; Hood, 2008) which helps to transform students from 'consumers of research-based knowledge to creators of research-based knowledge' (Hood, 2008, p. 351). It is currently considered to be an essential part of advanced ESL/EFL courses and course books (e.g. *New Proficiency Passkey* by Macmillan, *New Proficiency Gold Coursebook* by Longman, etc.). Summary writing is a process which takes place under certain psychological conditions, such as time pressure, attitude toward the text, and its purpose, i.e. whether it is reader-based or writer-based. There are also cognitive operations involved concerned with controlling the content, style and complexity. In addition to that, summary writing is a skill developed along language development. Students with low levels of language proficiency have difficulty writing in their own words and resort to copying directly from the source (Yang and Shi, 2003) what is accepted as a proof of linguistic underdevelopment. The exception constitutes a lexical summary which according to Kecskes and Papp (2003) may not be identified with conceptual underdevelopment because of its type. Conceptual summary is attainable only after Common Underlying Conceptual Base has been well established (Kecskes and Papp, 2003, p. 261).

2.1. Summary text characteristics

With regard to form, a summary text involves reducing the content to a limited number of words and sentence units. As Langan (2000, p. 349) claims, a summary may

be contained in one word, a single sentence or a few sentences, or it may be extended to one or a few paragraphs. It is not obligatory for the summary to be organized according to the chronological order of the original text, although chronology may be essential when the order of presented arguments is vital for the logic of the whole text (Marzec-Stawiarska 2006, p. 25).

At the level of content, summary is characterized by several linguistic elements, such as:

- key words, i.e. words carrying the most vital meaning without which a summary would not preserve its original sense,
- content word, i.e. synonymous expressions which preserve the same sense and whose use is characteristic for conceptual summaries (as against lexical summaries in which lexical items are taken from the main text),
- fill-in words, i.e. functional words and common lexical words (such as think, guess, reason, etc.) with the aid of which the text coherence is preserved (cf. Kecskes and Papp, 2003),
- key sentences, i.e. ready units which may be copied and pasted into a summary (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2006),
- paraphrase, i.e. sentences carrying the same meanings although in a structurally altered form, which helps to avoid copying from source texts (Keck, 2006, p. 261),
- linking expressions, i.e. linguistic units joining the text in a coherent and cohesive manner (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2006).

A summary should possibly be written in impersonal style to avoid the impression of adding extra author commentaries. In the case of English and Polish summaries, author commentaries are regarded as superfluous and unacceptable (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2006). Apart from objectiveness, a summary text should be characterized by two key supra-lexical features: brevity and selectivity. As may be assumed, writing a summary is a demanding task of sourcing and synthesizing information to an abridged form (Hood, 2008).

2.2. Stages in summary writing

Summary writing is a process consisting of several stages. The stages differ slightly depending on the type of the text, for instance, whether it is an article, a textbook or a piece of literature. However, bearing in mind the corpus of summary texts used in this research, the main attention will be paid to the process of summarizing a longer piece of writing in a book format. Langan (2000) distinguishes five major steps when writing a summary of a longer text:

Stage 1. Previewing

At this stage, the attention is essentially paid to five items:

- 1) Title. The title suggests what the content of a book is about.
- 2) Table of contents. The contents provide information about how the book is organized and how the ideas are arranged into chapters. The length of chapters may be easily noticed and the longest sections may be assumed to be the most

relevant to the topic.

- 3) Preface/introduction. Introductions usually contain the author's reasoning behind the area of interest of the book and information about how different chapters have been organised and what their content is.
- 4) First and last chapters. These two chapters may provide an outline of the most important issues discussed in the book.
- 5) Other items. Other features, such as charts, pictures, indices, appendices and font style may be used to indicate the key items.

Stage 2. Reading for general understanding

The aim of the first reading is to verify the items noticed during the preview stage against the text, looking for the details supporting the key ideas and finding answers to questions.

Stage 3. Re-reading

Re-reading allows for turning back to the main sections, analyzing them more thoroughly and looking for other key points which might have been missed during the previous stage.

Stage 4. Taking notes

After reading and analyzing the text, the key issues and supporting arguments should be noted down.

Stage 5. Writing a summary

The last stage entails writing the final draft bearing in mind the most vital principles according to which a summary should:

- inform about the title and the author of the work,
- outline the main concepts of the original text,
- avoid quoting the original and make use of paraphrasing,
- maintain balance between the concepts emphasized in the original work and the ideas highlighted in the summary.

The procedure of summary writing has been purposefully described at this point to emphasize that it is a form-focused process. This task seems to leave much less room for language processing difficulties because it is not on-line but is subject to editing, revising and re-writing. Passing through all the guidelines and proof-reading the text should contribute to eliminating language errors.

3. Structural linguistic elements

The text structure consists of individual phrases and of formal links between them. These links are established through the cohesive devices, such as pronouns, repetition, ellipsis, coordination and subordination (Wright and Hope, 1996, p. 164). The structure of the text also goes beyond its physical realization. Non-linguistic aspects, such as the logic of the text, principle of cause and effect, predictability of form and consistence of tense contribute to text coherence.

Kecskes and Papp (2003) suggest that the management of concepts should take place through the means of coordination, subordination and conjunctions. According to them, the structural research of written production should contain such comparative measurements, as:

- 'sentence complexity ratio', i.e. the number of sentences against the number of subordinate clauses, and
- 'conjunction index', i.e. the number of types of conjunctions against the overall number of conjunctions (Kecskes and Papp, 2003, p. 255).

The textual quality rests upon well-selected vocabulary, too. To measure the lexical quality, Kecskes and Papp (2003) propose:

- 'variation ratio', i.e. the number of lexical word types – i.e. content words represented in the text - against the total number of words,
- 'sophistication ratio', i.e. the number of sophisticated word types against the number of lexical word types,
- 'synonymy ratio', i.e. the number of synonyms against the number of lexical word types.

A wide variety of structures and vocabulary are a sign of high productive skills. According to Kecskes and Papp (2003, p. 7), L1 productive skills may be activated through the FL system development. In other words, FL may create a channel for enhancement of L1 skills. Such enhancement must entail a degree of awareness of the structural and lexical differences between languages.

Some of the structural differences between English and Polish seem quite conspicuous. English is an example of a configurational language as it has a fixed word order regulated by a set of grammatical rules. On the other hand, Polish belongs to non-configurational languages, which means that it expresses meaning through its complex morphology rather than grammatical rules governing the word order. Thus, the English sentence:

Jack cleans the kitchen,

may not receive any other word order than the one above. Whereas, the same sentence in Polish may be built without the operation of such strict word order rules. It is possible to say:

Jacek sprząta kuchnię.

and

Kuchnię sprząta Jacek.

In the English sentence, reversing the sentence order in the same way, i.e.: *The kitchen cleans Jack*, produces a humorous and incorrect sense of the inanimate room performing the activity of cleaning on the person of Jack.

This randomness of the Polish word order is dictated by suffixes, which clearly mark the relationships between the words within a sentence. As may be concluded, word order and inflectional features belong to the most prominent characteristics differentiating between the languages in question. Yet, the word order of Polish sentences is still rule-governed. This is important to mention as the awareness of greater flexibility of items in Polish poses a danger of production of free-style structural arrangements.

Lightfoot and Fasold (2006, p. 112) explain that the grammar rules are like the number of synaptic connections in the brain – although believed to be finite, they may form an infinite number of structures. This characteristic of language has several explanations. All languages share ‘recursive devices’, i.e. such grammatical devices, which applied repeatedly allow to produce the unlimited number of structures of unrestricted length. One of such devices is ‘adjunction’ which works by adjoining words of the same kind, e.g. adjectives to a noun phrase. Another device is ‘embedding’ which involves the use of relative clauses, like in the sentences:

This is the book that Jack read. This is the bookmark that lay in the book that Jack read.

The same embedding principle operates in Polish and the above sentences can be quite literally translated into:

To jest książka, którą przeczytał Jacek. To jest zakładka do książki, która leżała w książce, którą przeczytał Jacek.

Reporting phrases, such as *He said that... He heard that...* enrich the structure by introducing a sentence which includes the original sentence. Finally, conjunctions help to coordinate sentences into longer and more complex structures.

These mechanisms, shared across grammars, enable the sentences to be infinitely long. However, the patterns of structural composition of sentences differ from language to language.

3.1. Tense and aspect

Unlike Polish, English is not a morphological language and tenses are formed with the aid of auxiliary verbs and adverbs (Wright and Hope, 1996, p. 64). The VPs (verb phrases) may consist of one verb only to form simple VPs or more than one verb to form complex, i.e. compound VPs (Wright and Hope, 1996, pp. 55-56). Although both English and Polish employ simple and complex VPs, the relation between them in both languages is not often straightforward. Some simple English VPs are translated into simple Polish VPs, as shown in the example *a*:

a) I have a shower (every day)./ Biorę prysznic (codziennie).

However, some English complex VPs are rendered into Polish as simple VPs:

b) I am having a shower (now)./ Biorę prysznic (teraz).

In English, the differences between simple and continuous aspects are expressed through simple and complex VPs whereas in Polish this function is mostly performed by adverbs. English has a wider array of complex VPs than Polish. Therefore, the same meanings may be rendered as complex VPs in English and simple VPs in Polish.

What is more, both Polish simple and complex VPs may be rendered into English as complex ones. English VPs may possess more than two verbs, for instance:

Będę śpiewać. / I will sing. I will be singing.

Concluding, grammatical time and aspect are important characteristics of VPs. Although both English and Polish divide grammatical time into present, future and past, the English language offers a broader division of the tenses with regard to aspect. For instance, the Polish language has only one present tense in which its simple and continuous aspects are expressed by adverbs. The present perfect simple tense does not occur in Polish. Past perfect is extremely rare in Polish and past perfect continuous - non-existent. In the light of language attrition research, it might be interesting to have a closer look at bilingual strategies of dealing with structural differences and whether they are subject to simplification .

3.2. Passive voice

An interesting strategy observed among Polish-English bilinguals is using the passive voice structure whenever the context is formal. The passive voice in question is formed by the verb *to be* and the past form of the main verb. Passive structures are employed in formal and scientific texts in order to direct attention away from the subject. However, overuse of the passive voice in question in Polish may seriously affect the style. Formality in Polish is often expressed through impersonal forms of verbs, i.e. impersonal passive (Saeed, 2009, p. 172). The following English sentences may be expressed in two ways in Polish:

The dinner was served. / Obiad został podany. Podano obiad.

The parcels were delivered. / Paczki zostały dostarczone. Dostarczono paczki.

Impersonal passive in Polish is more economical as it employs only one verb. It must be emphasized that although both types of Polish sentences are possible, the overuse of the passive voice structure which follows the English pattern (verb *to be* + past participle) may be found awkward. Its preference over the impersonal verb form may indicate structural simplification in terms of resorting to the pattern which is less distinct and common for both languages.

3.3. Prepositional and adjectival phrases

An obvious difference between English and Polish prepositions is that English prepositions do not influence the form of the verb or noun whereas Polish prepositions do. The following examples illustrate these differences:

Do sklepu. / To the shop. W sklepie. / At the shop.

Na stację./ To the station. Na stacji. / At the station.

Some prepositions imply motion whereas others are used to describe static situations. In Polish the state of motion and stagnation are often expressed through inflections as in the following phrases:

1) *Na parking. / To the car park.*

2) *Na parkingu./ At the car park.*

1) *Pod książkę./ Under the book.*

2) *Pod książką. / Under the book.*

Sentences number 1 signal movement, whereas sentences number 2 describe the static location. As long as the same prepositions in Polish may imply motion or stagnation which is signalled by noun inflections, English phrases either require different prepositions or, when prepositions are the same – different verb phrases.

Adjectives occur with prepositions, verbs, nouns and subordinate clauses. In Polish adjectives are subject to inflection in compliance with gender, number and declination.

3.4. Connoting properties of lexemes

Lexemes in the form of verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs connote sentences according to the connoting properties of the lexeme. These properties differ for different lexemes and they are to be consulted with the language dictionaries (Wróbel, 2001, p. 281). There are also structural differences between the English and Polish connotations, for example:

a) *I am proud that I am a mother. / Jestem dumna, że jestem matką.*

b) *I am proud to be a mother. (Jestem dumna z bycia matką).*

Sentences in point *a* are structurally alike in both languages. However, there seems to be no direct Polish translation of the English phrase *proud to be* in point *b*. The Polish sentence in point *b* should connote phrases by means of conjunctions: *że [that], z tego powodu, że [for the reason of], z kogoś, czegoś [of sth, sb]*. Thus, the Polish adjective *dumny* used with the preposition *z* and the verbal noun *bycia* (example *b*) looks awkward as a phrase. However, it is more economical in terms of the length and the meaning is successfully conveyed. These differences are very subtle and the borderlines between them may gradually become less distinct and finally attrite.

3.5. Accommodation

The syntactic interrelationships are generally referred to as ‘accommodation’ (Grzegorzyczkowa, 1999, p. 64) and they regulate the formal relations between the coordinate and subordinate phrases. In other words it is adjustment of one language item to the other in terms of agreement in number, gender, person and case. In Polish, one verb may influence as many nouns as the verb phrase connotes. For instance, in the sentence:

Szukam pierścionka Marty. / I am looking for Marta's ring.

both nouns, i.e. *pierścionek* [ring], and *Marta*, are governed by the verb *szukać* [look for] and accordingly inflected.

In another sentence:

Dalem chłopcu zabawkę. / I gave the boy a toy. I gave a toy to the boy.

the verb *dawać* [to give] changes the morphology of the successive nouns *chłopiec* [the boy] and *zabawka* [a toy]. In English these influences are less frequent and in the examples above, the English nouns do not change their morphological structure. An exception is the possessive case of *Marta* in the former example.

The noun in nominative also determines the morphological form of the verb, for instance:

Staruszki przechodzą przez ulicę. / Elderly women are crossing the street.

Staruszka przechodzi przez ulicę. / An elderly woman is crossing the street.

The morphology of the verb *przechodzić* [to cross] is dependent on the subject – its gender and number. English has similar interrelationships, however, English verbs do not have so complex morphology dependent on the persons in plural and singular. The agreement of the English verb phrase (VP) with the noun phrase (NP) is marked by the auxiliary verbs and the present simple tense. In Polish, the agreement between the plural NP and VP deserves more attention. If there is ordinal number to the NP, the verb receives the third person singular inflection in Polish. For instance, the above sentences change in the following way:

Troje staruszek przechodzi przez ulicę. / Three elderly women are crossing the street.

Changes in the subject significantly affect the Polish verb, whereas the English VP remains intact.

There are also group nouns in English which may take on either plural or singular verb form or are always plural:

The police are searching the city.

The family is/are on holidays.

In Polish, however, such collective nouns agree with singular verbs only:

Policja przeszukuje miasto. (Not: Policja przeszukują miasto).

Rodzina jest na wakacjach. (Not: Rodzina są na wakacjach).

Since knowledge of these facets is supposed to be tacit, the disturbances in the area of accommodation are extremely likely to denote language attrition.

4. Language norm versus language use

Language has to adhere to its codified norm for its structural and lexical accuracy. The norm refers to elements constituting the language system which are

formally approved of as accurate in a given language. The norm concerns variants of language and their quality. Language norm has been defined in *Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny* (2004) as:

(...) a collection of words, linking devices and ways of forming, linking, pronouncing and writing language, which are considered by a given community (most often by its educated spheres) and in a given time as exemplary, correct, or at least acceptable. Using language according to the norm does not put the language speaker (writer) in danger of being accused of producing wrong, incorrect language.³ (p. 1626)

Language typology discerns between functional, social and regional language variants. Each of the variants may be written or spoken. They differ with reference to rigour in observing the codified norm. While the spoken variant is the least prescribed, the written variant is the most rigorous (Markowski and Puzynina, 2001, p. 54). Lexical and collocation systems are highly sensitive to external influences and changes, and they constantly challenge the codified language norm. To a certain degree, the language use dictates the language norm. However, the two concepts of language use and language norm are far from interchangeable and often contradict each other.

The text type, vocabulary and structures determine the text style for which there is also a stylistic norm (Miodek, 2001, p. 77). Speech acts depend on two types of factors. On the one hand, they are revised according to the internal language code and on the other, they are influenced by external factors, ranging from social and cultural to psychological ones. The speaker has to adjust the structure and style of the message to the context. Thus, the ideal linguistic competence should consist of the knowledge of the norm, its variants and the ability to apply it in communication.

4.1. The impact of English on Polish

It must be acknowledged that the historical and social context since the turn of 20th and 21st centuries has been extremely susceptible to English (both British and American) influences. High valorization of the English language among the Polish society may be seen in the fact that English classes are obligatory from the first years of the primary school education and are often introduced in kindergartens. A good command of English is associated with the social status and is believed to open wider perspectives of professional development. Moreover, the motivation to learn English on the part of children, most presumably reinforced at home, is high from the beginnings of their FL education. Under so strong English pressures, changes in Polish must be inevitable to some extent. Keller (1994) accounts for the new language structures with a 'theory of invisible hand'. According to the theory, language change takes place on two planes: first, the micro-level of individual choices and second, the macro-level of social use. Although the language change may seem minimal or even invisible to its users, in fact, it is fast and abrupt. Keller explains that for an Englishman boarding the time machine and travelling to the time of Chaucer, would be – in language terms - an utterly

³ Translation: mine.

unintelligible experience (Keller, 1994, p. 3). It must be remembered that it is the human factor that prompts such changes and not the language in its own:

The problem may be formulated as follows: we communicate important things and trivial things, we use the written or spoken medium, we communicate in private or in public, etc. While doing so we think of a language as little as we think of inflation while shopping. By using our language, a million times a day, we change it continuously; or to use a more cautious turn of phrase, we produce a permanent change in our language. (Keller, 1994, p. 13)

The knowledge of English as a FL has won the social recognition in the Polish context and is associated with language of prestige. Although language of social prestige has several characteristics, the discussion of them will be narrowed down to the ones relevant to the Polish context. The word *prestigious* connotes the meanings of high quality, recognition of high social status, intelligence and authority. In the area of lexis and style, prestige is often gained by the use of foreign terminology (Kuryło and Urban, 2002, p. 137-149). Indeed, the language of politics, professional sports commentators and intelligence is imbued with English terminology. There are many examples of the use of such lexical imports by the mass media. For instance, in the area of advertising: *Twoja ulubiona pasta* instead of *Twój ulubiony makaron* which appeared on a large banner in the city centre of Katowice in 2007; numerous advertisements on Polish TV advocating of the superiority of, e.g. *multi surface* cleaners, and other entertainment fields which popularise words, such as *gifty* [gifts], *iwenty* [events] and *rekordy* [records] in the sense of the number of displayed websites. Other English words such as *sale*, *top* (a piece of clothing), *celebryty* [celebrity], *ekstraordynarny* used in Polish as a synonym to *niezwykły* [extraordinary] may hardly pass unnoticed. Also, some English structural transfers, especially *wyduje się/ okazuje się być* [it seems/turns out to be], are assimilated beyond recognition of their incorrect status.

A number of the imported vocabulary have their origins in the common Latin or Greek source, however, it must be emphasized that the English language has had an immense impact on their spread at the turn of 20th and 21st centuries. A compelling example is served by the word *wizytować* [visit] whose primary dictionary definition denotes control. The dictionaries also provide the old fashioned meanings of *doing the doctor's round* and *paying sb a visit* (cf. Sobol, 1995; Tokarski, 1971). Nonetheless the latter meaning has recently been resuscitated, most presumably under the influence of English and used in formal contexts with reference to the visits paid by the prominent figures.

Popularity of English as FL in Poland has recently led to taking the knowledge of the English terminology for granted. Both funny and surprising example of that trend is found in the Polish translation of the book *Harry Potter and the Prisoner of Azkaban* (Rowling, 2001). The Polish translator explains the term *black*: ‘for total dullheads, “black” in Polish means “czarny”’⁴. This points to a rising tendency to consider English

⁴ Translation: mine.

basics as familiar to an extent at which providing additional explanations is met with irritation.

Some researchers approach similar observations of overwhelming influence of English rather tentatively. For instance, Mańczak-Wohlfeld (2006) concludes that English impact on Polish is relatively small, especially in comparison with the amount of borrowing from other languages or with native forms:

The influence of English on Polish is relatively small especially when to compare the number of registered English-driven words with the number of borrowing loans from other foreign languages and with the size of native vocabulary.⁵ (p. 89)

In a similar vein, Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2006) claims that there are certain contexts in which English influence may be observed at greater frequency. The results of her study suggest that the young generation do not overuse language borrowings from English although it also reported that the older generation do notice some English-influenced L1 patterns.

4.2. Intercultural style

The bi-directional nature of linguistic influences leaves the imprint on style. Multilingual language users accept a speech style which is different from their monolingual norm. Highly proficient bilinguals develop an intercultural style (Kecskes and Papp, 2003; Cook, 1992) and rely on it regardless of which language is currently being used. The intercultural style may be manifested through language behaviour different from the monolingual language norm. For example, Cenoz (2003, p. 65) mentions stylistic changes in the formulation of requests by Spanish advanced learners of English who overused the word *por favour* [*please*] and conditional *podria* [*could you*]. Literal translation of the English phrase *Can I help you?* is, according to Cenoz, a common phrase at modern Spanish shops. Polish with its equivalents seems to share this intercultural shopping etiquette. What is more, the 20th century Poland saw the emergence of goodbye formulas translated directly from the English language, such as *Milego weekendu!*, i.e. *Have a nice weekend!*, commonly used at workplaces, schools and public places. As noted by Zimnowoda (1998), languages, Polish included, consist of international and intercultural vocabulary and word-building morphemes and as such they enrich the language. However, a line has to be drawn between enrichment of the native language and superfluous foreign language items which affect style and quality of oral and written production.

4.3. Language error

A language error may be defined as any deviation from the accepted norm, be it grammatical, lexical or stylistic. In *Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny* by Markowski (2004), language error is defined as an unintentional deviation from the norm, an innovation which neither improves communication nor conveys a new meaning or presents the same feelings of a language user in a different way. A language error is such a use of language which is not well received by the remaining users

⁵ Translation: mine.

because of its vivid transgression of the language norm (p. 1553). However, some deviations are not really errors but merely mistakes which take place during on-line processing, e.g. when speaking or writing under time pressure. Although the borderline between an error and a mistake may be subtle, in this work a mistake is approached as failure to utilize the acquired knowledge about language (which may be self-corrected). An error, on the other hand, results from insufficient knowledge of the system in question (Miodek, 2001). For Zimnowoda (1998), erroneous use of language begins with the preference of foreign language items over the familiar L1 items and intrusions should be categorically viewed as errors. In the realm of vocabulary, some words are innovations. The innovative language use is the result of conscious creative action taken in order to evoke a certain linguistic effect and therefore innovative language items are not regarded as errors (Miodek, 2001, p. 77).

5. Conclusion

Language as a living system of multidimensional communication undergoes processes of growth under the circumstances which call for new forms of expression. Multilingualism is a part of this new reality and sometimes L1 is no more as much needed or used as FL. When the focus is diverted away from the primary to the foreign language system, L1 erosion may take place. Since language attrition in a second language context is perceived as a subtle process of deterioration (De Bot, 2001, p. 68), it should be assumed that the same process in the L1 context will be even slower and less spectacular.

Investigation into L1 attrition is multi-faceted and may not be investigated in isolation but as a phenomenon connected with a number of psychological, social and biological variables. In addition to that, language attrition is a gradual process of inactivation of portions of the language data. The language system may be expected to perform small internal adjustments to cater for the missing elements of the system. It is hoped that this research will shed some light on the nature and scope of impact of attrition in the FL setting. It is also expected that the outcomes of the research will allow for some didactic implications for both learners and course designers.

Part Two: Empirical studies

Chapter IV

L1 attrition in the foreign language setting: Research design

1. Introduction

The general impact of English on Polish has been discussed by many authors, such as Mańczak-Wohlfeld (2006), Zabawa (2008a, 2008b) and Zimnowoda (1998). The issue of L1 attrition in an L1 environment, other than dialect and pathological loss, has attracted interest relatively recently. However, it must be emphasized that this interest has grown largely over the last decade, which may be seen in the fast growing amount of information on the topic in the Internet. The current research is the result of the five-year long process of planning, reviewing literature, informal discussions, constructing the research tools, conducting the research and finally, describing the results. This chapter is an introduction to the empirical part of this work and it presents the research design.

Crystal (2000) believes that English L2 contexts in which the English language naturally dominates trigger the danger of reducing the emerging bilingualism into semilingualism and finally into monolingualism. In other words, naturalistic L2 learning reaches the level at which L2 starts to encroach on L1 system resulting in, what appears to be, limited L1 proficiency and then L2 full activation at the expense of L1 partial or complete blockage. It seems self-evident that the L1 setting does not pose a danger of reducing emerging bilingualism into the final state of FL monolingualism. However, falling into the state of semilingualism in the course of L1 attrition and FL progression is much more sensible. Therefore, the major assumption behind this research is that the advanced FL users may exhibit certain changes which in principle do not comply with the established L1 norm at the levels of L1 performance and perhaps competence. This assumption is grounded by the still growing field of the attrition studies, which report changes in the quality of bilingual production and projection of attrition to the domain of language competence. Bearing in mind the agreed opinion (e.g. Schmid, 2004; Yağmur, 2004) that one type of the research instrument may not unequivocally be interpreted as a reliable measurement of L1 attrition, a combination of tools was devised.

2. Pilot Study

2.1. The Sample

The purpose behind piloting the study proper was twofold. Firstly, it was to determine whether the design of the study was comprehensible and unambiguous and the time allocated - sufficient. Secondly, it provided an overall picture of the possible results achieved by the groups of informants. The pilot study was conducted in January 2007 and consisted of the sociolinguistic questionnaire, appropriateness judgment task and C-Test. The total time allocated for the questionnaire and C-Test was 40 minutes, whereas the judgment task was assigned 50 minutes.

The sample was in a great majority chosen from among the students at the Institute of English of the University of Silesia. Those informants were divided according to the year of study into:

- 1) Group 1 of 16 first year students,
- 2) Group 2 of 17 second year students,
- 3) Group 3 of 19 fourth year students,
- 4) Group 4 of 18 fifth year students.

It was assumed that out of the trial sample at the Institute of English, the first year students represented the lowest level of the TL proficiency and the fifth year students were supposed to have attained a near native-like command of it. These extremes between the first and final year informants were supplemented by the transitory stages of second and fourth year students. It is essential for this study to mention that the Group 1 participants were receiving Polish classes as a part of their tuition. The age range fell between:

- 19 and 21 years with the prior exposure to the English language of 5 to 19 years in Group 1.
- 19 and 23 years with the prior exposure to the English language of 6 to 16 in Group 2.
- 22 and 24 years with the prior exposure to the English language of 7 to 16 in Group 3.
- 23 and 26 years with the prior exposure to the English language of 7 to 18 in Group 4.

Additionally, for comparative purposes Group 5 was formed, which consisted of nine students, aged between 22 and 27 years. Those participants were unassociated with any foreign language department and were mainly students of Polish, Information Technology, Social Sciences and Philosophy.

The students participating in the pilot study completed secondary education and were further developing English as a FL through formal instruction. The crucial difference between the groups of the students was the level of FL proficiency. All four groups at the Institute of English were receiving full time high quality tuition. These students dealt with the increasingly complex and sophisticated foreign language input in both oral and written forms as well as they were required to produce spoken and written output. The control Group 5 differed from the remaining groups in terms of their FL learning history, i.e. the lack of intensive full time FL instruction. It was expected that the results of the pilot study would vary across the groups.

2.2. Self-perceptions of L1 proficiency

The pilot study signalled possible tendencies in the self-perceptions of the L1 change under the FL instruction. In the study, the perception of the mother tongue regression under the FL impact grew in line with the academic year.

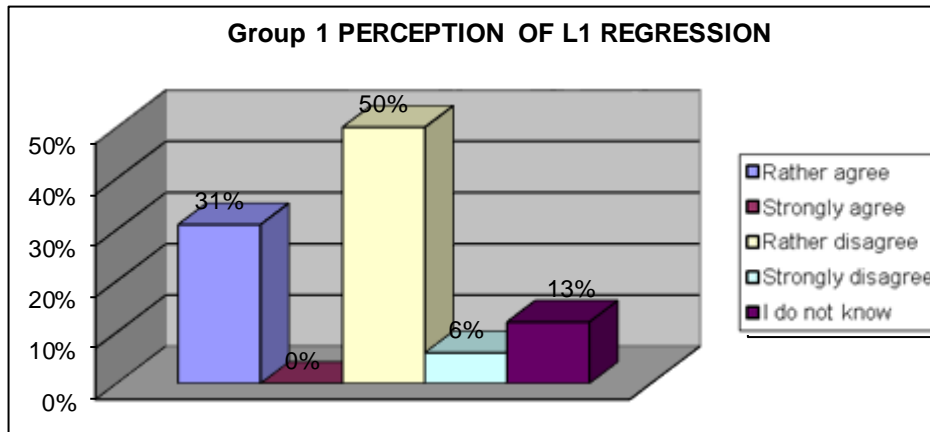


Figure 3. Self - perception of L1 regression in Group 1.

As seen in Figure 3, the self-perceived L1 regression in Group 1 was rather uncommon (31%) with the majority of the students holding a contradictory view (56%). Not a single response expressed strong beliefs about L1 regression. What is more, 6% strongly disapproved of the possibility of L1 regression and 13% expressed their uncertainty.

Among the second year participants, the majority of students signalled some L1 processing difficulties. It is noteworthy that the number of informants who expressed strong concern about losing L1 elements rose from 0% in Group 1 to 22% in Group 2. At the same time, the overall number of students who rejected the possibility of losing L1 elements fell by 15% in comparison to the previous group. Figure 4 illustrates those results.

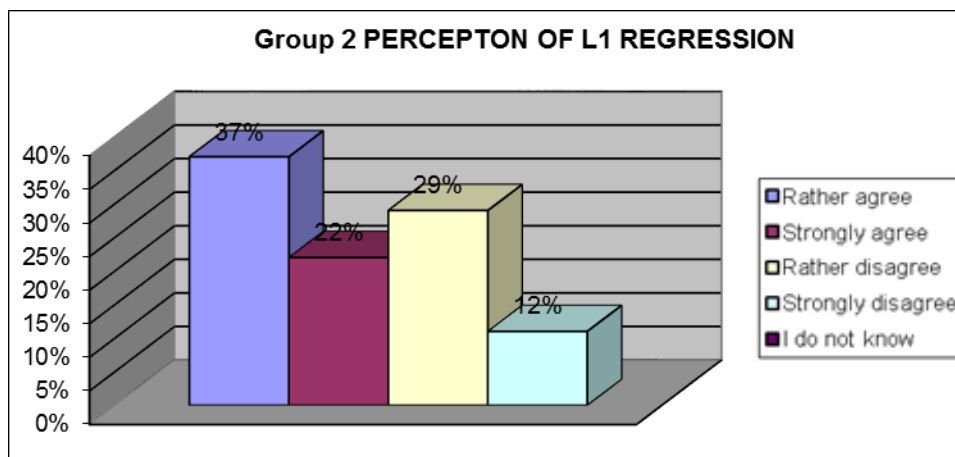


Figure 4. Self - perception of L1 regression in Group 2.

In the third group of students, the number of perceptions of the L1 decline increased by 14% when compared to Group 2 and by 42% in comparison with Group 1. Meanwhile, the number of the students who claimed to have maintained the mother intact dropped by 25% as against Group 2 and by 40% as against Group 1 (Figure 5).

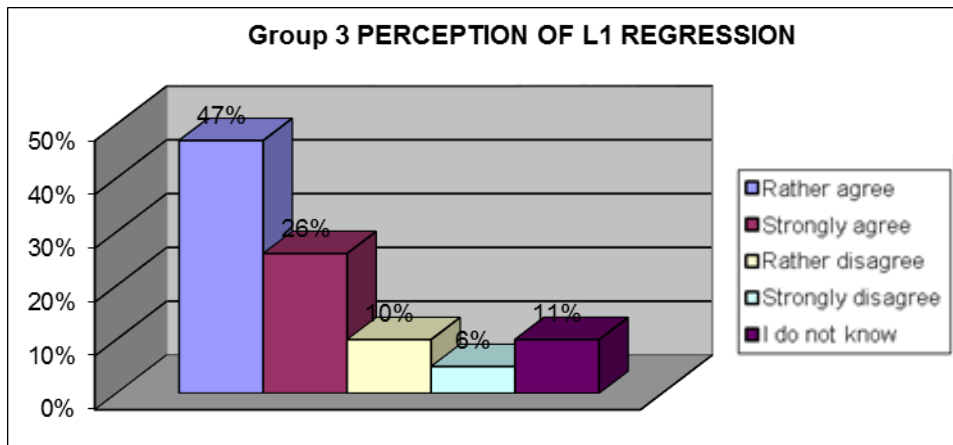


Figure 5. Self - perception of L1 regression in Group 3.

L1 susceptibility in a contact situation with a FL was to the greatest extent perceived by the most proficient TL users (Figure 6). Only a minority of 17% of the group in question contradicted experiencing the negative effects of FL on their L1 against a significant number of 78% who perceived such interference.

It is noteworthy that while there were no students expressing strong beliefs about L1 regression in Group 1, there were no strong voices of negation that such a problem actually existed in Group 4. The perception of L1 interference grew with the amount and quality of FL instruction.

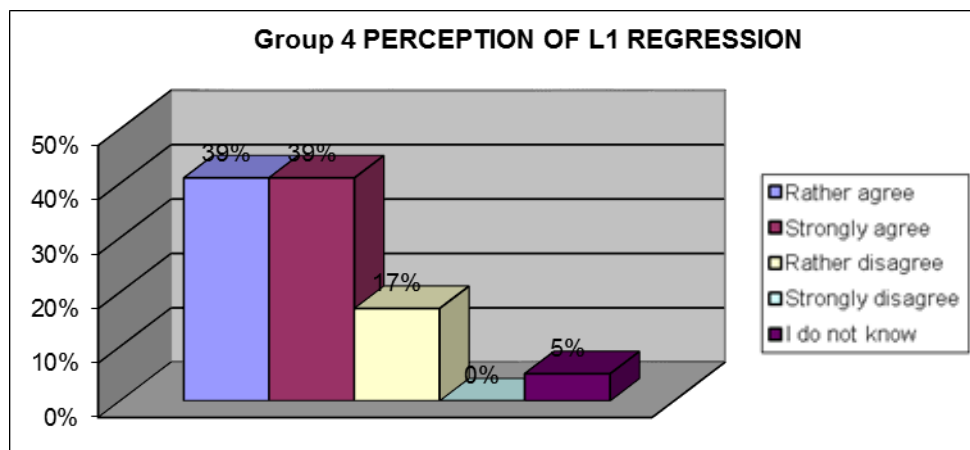


Figure 6. Self - perception of L1 regression in Group 4.

Additionally, the comments provided in the pilot study offered an interesting insight into the students' metalinguistic awareness. For instance, those participants who held views against the loss of the L1 control provided the following comments:

Group 1

- *I have problems with grammar, however, not connected with the English studies,*
- *I did not notice any negative changes to the L1 for reasons such as living in the L1 country and maintaining the mother tongue thanks to the Polish classes,*

Group 2

- *I use English expressions but do not consider them as a sign of L1 decay,*
- *I monitor Polish production and maintain the mother tongue by reading literature in the native language as well as using it for every day interaction,*

Group 3

- *I have more associations in the Polish language.*

On the other hand, the students who observed disturbances of their L1 control claimed to:

Group 1

- *notice some changes in the accent and pronunciation of Polish words,*
- *use English words while speaking Polish,*

Group 2

- *introduce English items when speaking Polish,*
- *forget Polish equivalents and adapt the English words in a Polish conversation,*
- *encounter problems with spelling Polish words due to limited reading in the Polish language,*

Group 3

- *have difficulties with Polish orthography, inflections; doubt if Polish sentences are correct,*
- *be unable to name things in Polish but to know their English equivalents,*
- *feel clumsy when speaking Polish,*

Group 4

- *use English extensively and also on personal grounds which results in transferring English structures and expressions into Polish.*

Summing up, the perception of the L1 regression was directly linked with the stage of the FL development. The question which was prompted by those results was concerned with how much the students' perceptions were in concord with the actual level of their L1 proficiency. To account for that the judgment test and proficiency test were developed.

2.3. The appropriateness judgment task

It was generally hypothesized that the correlation between the level of proficiency and the appropriateness judgment task results would be consistent with self-perceptions. The pilot study consisted of eight sentences, each representing a different category of error.

The first sentence included an approximating pattern of the word 'podmiot' [subject], i.e.:

W rozdziale opisano również przedmioty badań, a więc uczniów z grupy eksperymentalnej i kontrolnej.

As observed in Figure 7, out of all the groups, Group 5 handled the task best, exceeding Group 3 in their judgments. The majority of the students managed to replace the erroneous form with the correct item. More than 10% of this group's students pointed to the wrong pattern without suggesting its improvement. Large numbers of

Group 1, 2 and 4 marked it correct. Interestingly, the tendency to approve of approximation was dropping in the first three groups, then rose in Group 4 and dropped again in Group 5 to the level comparable with Group 3.

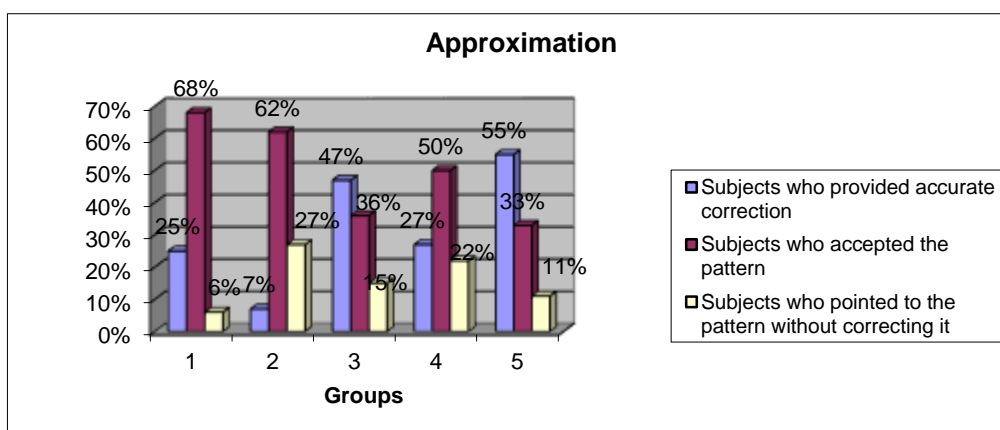


Figure 7. Appropriateness judgment task – category of approximation.

The error of category extension *kształcenia* [educating] instead of *kształtowania*, [enhancing] was identified in the sentence describing motivation:

Praca ta miała na celu przedstawienie procesu kształcenia się motywacji.

The extension was recognized and restored by a definite majority of all the groups of participants with the numbers growing from 53% in Group 1 to 70% in Group 4 and 67% in Group 5 as shown in Figure 8. On the other hand, the number of students who acknowledged the extension, was declining from approximate 50% in Groups 1 and 2 to not a single student in Group 4 and 11% of students in Group 5.

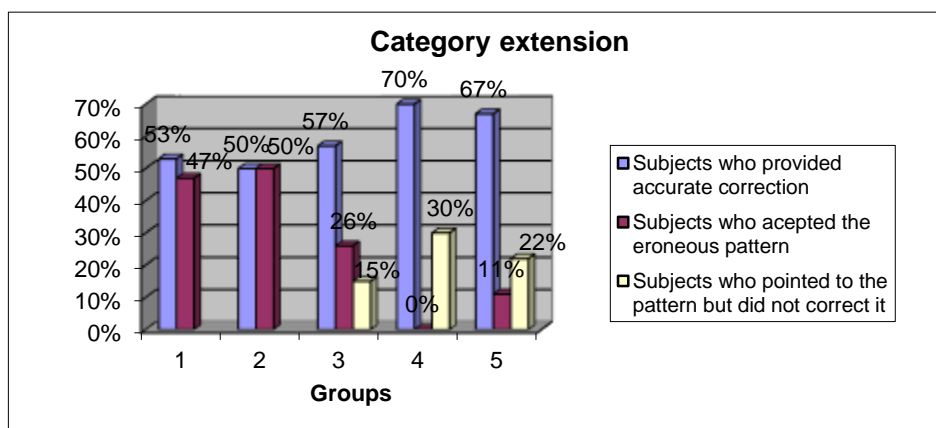


Figure 8. Appropriateness judgment task – category extension.

Some English structures may be rendered directly into Polish, however, there are certain patterns where such translation contributes to forming awkward structures, as it was the case in the following syntactic translation of the English phrase ‘turn out to be’:

Ta grupa okazała się być lepsza.

According to the Polish grammar rules, the phrase *okazać się* [turn out], may only be followed by an adjective. Thus the corrected version of the sentence should be:

Ta grupa okazała się lepsza.

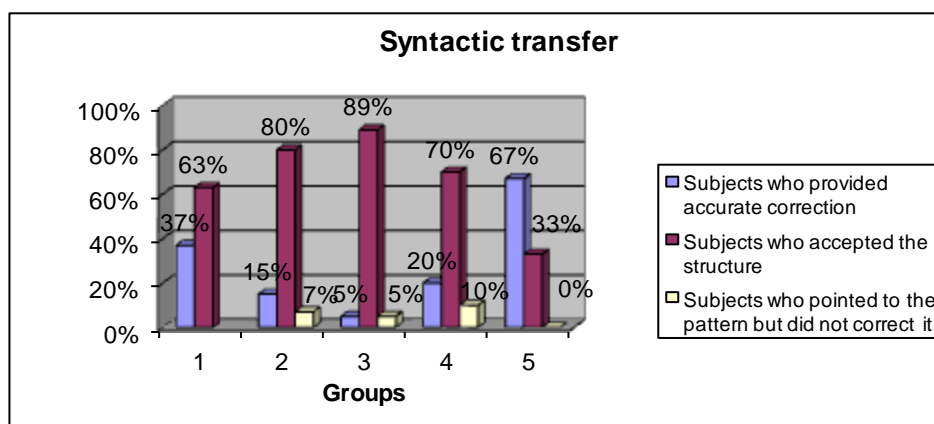


Figure 9. Appropriateness judgment task – syntactic transfer.

Judging by the results presented in Figure 9, it becomes evident that a significant number of students in the first four groups approved of the syntactic calque. The number of those participants who were able to correct the structure fell from 37% in Group 1 to 5% in Group 3. Apparently, the loan translation in question shared enough linguistic features with the mother tongue form that it blurred its correct assessment. However, 67% of Group 5 recognized the awkward structure and suggested accurate corrections.

The category of borrowing transfer was represented by the phrase:

Akwizycja języka [language acquisition].

In the discussion of the judgment results, the attention must be drawn to the fact, that significant numbers of Groups 1 and 2 as against the minority of Groups 3 and 4 and the control Group 5 were quite comfortable with its use in the Polish context. However, more than 20% of students in Groups 3 and 4 substituted it with the Polish equivalent *nabywanie*. None such equivalent was provided by Groups 1, 2 or the Control Group 5 (Figure 10).

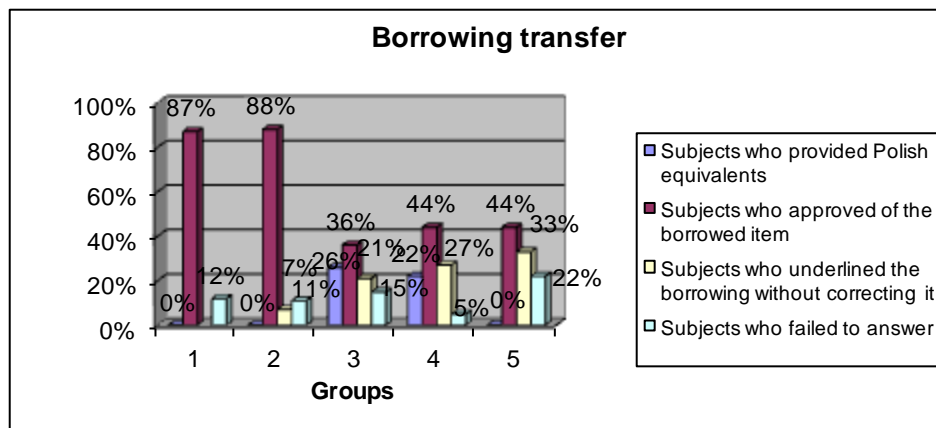


Figure 10. Appropriateness judgment task – borrowing transfer.

Reflecting upon these statistics, it may be assumed that failure to retrieve the native term in the case of Group 5, must have stemmed from the insufficient knowledge of the FL field, with which the remaining groups should have been well acquainted. The more cautious judgments by Groups 3 and 4 might indicate a greater metalinguistic awareness of a variety of syntactic and lexical transfers into the Polish language.

Intra-sentential disagreement was represented by the following sentence:

(...) dwie osoby uczone w tych samych warunkach, czasie, z tych samych materiałów osiągnęły różne wyniki.

The underlined part of the sentence should be completed with repetition of the prepositional phrase with correct inflections, i.e. *w tych samych warunkach, w tym samym czasie*. However, for the vast majority of the students this category constituted too subtle a transgression to be noted. Although the English translation sounds perfectly right, the Polish language requires certain repetitions with different suffixes. It came as a surprise that the control Group 5 also failed to recognize and restore the proper structure in approximately 80%. It was 40% of Group 4 who recovered the missing words and suffixes (Figure 11).

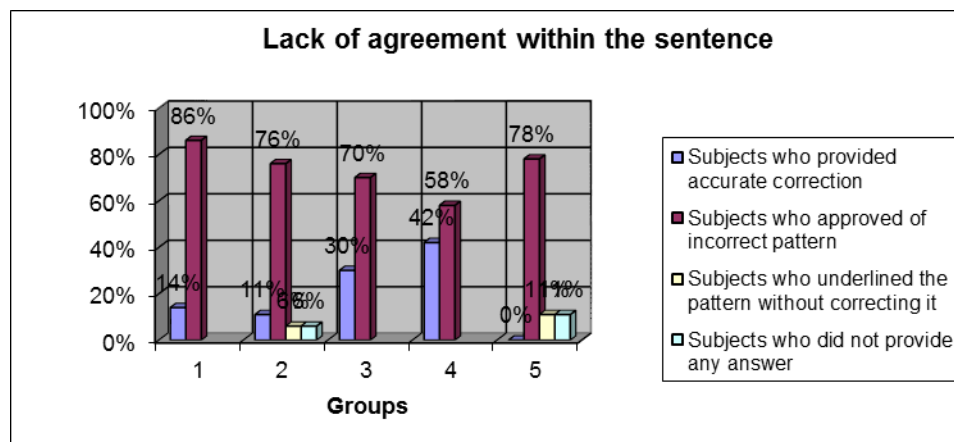


Figure 11. Appropriateness judgment task – category of agreement.

Judgments on stylistic appropriateness were measured by means of the phrase:
 [Grupa humanistyczna] *łatwiej wylapywała analogie pomiędzy językami.*

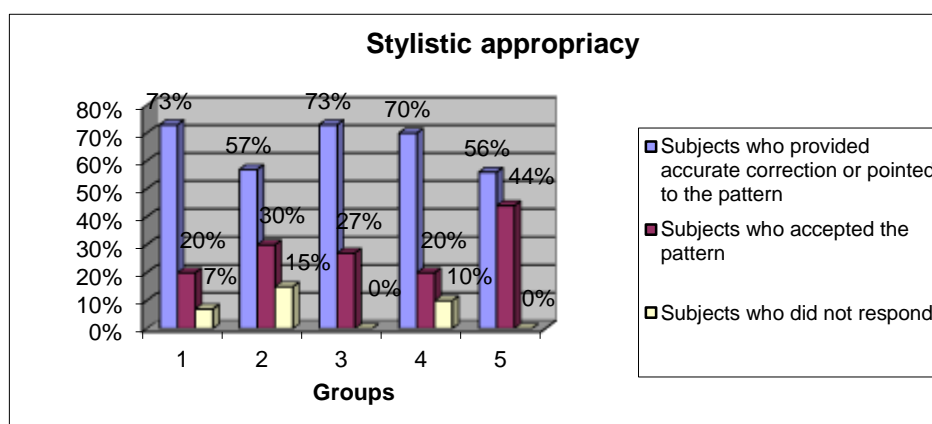


Figure 12. Appropriateness judgment task – stylistic appropriateness.

The results presented in Figure 12 show that the stylistic diversity within a single sentence attracted immediate attention and triggered appropriate reaction. More than 70% of Groups 1, 3 and 4 and more than half of Groups 2 and 5 rephrased the informal part of the phrase. However, it must not escape unnoticed that the last group attained the poorest results: 56% of the students substituted the casual word *wylapywała* with more formal synonyms, e.g. *wynajdywała*, *wyszukiwała*, *zauważała*, but more than 40% of the informants in this group did not report any stylistic inadequacy.

In terms of punctuation, the phrase presented to the students for correction, contained capital letters in place of the lower case letters:

*...pierwszym językiem jest **Rosyj**ski, a drugim **Pols**ki.*

Figure 13 shows Group 1 that gained the best results in accuracy judgments (80%) with a declining trend in the remaining groups. Approval of the wrong punctuation rose in the first three groups, reached 85% in Group 3 and stabilized at the level of 44% in the two remaining groups.

The fact that punctuation is learnt rather than acquired raises the question of attrition at the level of conscious knowledge of the mother tongue rules. Intense FL instruction in the first three years of academic studies might have contributed to forgetting the L1 norm. Slight improvement in the accuracy judgments among the fifth year participants, however, might be a sign of the improving metalinguistic awareness.

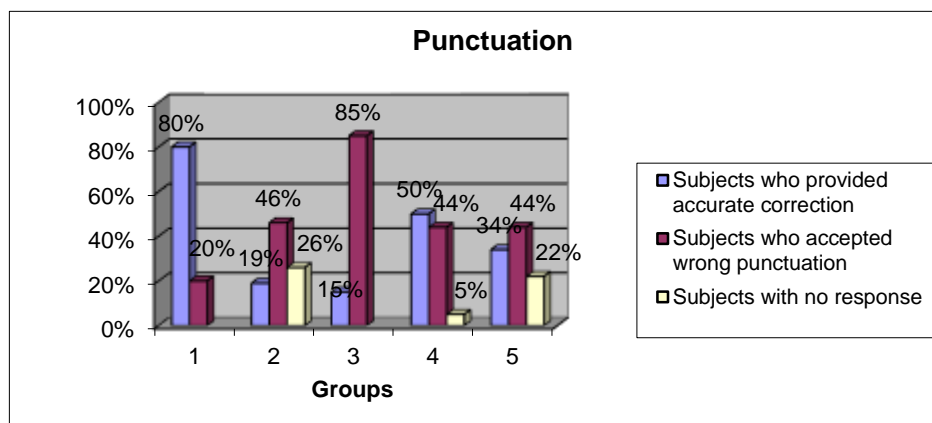


Figure 13. Appropriateness judgment task – punctuation.

Judgments on code mixing were elicited with the sentence:

...na poziomach nauki języka angielskiego od podstawowego do upper-intermediate...

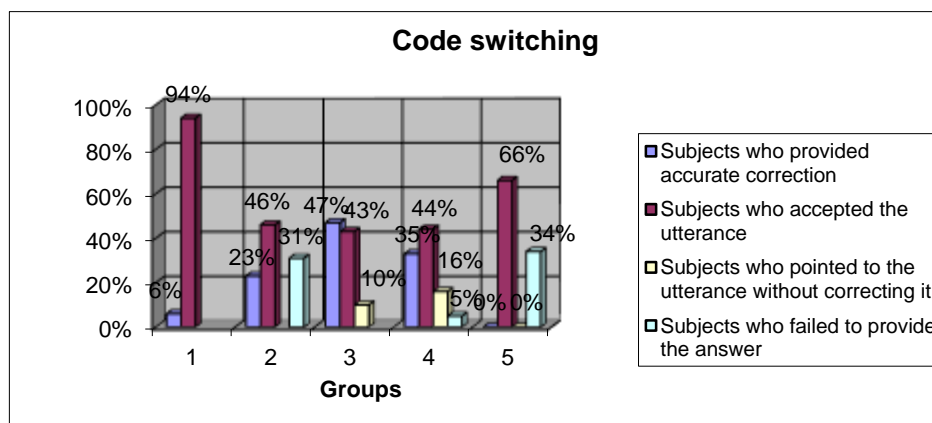


Figure 14. Appropriateness judgment task – code switching.

The data show the steady growth from 6% to 47% in the number of students who replaced the English item with the Polish equivalent in the first three groups. The last group did not arrive at the appropriate translation which was justified by the fact that the group was not well acquainted with the English terminology. Thus, the majority of Group 5 accepted code switching as correct. It is noteworthy that for the overwhelming majority of Group 1, code-switching was a norm. The conclusion might be that the advanced stage of the bilingual development enhances the metalinguistic awareness between the language systems. Such conclusion is supported by the growing numbers of the students in Groups 2, 3 and 4 who pointed to the code-switching and provided the accurate correction. The results are illustrated in Figure 14.

2.4. Conclusions for the study proper

The pilot study served as a valuable indication of what results might be expected and what amendments should be made in order to improve the quality of the research.

A few alterations into the questionnaire were introduced in order to provide more detailed instructions from those originally provided. For instance, one comment on the part of an informant concerned the percentage scale 1-100 in question no. 18, i.e. whether it should be used as a total scale for both English and Polish contexts or whether each of the contexts should be marked in scale 1-100 separately. Also, some questions regarding the self-perception of one's L1 and FL competence turned out to be too compact and they were split into shorter units.

In the case of the C-test, only slight improvements were administered, such as providing an original heading at the top of each text and its source. For the students who took part in the pilot study, the instructions did not pose any difficulties or misunderstandings. What is more, the test format, which resembled more a language puzzle rather than another mundane study was received with interest and involvement.

Last but not least, the test on appropriateness judgments turned out to be the most demanding in terms of both mental strain and knowledge of various categories of grammatical errors. It was decided that the introduction to this task should be more explicit and should contain a brief overview of different types of errors. Also, the judgment scale was expanded from two options of *correct* and *incorrect* to four (with *unsure* and *acceptable*). In order to make the task more meaningful to the students, the introduction to the test contained information about the source of the sentences quoted in the study.

Surprisingly, self-perception of L1 competence was frequently inconsistent with the appropriateness judgment results. Those incongruities were especially visible in the case of Group 1, whose perceptions of L1 competence did not translate into the achieved score in the judgment tasks. The students in Group 4 did much better on many occasions than the remaining groups despite the fact that its majority claimed to have experienced language regression. What is more, this group often produced more accurate answers than Group 5 whose competence was expected to be the most intact.

Considering the outcomes of the appropriateness judgment task one may put forth a claim that highly advanced bilinguals differ in their L1 use from other native speakers. From the above findings it might be speculated, that L1 under the influence of FL may undergo some degree of attrition. However, the results of the pilot study might also indicate that advanced bilinguals gain greater proficiency in operating two linguistic systems interchangeably and greater awareness of the differences and similarities between the languages.

3. Research questions

As discussed in Part One of this work, forgetting one's L1 has been widely evidenced in L2 contexts under conditions of insufficient use and exposure and in combination with various cognitive and affective factors. Generally, with non-use, languages become 'blocked' for active production and speakers experience attrition symptoms which result in insufficient control over a given language system. The 'lost' language or its portion for productive purposes is not, however, unanimous with complete 'removal' from memory since the human brain apparently retains traces of the previously used language system which only need to be activated though its re-use.

However, the questions which still require discussion are: to what extent can the excessive use of a FL system influence one's L1, and whether and to what degree the changes in an L1 system can be regarded as symptomatic of attrition in an L1 context? Thus, the primary purpose of this research was to analyze the symptoms of L1 attrition in the Polish L1 context under substantial influence of English as a FL (EFL), and to measure the depth of attrition in Polish under the influence of English. To start with, the following questions have been formulated:

1. Is there L1 attrition in the L1 context?
2. Is L1 attrition present in L1 perception?
3. Is L1 attrition manifested in L1 production?

Since a part of the research was based on an analysis of the corpus of EFL student summary texts in Polish, questions about EFL students' writing competency were asked:

- a) What categories of L1 misuse may be identified in EFL students' written production?
- b) What is the proportion of the categories of language misuses against one another?
- c) May the identified categories of language misuse be regarded as symptomatic of L1 attrition?

It was also assumed that answers to the questions above would elucidate further queries, such as:

1. If L1 attrition is present in the L1 context, what language areas are most vulnerable?
2. What conditions have to be met for L1 attrition to take place in an L1 environment?
3. If L1 attrition is not present in the L1 context, what do the research results imply?
4. What pedagogical implications may be formulated?

With so formulated questions the research was intended to contribute to the discussion on FL influence on L1, the potential detrimental FL impact on L1 competence, and to either confirm or reject the beliefs and assumptions about the phenomenon of L1 attrition in an L1 context.

4. Participants

The participants were chosen from among the TEFL students at the Institute of English, University of Silesia. The total number of 78 students participated in the research. Their FL experience was more varied toward the end of the studies. All of the students were learning an additional FL in fulfillment of the course formal requirements. However, the final year participants reported to have been developing much wider range of FLs voluntarily than it was the case in the remaining groups.

Students were divided into groups A, B, C and D representing respectively the first, second, third and fourth year of study. It was assumed that the four groups of students represented different levels of the FL proficiency in line with the year of study. The number of the participants was initially larger, i.e. each year was represented by the

same number of twenty-five students. However, many answer sheets were rejected because of formal considerations, such as blank spaces and incomplete answers.

Group A consisted of 19 1st year female students of English. They were 19 to 23 years old [M 19.8, SD 1.04]. A great majority of 90% were secondary school graduates and 10% completed higher vocational training. All of the participants had German language as the obligatory subject - 90% reached the intermediate level of proficiency in it and 10% described themselves as beginners. 20% of the students developed some elementary knowledge of a third language, usually French or Spanish. Their English language learning experience ranged from four to thirteen years, with the mean of 10 years for the group.

Group B consisted of 20 2nd year students: 19 females and 1 male. The age of the participants was between 20 and 25 years old [M 21.15, SD 1.16]. The students reported to have been learning English for approximately thirteen years [M 12.75, SD 2.57]. In terms of their history of education, 10% graduated from a higher vocational school or university and the remaining students completed the secondary education. For 15% of the students English was the only foreign language being developed. Another 15% claimed to also have an intermediate command of German. 50% of the students spoke more than two foreign languages (usually German, Arabic, Latin, Russian, Spanish or French). The remaining 20% of the students developed four foreign languages, usually at the elementary and intermediate levels.

Group C comprised 17 3rd year students: seven males and ten females. They were aged 21 to 25 [M 21.9, SD 1.05]. Their average English learning experience was 8.7 years [SD 2.7]. Also, in this group English was not the only foreign language that the students developed. 17% of them were beginners in Arabic, 41% developed the command of two foreign languages, mainly German, French, Russian and Arabic at elementary and intermediate levels.

Group D comprised 22 students in their 4th year of study. 82% of them were female and 18% were male. They were at the age of 22 and 26 [M 23.2, SD 0.9]. 40% of the students completed the secondary education and 60% graduated from higher vocational schools. Their English learning experience was on average 13.5 years [SD 3]. 54% of the students also developed FL proficiency in languages other than English (mainly German and Spanish). 36% of the students developed basic and intermediate competence in two other FLs, such as German, French, Russian, Italian and Spanish. The remaining 10% developed elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate levels of proficiency in four other FLs, i.e. Spanish, German, French and Russian.

5. Research tools

The research tools were constructed with the use of a combination of deductive and inductive approaches. The former approach is identified in all those studies which proceed from a clearly defined theoretical framework and attempt to investigate one or a few chosen aspects of language attrition according to some theoretical assumptions. The latter approach does not commence with the theoretically driven predictions but typically applies a number of various tools to elicit data and draw final conclusions (Schmid, 2004, p. 350).

5.1. Sociolinguistic questionnaire

The sociolinguistic questionnaire was constructed to provide the background information on the participants and their education. It also aimed at eliciting subjective evaluations of L1 and FL competence. The questionnaire was composed of a variety of questions including open items through semi-open items and the closed ones.

The data elicited in the questionnaire may be divided into several sections. The introductory items 1 – 7 elicited the basic information about the participants, especially their age, sex, year of studies, education history and FL experience. Items 8, 11 and 12, concerned the contexts and frequencies of L1 and FL use. The aim was to collect information about the patterns of language dominance for different social and educational contexts. Item 17 elicited information on the motivation to maintain L1, whereas item 19 on the nature of the students' motivation to learn FL. A number of questions were devoted to the issues of competence in both languages. For instance, items 9 and 10 concerned the dominance of either of the languages in the realm of productive *versus* receptive skills. The data were hoped to indicate which of the two skills could be regarded as more susceptible to attrition. Further items 13 – 16 dealt with the students' perceptions of what competence is and self-perceptions of their own L1 and FL competence. Finally, the last question concerned acquaintance with the term 'attrition' and was to shed some light on the students' awareness of negative consequences of the languages in contact.

5.2. Summary texts

For the purpose of summary text analysis, the corpus of one hundred written summary texts by the graduates of the Institute of English of the University of Silesia was compiled. The summary texts in question were in Polish and were integral parts of the Master Theses in TEFL. The main objective behind the corpus collection and textual analysis was to investigate the bilinguals' written production with special attention to the lexical and structural areas which did not comply with the L1 rules, i.e. showed signs of attrition. All the patterns which diverted from the L1 norm were described under the error category they represented.

The main source of reference in describing the erroneous language patterns was the most recent edition of the dictionary on the modern Polish language use, i.e. *Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny* (2004). Since some language collocations and declination patterns found in the corpus were not discussed in the dictionary, older dictionaries were also used as a supportive means.

The top-down approach was applied in the corpus analysis. The gathered data were not approached with a ready framework of error categories. The language corpus was investigated globally and the patterns diverting from the norm were localized and identified. The categories of errors discerned in the stage of summary analysis were a departure point for the appropriateness judgment task.

5.3. C-Test

In her *New blueprint for language attrition research*, Schmid (2004) proposes a C-test as a formal elicitation task which consists of a set of five or six short texts of around 70 words. According to Schmid, the texts ought to be varied in terms of style

and content. They may be used as a research tool after deleting every second half of the word and retaining the opening and closing sentences in original to provide the context. Schmid states that this task is not only a motivating exercise based on authentic materials but it is also a valuable research method for compiling reliable data on general language proficiency. It ‘makes it possible to measure not only relatively low level skills (command of vocabulary, grammar, idioms) but also higher order skills such as awareness of intersentential relationships, global reading, etc.’ Schmid (2004, p. 360). What is more, a C-test provides quantitative results which may be easily calculated and compared between the groups of students.

The construction of the C-test used in this study involved removing a half of the word where the number of letters was even, and approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ of the word if it consisted of an odd number of letters. The deletion procedure was usually applied to every second word in the text. The number of gaps totalled one hundred. The beginning and concluding sentences were left intact for better comprehension of the contexts. The texts chosen for this study represented casual (e.g. text 2), formal (e.g. texts 1 and 3) and literary (e.g. text 5) styles.

The C-test was also useful for a vivid cross comparison of the scores achieved by different groups of the students. It aimed to show the students’ proficiency and amount of language interference.

5.4. Appropriateness judgment test

The judgment tests belong to well-known and long-used methods of data collection and ‘they are often designed to elicit evidence of learners’ lexico-semantic and/or lexico-syntactic knowledge’ (Jarvis, 2009, p. 119). Jakobovits (1970) saw appropriateness judgment tests as especially useful for measuring ‘sensitivity to aspectual qualities of words’ (pp. 161-165). In these types of tests students are presented with a number of language patterns to assess in terms of their lexical and grammatical accuracy. The judgment tests are highly receptive, i.e. they require receptive skills and they target at investigating the students’ receptive competence. The judgment tests have so far been used in the research on syntactic features (Altenberg, 1991), grammaticality (Altenberg and Vago, 2004), recognition of L1 loan translation and borrowings (Latkowska, 2006) and in judgments of semantic distinctions (Schmid and Köpke, 2009, p. 226).

The judgment test used in this research was constructed on the basis of the material gathered during the investigation of the language corpus and were presented to the students for their receptive evaluation. In total, there were 40 sentences presented for judgment. The sentences contained a variety of language errors. Authenticity, i.e. the fact that the material for evaluation was not artificially constructed but actually excerpted from the corpus data, was seen as an asset to the test and was welcomed with interest by the students. The test opened with a brief introduction to the typology of errors in the categories of :

- style,
- syntax,
- punctuation,
- collocation,

- lexis,
- orthography,
- logic.

The students were asked to mark the inappropriate sentences using the number scale 0 – 3 where 0 stood for *unsure*, 1 for *incorrect*, 2 for *acceptable* and 3 for *correct*. Some additional space was also provided for writing the error category and for further comments. The participants were also invited to suggest corrections of the inaccurate patterns.

6. Procedure

The research commenced with the analysis of one hundred summary texts in search of any anomalous language patterns. The language items which were found to be diverting from the mother tongue norm were described and classified. Having piloted the studies, the successive step involved distribution of the research sheets among the university students. Specifying the research focus, compiling the data, description and analysis of the results was a gradual process which extended in time. The stages of the research, the applied methods, their objectives and timing are presented in Table 5.

The first stage of the research was devoted to gathering the summary texts and analyzing them in terms of linguistic accuracy. This was a decisive stage for the research design depending on the kind of and extent of symptoms of attrition, the research objectives were to be specified and the methods designed.

Having constructed the tools for data elicitation in the form of a questionnaire, judgment test and C-test, the study was piloted with a view to identifying any weaknesses of the test construction. The improved data collection tools were a departure point for the study proper.

The third stage of the research consisted of the questionnaire, C-test and Appropriateness Judgment Task. The questionnaire investigated the students' language behaviour, i.e. education, contexts of language use and perceptions of language vitality. The C-Test measured the students' L1 proficiency in mostly quantitative terms but also required high metalinguistic skills to deal with the text organisation and meaning. The last test in the test battery was the Appropriateness Judgment Task in which the students assessed the accuracy of the provided sentence patterns according to the four point scale.

The last stage of the research was devoted to presenting the findings and discussion. The results of the corpus analysis and the tests were calculated and analyzed.

Table 5. Procedure

STAGES	TOOLS	OBJECTIVES	TIMING
1. Corpus data compilation	Summary texts from MA theses.	Investigating linguistic corpus in search of the attrited language.	one year (2006)
2. Pilot study	Questionnaire, Appropriateness Judgment Test, C-test.	Trying and testing the designed research tools.	one year (2007)
3. Studies proper	Sociolinguistic questionnaire. C-test. Appropriateness Judgment task.	Providing background information on the students and their language behavior. Measuring the L1 proficiency. Observing changes in the tacit knowledge of the L1.	one year (2008)
4. Description and presentation of the findings		Presentation of the obtained results and conclusions.	one year (2009)

Chapter V

Studies Proper

1. Introduction

The previous chapters focused on the contextualisation of the research in the theoretical framework and presentation of the research design and pilot study results. This chapter deals with the research proper data presentation and analysis. It must be acknowledged that deciding upon the acceptability of the Polish language patterns was challenging for at least three reasons. First of all, as already noticed by Hamers and Blanc (1989), languages change constantly and acquire a range of new aspects of meaning to cater for the increasingly sophisticated needs of expression. Secondly, the rate of these new introductions to the mother-tongue is so abrupt that the standardization procedures lag behind in their evaluation. Thirdly, although some imported language patterns have been recognized as erroneous, they continue to be widely used. It must not escape notice that the public media play a significant role in spreading linguistic innovations and ill-formed patterns, mainly to attract the audience.

It may be assumed that in this study, some of the deviant cross-linguistic features in Polish have been reinforced by their use by the public media. A separate issue is the route of those linguistic imports and innovations. There exist large numbers of borrowings in both English and Polish which have their source in other languages, such as Latin and Greek. The route of their introduction or re-introduction to the native Polish tongue through the omnipresent English language is open to dispute. However, the route of the language structures entering Polish is important in the context of this research as it adds to the extent of impact that the English language exerts on Polish.

The main sources of reference in the investigation of the written language corpus were *Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny* (2004), the Polish language corpus available on-line at www.korpus.pwn.pl, other professional on-line sources, such as www.polszczyzna.pwn.pl, and book-format discussions on linguistic acceptability, e.g. Kubiak-Sokół (ed.) (2007). The grammatical and lexical categories of the linguistic items were designed with the help of *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* (1986). Finally, in consideration of the space limits, the majority of the tables included in this chapter are fragmentary. The complete list of non-standard patterns, which were identified in the corpus, are enclosed in Appendices at the end of this work.

The analysis of the corpus data led to the discovery of a range of language patterns. The research tools were designed in the way which allowed to relate the findings at the level of L1 production to results at the level of L1 perception. Schmid (2004) who is the leading authority in the field of L1 attrition research proposed a blueprint for language attrition research, which was of great use in this study. The design of the successive parts of the research was based on Schmid's blueprint and consisted of three written tests adjusted in terms of the form and content to the L1 context. The questionnaire included questions on the students' language background. C-Test was also designed along the guidelines provided by Schmid. Finally, in the appropriateness judgment task, the students were asked to evaluate language structures which were found in the corpus data.

The research proper was carried out among the students of the English Philology at the University of Silesia. Four groups, named A, B, C and D participating in the study were representative of the first four years at the university. Originally, the number of participants was larger. However, since many sheets were rejected because of empty fields. In consequence, the final number of participants in the study comprised 78 students. This chapter contains the description of the gathered information on the participants and discussion of the results of the studies (some of them were moved to Appendix E and F in recognition of the space limits in the main text).

2. Corpus analysis

The corpus has been compiled from the summary texts of MA theses. It is essential to mention that the main body of the MA theses was written in English whereas the summary texts were written in Polish. Their purpose was to summarize the main assumptions, procedures and findings of the works. In total, the corpus consisted of summaries of one hundred MA works. Each summary text was of minimum A4 page-format length. For different editing styles, the number of words on a page varied, but it is estimated that the corpus consisted of ca. 30 000 words.

The approach used in the analysis of the corpus data was a top-down approach. First, the data were compiled and secondly, the language in the corpus was analyzed. The identified patterns were then grouped and described according to the grammatical and lexical categories. However, since *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* (1986) provided a framework in which the identified errors fitted, it was used in the research to describe the misused structures.

2.1. Grammatical Collocations

According to *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* (1986), a grammatical collocation consists of the dominant word, which may be an adjective, a verb or a noun, followed by a grammatical pattern. The main patterns of grammatical collocations comprise:

- 1) Noun + prepositional combinations
- 2) Noun + infinitive
- 3) Noun/Adjective + 'that' clause
- 4) Preposition + noun combinations
- 5) Adjective + prepositional combinations
- 6) Verb patterns

Tables 6 - 15 present types of grammatical structures identified in the corpus of summary texts which divert from the Polish language norm. Most of them include the Polish collocation in the first column, the original pattern produced by the students in the middle column and suggested corrections in the third column.

2.1.1. Noun phrases

The first sub-category of grammatical collocations is described as *Noun + Preposition phrase*. Table 6 contains examples of the erroneous combinations of nouns and prepositions. For instance, the prepositions *co do* and *w* were used in phrases where *do* and *co do* are required. These prepositional substitutions did not blur the meaning,

however, they look awkward. One omission of the preposition in the case of *materiały nauczania* was, most presumably, caused by direct translation of the phrase *teaching materials*. The remaining examples often contained overproductions and were obscure in terms of the meaning.

Table 6. Nouns followed by prepositions

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Kwalifikacje do czegoś Materiał do czegoś: ‘zużywany przy robieniu czegoś’; ‘tworzący podstawę do czegoś: ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem czegoś	<i>Zebrane informacje ukazały braki w kwalifikacjach nauczycieli co do (...) rozumienia roli przedstawionych materiałów nauczania dla dzieci.</i>	<i>Zebrane informacje ukazały braki w kwalifikacjach nauczycieli i rozumieniu przez nich roli materiałów do nauczania dzieci.</i>
Wskazówka dla kogoś, Wskazówka co do czegoś	<i>Ostatni rozdział przedstawia (...) wskazówki praktyczne dla nauczyciela w pracy z uczniami.</i>	<i>Ostatni rozdział przedstawia (...) praktyczne wskazówki dla nauczyciela co do pracy z uczniami.</i>

Table 7. Nouns preceded by prepositions

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
w myśl (<i>nie</i> : po myśli) czegoś	<i>(...dotyczą czynników mających wpływ na przyswajanie słownictwa po myśli fundamentalnej zasady (...), że szybciej przyswajane są wyrazy używane częściej (...).</i>	<i>...dotyczą czynników wpływających na przyswajanie słownictwa w myśl fundamentalnej zasady (...), że szybciej przyswajane są wyrazy używane częściej (...).</i>
pod kątem czegoś	<i>Temat ten analizowany jest pod różnym kątem...</i>	<i>Temat ten analizowany jest pod kątem różnych teorii nauczania...</i>
w ujęciu (formie przedstawienia) czegoś	<i>Rozdział składa się z dwóch głównych części traktujących o ujęciu procesu w teorii fonologii generatywnej i fonologii rzędu.</i>	<i>Rozdział składa się z dwóch, głównych części, w których przedstawiono teorię fonologii generatywnej i fonologii rzędu.</i>
z perspektywy czegoś , błędne w zn. ‘przyszłość’. Np.: W perspektywie, poprawnie: w przyszłości	<i>Omówiono w nim [rozdziale] sposoby rozwiązywania problemów (...), wskazując na ich zalety i wady w perspektywie efektywności kształcenia.</i>	<i>Omówiono w nim sposoby rozwiązywania problemów (...), wskazując na ich zalety i wady z perspektywy skuteczności kształcenia.</i>

Within the category of *Prepositions + noun phrases*, some of the phrases in Table 7, such as *po myśli* instead of *w myśl*, are common misuses. Other examples are more distinct. For instance, the Polish collocation *pod kątem* means *with attention to/in consideration of*, which - most presumably - was the intended meaning of the phrase *pod różnym kątem* [*at a different angle*]. The degree of freedom in ordering the Polish language items within a sentence unit was over-extended to prepositions in fixed phrases. That contributed to the formation of non-sense phrases, like *o ujęciu procesu w teorii* which acquired a controversial meaning of *arresting the process in a theory* instead of *in the light of the theory*.

Within the realm of nouns followed directly by object, an interesting strategy was to additionally insert a preposition between the noun and object as shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Nouns followed by object

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Uzasadnienie czegoś (nie: dla czegoś) czegoś (nie: dla czegoś)	<i>W pierwszej części [rozdziału] przedstawione jest uzasadnienie dla metodyki na której TBL się opiera (...).</i>	<i>W pierwszej części przedstawiono uzasadnienie metodyki na której opiera się TBL (...).</i>
Kontynuacja czegoś	<i>...potrzeby wprowadzenia ewentualnych zmian w kontynuacji nauczania według tej metody...</i>	<i>...potrzeby wprowadzenia ewentualnych zmian w kontynuacji nauczania tą metodą...</i>
Umiejętność (tylko w l. poj.) czegoś , (rzadko, zazwyczaj w l.mn.) umiejętności w czymś	<i>...uczniowie nie wykazują zaangażowania lub umiejętności do pozytywnego zakończenia tego procesu [nauki].</i>	<i>...uczniowie nie wykazują się zaangażowaniem lub umiejętnościami pozytywnego zakończenia tego procesu/ ...uczniom brakuje potrzebnego zaangażowania lub umiejętności by zakończyć naukę z wynikiem pozytywnym.</i>

It must be noted that examples in Table 8 resemble the English structure. For instance, *uzasadnienie dla metodyki*, *kontynuacja według metody*, *umiejętności do* may be literally translated as *justification for the methodology*, *continuation according to the method*, *abilities to*. Thus, it may be assumed that the Polish patterns in question were built according to the English grammar rules. That means that the English language imposed its rules on Polish.

2.1.2. Verb phrases

Verb combinations with an object comprise a list of quite intriguing errors. Not only are those verbs structured according to the FL rules but also their meanings are often expanded to approximate the Polish equivalent, which was assumingly

unavailable at that time. Table 9 contains examples of verb structures with a direct object.

Table 9. Verbs followed by object

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
ukazywać coś/kogoś; ktoś ukazuje coś – (czymś, w czymś), ktoś ukazuje kogoś/coś – (w czymś, na czymś)	<i>W rozdziale trzecim zamieszczono szczegółową analizę wyników przeprowadzonych badań ukazujących, że zdobycie umiejętności komunikacji w języku obcym ma pierwszoplanowe znaczenie (...).</i>	<i>W rozdziale trzecim zamieszczono szczegółową analizę wyników przeprowadzonych badań ukazujących pierwszoplanowość komunikowania się w języku obcym (...).</i>
rozważać coś (nie: o czymś, o kimś)	[Autorka] rozważa także nad funkcjami pedagogiczno-dydaktycznymi nauczyciela.	Autorka rozważa także pedagogiczno-dydaktyczne role nauczyciela.
ktoś, coś umożliwia coś – (komuś)	<i>Stosowanie ich [strategii metakognitywnych] umożliwia uczniom planowanie (...) oraz na lepsze spożytkowanie czasu...</i>	<i>Stosowanie ich umożliwia uczniom planowanie (...) oraz lepsze spożytkowanie czasu...</i>
przysłużyć się komuś – (czymś)	<i>...część poświęcona projektowaniu przez uczniów własnych słowniczków, które mają się przysłużyć do lepszego przyswajania wyrażień, idiomów i słówek.</i>	<i>Część poświęcona projektowaniu przez uczniów własnych słowniczków, które mają służyć lepszemu przyswajaniu wyrażień, idiomów i słówek.</i>
ocena czegoś, kogoś	<i>Końcowym fragmentem badania jest ocena zrealizowania wyznaczonych celów przydatności pracy.</i>	<i>Końcowym fragmentem badania jest ocena realizacji wyznaczonych celów przydatności pracy</i>

The exemplary patterns provided in Table 9 are most presumably the result of interferences of English verb phrases, such as *show that*, *ponder over*, *allow for* and *contribute to* with the Polish verbs *ukazywać*, *rozważać*, *umożliwiać* and *przysłużyć się* which, however, should be directly followed by the object.

Some of the Polish phrases found in the corpus data illustrate the FL influence. For instance, in the phrase *umożliwia uczniom planowanie (...) oraz na lepsze spożytkowanie czasu*, the verb *umożliwia* [allows] should continue with the object in

both parts of the clause. In all probability, the preposition *na* was incorporated as a result of interference of the English collocation *allow for*. That may imply that L1 areas where sentences have more complex patterns and the control over them can be easily disturbed are more susceptible to FL influence. The last example in Table 10 may only superficially appear correct. The noun *ocena* [evaluation] is followed by the perfective verbal noun *zrealizowania* [of fulfillment]. However, the fact that in Polish the noun phrase *ocena realizacji* does not require the perfective aspect of the noun *realizacja* renders the sentence unnatural. It may be assumed that the perfective verbal noun was used because it was the only available form at the time of writing and it was used with the intention to emphasize the task fulfillment.

A number of Polish verbs collocate either with an infinitive or with a preposition followed by a noun. An interesting strategy, however, is to form a gerund, i.e. verbal noun (as referred to by Benson, et al. 1986), from the verb where an infinitive or a preposition followed by a noun are required.

In sentences in Table 10, the infinitive clause is avoided and replaced with the verbal noun. For instance, the second example in Table 10 contains an awkward L1 verbal noun *rozwiniecia* instead of its regular form, i.e. *rozwoju*. The question may be asked why the verbal noun is preferred over the infinitive? It seems a sound judgment that the English rule to form gerund from verbs was projected into the L1 grammatical rules to economize operating both languages. That also implies activation of some FL → L1 translation mechanisms

Table 10. Verbs followed by infinitive/ 'that' clause

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
ktoś pozwala (komuś) + bezokolicznik, na coś (allow sb for sth)	<i>Poznanie teoretycznych założeń pozwala nam na wyciągnięcie wniosków podczas obserwacji zajęć praktycznych przy użyciu badanej metody.</i>	<i>Poznanie założeń teoretycznych pozwala nam wyciągnąć wnioski z obserwacji zajęć praktycznych prowadzonych badaną metodą.</i>
przyczyniać się do czegoś lub do tego, że... (contribute to sth)	<i>Ich [rodziców] obecność może przyczynić się do rozwinięcia w młodym uczniu pozytywnego stosunku do kursu językowego...</i>	<i>Ich obecność może przyczynić się do rozwoju pozytywnego nastawienia ucznia do kursu...</i>

Some patterns in Table 11, such as the second one where the preposition *jako* seems to be the Polish translation of English *as*, imply the operation of translation mechanisms. In other cases, however, other principles than translation mechanisms must have been involved. Some prepositions occurring with the Polish verbs were not accurate despite the fact that their literal translations from English into Polish would render them correct. This is exemplified by the first entry in Table 11 where the same

grammatical patterns in both languages did not facilitate the production of the correct preposition in Polish.

Table 11. Verbs followed by prepositions

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Uciekać się do czegoś - posługiwać się czymś (resort to)	...politycy <i>uciekają się</i> <i>w użycie strony</i> <i>biernej...</i>	Politycy <i>uciekają się do</i> użycia <i>strony biernej...</i>
okrzyknąć kogoś – kimś, za kogoś; ktoś okrzykuje coś – czymś, za coś (hail sb/sth as sth; be hailed sth)	Kiedy książka Eryki Jong , ‘Fear of Flying’ (...) została po raz pierwszy opublikowana (...), <i>okrzyknięto ją</i> <i>wyjątkowo śmiałą.</i>	Kiedy książka Eryki Jong ‘Fear of Flying’ (...) została po raz pierwszy opublikowana (...) <i>okrzyknięto ją</i> <i>wyjątkowo śmiałą.</i>

2.1.3. Adjectival phrases

In the phrases presented in Table 12, the prepositions following adjectives have corresponding equivalents in both languages:

Table 12. Adjectives followed by prepositions

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Dokładny w czymś (precise/accurate in)	...bardziej zaawansowani byli bardziej <i>dokładni</i> <i>przy użyciu zaimków.</i>	...bardziej zaawansowani byli bardziej <i>dokładni w</i> stosowaniu zaimków.
Przydatny dla kogoś, komuś – do czegoś, w czymś (useful for)	...wskazówki, które mogą być <i>przydatne przy</i> <i>nauczaniu dzieci...</i>	...wskazówki, które będą <i>przydatne dla nauczycieli w</i> <i>nauczaniu dzieci...</i>
Stosowana przez (applied/used by)	...najczęściej <i>stosowaną</i> <i>strategią u</i> <i>średniozaawansowanych</i> <i>uczniów.</i>	...najczęściej <i>stosowaną</i> strategią <i>przez uczniów na poziomie</i> <i>średnio-zaawansowanym.</i>
Potrzebny komuś, rzad. dla kogoś – (do czegoś, na coś, nie: dla czegoś) (needed for)	...dorośli często <i>traktują</i> <i>język obcy jako rodzaj</i> <i>narzędzia potrzebny dla</i> <i>uzyskania awansu</i> <i>zawodowego (...).</i>	...dorośli często <i>traktują</i> język <i>obcy jako narzędzie potrzebne do</i> <i>uzyskania awansu zawodowego.</i>

Nevertheless, the collocations which were formed are erroneous because of the use of wrong prepositions. Those examples are especially interesting for they seem to be

language independent, i.e. they are not characteristic of either of the languages. On the other hand, they may be used as supporting arguments for monostylism. For instance, the preposition *przy* [*by*] was often found in the corpus data in combinations with verbs, adjectives and nouns. Perhaps, it was made use of as a sort of a universal preposition. The other preposition *u* [*in the case of*] usually occurred with personal nouns. The last example in Table 13 may be the outcome of approximation as the prepositions *dla* and *do* share certain similarities in terms of form and meaning.

2.1.4. Conjunctions

Broadly speaking, conjunctions are language units which join parts of the sentence in a logical whole. There is a group of conjunctions which form fixed collocations. In the corpus data, the wrong use of conjunctions was usually identified in such fixed pairs. The conjunctions presented in Table 13 are not particularly rare in Polish but the sentences which contain them are, more often than not, long and complex. The English → Polish influences might be identified only in some examples. The first two sentences might underlie the principle of unifying the grammar rules for both languages and/or choosing the least complicated patterns. This might account for the lack of Polish conjunction *jak* (Eng. *as*) in the structure *zarówno..., jak i...* (Eng. *both... and...*) and the use of wrong preposition and omission of the other in the phrase *rozdźwięk w* (Eng. *discrepancy in*) instead of *rozdźwięk pomiędzy... a...*

It is also noteworthy that the remaining conjunction misuses are not straightforwardly associated with English influences but seem to be examples of structural chaos and may be symptomatic of attrition at the level of language control.

Table 13. Conjunctions

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<i>zarówno..., jak...;</i> <i>zarówno..., jak i...</i> (both... and...)	<i>Wnioski związane zarówno z efektywnym i nieefektywnym zarządzaniem klasą...</i>	<i>Wnioski związane zarówno z efektywnym, jak i nieefektywnym zarządzaniem klasą...</i>
<i>rozdźwięk między kimś a/i kimś, rozdźwięk między czymś a/i czymś</i> (discrepancy in/between)	<i>Nie stwierdzono rozdźwięku w rodzajach motywacji...</i>	<i>Nie stwierdzono rozdźwięku między rodzajami motywacji a...</i>
<i>a</i> - introduces the opposite meaning, <i>lub (or)</i> – introduces the equivalent.	<i>...większość respondentów zintegrowała się ze społecznością kraju, w którym rezydowała, a przynajmniej zaakceptowała odmierności obu kultur.</i>	<i>...większość respondentów zintegrowała się ze społecznością kraju, w którym rezydowała lub przynajmniej zaakceptowała odmierności obu kultur.</i>

1. Bądź... bądź... (either... or...)	<i>...pisemne testy, które zawierały bądź opisy zjawisk związanych z antonimią słówek będących z reguły przymiotnikami względnie segregację i ich dopasowanie znaczeniowe.</i>	<i>...pisemne testy, które zawierały bądź opisy zjawisk związanych z antonimią, bądź (to) ich segregację i dopasowanie pod względem znaczenia.</i>
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2.1.5. Structural loan translation

An interesting observation comes from the structures containing the forms of the English verb *to be*, which were translated literally into Polish. One of the most widespread loan translation consists of the verb phrase *seem/appear to be*, rendered into Polish as *wydaje się być*. The corresponding Polish structure is only appropriate without the verb *być* [*to be*]. Despite that, it is nowadays commonly used in both speech and writing and regularly reinforced in both the mass media as well as literary and scientific translation. A perfect example of the widespread use of the structural calque in question is found in the Polish translation of *Wielka Ilustrowana Encyklopedia Przyrody* by Burnie (2006, transl. Pojedynek, 2006, p. 14). In the introduction to the part about the formation of life on Earth, both the translator and proof-reader overlooked the phrase *Dwie kwestie **wydają się być pewne**...* (instead of *wydają się pewne*) although its font size is larger than the main text and the letters are printed. Table 14 contains more examples of similar structural loans.

Table 14. Structural loans with the verb to be

TARGET STRUCTURE DESCRIPTION	TARGET SENTENCES	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
1. Verb (esp. seem, appear, turn out, etc.) + to be + participle/ adjective / verb	<i>The main target seems to be attaining the level of fluent communication skills...</i>	<i>Głównym celem (...) wydaje się być osiągnięcie poziomu umiejętności płynnego komunikowania się...</i>	<i>Wydaje się, że głównym celem (...) jest osiągnięcie poziomu umiejętności płynnego komunikowania się...</i>
2. to be + past participle	<i>The names (...) were compared to their equivalents [in other languages]...</i>	<i>Nazwy (...) zostały porównane do ich odpowiedników [w innych językach]...</i>	<i>Nazwy porównano z ich odpowiednikami [w innych językach]...</i>
3. Being + adjective/ participle	<i>...being creative during teaching ESP.</i>	<i>...bycie kreatywnym w trakcie nauczania ESPkonieczność bycia przez nauczyciela zrozumiałym...</i>	<i>...kreatywność w nauczaniu ESP. ...konieczność wyrażania się przez nauczyciela w sposób jasny...</i>

4. Direct translations of the verb to be	<i>The topic of this thesis is...</i>	<i>Tematem niniejszej pracy jest: 'Trudności w nauce języka angielskiego...'</i>	<i>Temat niniejszej pracy brzmi: 'Trudności w nauce języka angielskiego...'</i>
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The structures with the infinitive *to be* are widely employed in every-day speech in English and more recently in Polish despite their 'incorrect' status. What is more, the structure in question sporadically appears in printed publications in Polish. The second entry is an example of an English-influenced passive voice structure. Although the passive voice with the verb *to be* and past participle overlap in both English and Polish, the impersonal form of the verb, such as *porównano*, is more appropriate in Polish. The third sentence in Table 14 is a compelling example of replacing regular L1 nouns with verbal nouns. This seems to be an efficient strategy of deriving verbs from nouns, which is not always possible in Polish. The L1 phrase *bycie kreatywnym* definitely belongs to one of the most conspicuous examples of overextension of a FL rule over L1. Finally, there are many instances of direct translation of the infinitive 'to be' which seem to pose particular difficulty for the bilingual users.

2.2. Lexical patterns

Lexical collocations, which are built of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs (Benson *et al.*, 1986), are broadly divided into free lexical combinations and bound lexical combinations. Free lexical collocations may be combined with a number of words whereas bound lexical collocations require fixed lexical combinations and may be used with a limited range of lexical items. *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* (1986) provides the description of major types of the bound lexical collocations, which form the following patterns:

- 1) verbs followed by nouns/pronouns/prepositional phrases,
- 2) adjectives followed by nouns,
- 3) nouns followed by verbs,
- 4) nouns followed by objects,
- 5) adverbs followed by adjectives,
- 6) combinations of a verb and an adverb.

The typology of collocations found in the corpus has been developed according to the dictionary patterns above.

Verb collocations followed by nouns are shown in Table 15. As observed, the major difficulty concerned the choice of nouns which collocate with the verbs. The nouns used in the sentences were approximations of the target patterns. Some lexical collocations only slightly diverted from the target pattern. For instance, the collocation with the verb *wpajać* [*rekindle*] was followed by the plural form of the noun *zainteresowania* [*interests*] instead of the singular. Other collocations, such as *obciążać pracą* and *przywiązywać rolę* were also inaccurate. The presented language misuses may seem subtle and superficially appear insignificant but in fact they affect the style in a negative way.

Table 15. Verbs followed by nouns

DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS	LEXICAL MISUSES	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
nakładać na kogoś jakiś obowiązek ; ktoś obciąża kogoś czymś: obciążać obowiązkami	... obciążenie nauczycieli języka angielskiego pracą ...	Obciążenie nauczycieli języka angielskiego obowiązkiem ...
Przywiązywać , przykładać do czegoś wagę	... przywiązując zbyt dużą rolę do teoretycznej znajomości gramatyki...	... przywiązując zbyt dużą wagę do znajomości regulek gramatycznych...
Wpajać zainteresowanie czymś	Zadaniem nauczyciela języka obcego jest wpajanie uczniom zainteresowań obcą kulturą (...)	Zadaniem nauczyciela języka obcego jest wpajanie uczniom zainteresowania obcą kulturą (...)

Collocations with adjectives followed by nouns are presented in Table 16. The first collocation of an adjective and a noun *ważny podkreślenia* [important to underline] is utterly a linguistic invention. Most presumably the phrase *godny uwagi* [noteworthy] was meant originally. However, since the target collocation was apparently inaccessible, it was substituted with an approximation, which despite the fact of being ill-formed, allowed for conveying the message successfully. The other collocation presented in the table assigns the adjective *kompletny* [complete] to the noun *znajomość* [knowledge], instead of the noun *brak* [lack]. It is not straightforwardly known whether the author of the sentence in question meant *the lack of complete knowledge* [brak pełnej wiedzy] or *the complete lack of knowledge* [zupełny brak wiedzy]. Judging from the context, it may be assumed that the Polish phrase is a result of the direct cross-linguistic interference from the English language. The utterance seems to be plainly a translation of the English phrase, i.e. *the lack of complete knowledge*, for which additionally speaks the fact that the Polish collocation *kompletny brak*, i.e. *complete lack* is used colloquially rather than in a formal piece of writing like summary texts discussed in this work.

Table 16. Adjectives followed by nouns

DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS	LEXICAL MISUSES	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
godny uwagi	<i>Ważnym podkreślenia jest fakt, iż...</i>	<i>Godnym uwagi jest fakt, iż.../ Autor podkreśla, że...</i>
kompletny brak czegoś vs. zupełny brak czegoś	... <i>przyczyną wady wczesnego startu (...), które są związane głównie z brakiem kompletnej znajomości języka ojczystego.</i>	... <i>przyczyną wady wczesnego startu (...), które są głównie związane z zupełną nieznaną znajomością języka ojczystego.</i>

2.2.1. Lexical loans

The realm of vocabulary is believed to be the most susceptible to FL influences and attrition. Borrowing is the most commonly applied strategy of enriching lexis. Lexical loans which are introduced into L1 to name novel phenomena and to improve communication with a wider choice of synonyms are justified and easier subsumed under L1 norm. However, it is the perception of many that the rate of foreign, especially English, introductions has recently been virtually beyond control. The still growing numbers of borrowing and loan translations pervade the spoken and written forms of expression, rendering the language production unclear and over-sophisticated (especially when to compare the form with the content). Bearing in mind the bilingual context of this study and the vulnerability of vocabulary to the FL influence (e.g. De Bot, 2001; Hutz, 2004), it was not particularly surprising to have noted down a substantial number of English lexical loans. However, the loans found in the corpus seem to have been used for reasons other than the mainstream need for language sophistication, i.e. they appear to have been caused by the genuine FL interference.

The corpus data contained a number of professional vocabulary, usually borrowed to better describe the spectrum of meanings in the art of ELT. The apparent paucity of L1 methodological terms was provided for by translation of the English terms. Pavlenko (2004) argues that the use of such borrowing translation which does not have an L1 equivalent is not a sign of L1 attrition but development. In the introduction to the Polish translation of the course book *Learning to teach* by Arends (1994), its translator Kruszewski (1994) explains that some borrowing translations are used as a result of the limited number of Polish publications which meet the requirements of the pedagogical programs and translation of the English books remains the last resort. Kruszewski also adds that such course-books are designed to illustrate foreign school systems, their teaching styles and problems, and they may not be readily applied to Polish context. The description of the FL environment must require some specific terminology which has to be borrowed.

Table 17. Lexical loans

SOURCE ITEMS	POLISH EQUIVALENTS	LOAN TRANSLATIONS (CORPUS DATA)
1. Elicitation technique	Technika wywoływania/nakłaniania/prowokowania	<i>Technika elicytacji</i>
2. Language acquisition	Opanowanie/nabycie języka	<i>Akwizycja języka</i>
3. Internalization of the material	Utrwalenie/usystematyzowanie/zmagazynowanie/zapamiętanie materiału.	<i>Internalizacja materiału.</i>
4. Activities	Celem zawartych propozycji była prezentacja podstawowych ćwiczeń...	<i>Celem zawartych propozycji była prezentacja podstawowych aktywności...</i>

5. Graphs	...zastosowanie dwóch rodzajów wykresówzastosowano dwa rodzaje grafów ...
6. Pose problems	...cechy oryginału, które mogłyby stwarzać problemy podczas tłumaczenia.	...cechy oryginału, które mogłyby przedstawić problemy podczas tłumaczenia.
7. Incidental sample?	...eksperyment z próbą dobraną w sposób przypadkowy.	...eksperyment z incydentalnym doborem próby .

Table 17 contains examples (1-3) of borrowings whose Polish equivalents are not straightforward. Some authors and translators adopt a descriptive approach to explain the new concepts and foreign terminology. Hence, there is usually more than one equivalent to account for a foreign lexical item. For instance, the English borrowing *elicytacja* is described differently by different authors. Arabski (1996) refers to it as *wywoływanie danych*, Kruszewski (1994) translates it as *naklanianie: zadawanie pytań* and Komorowska (2001) uses the term *prowokowanie odpowiedzi*. The term *akwizycja* is replaced by those authors with items, such as *opanowanie, przyswajanie, nabywanie*. Finally, the noun *internalizacja* could be substituted with *utrwalenie* (Komorowska, 2001) and *zapamiętanie, zmagazynowanie, nabycie* (Arabski, 1996). However, it seems common practice to use borrowing translations instead. As long as such uses seem justified, e.g. where lengthy descriptions are not fully accurate and, what is more, consume a lot of space, there are times when loan translating evidently violates the mother tongue norm. The instances of overuse of the translation strategy are illustrated by the examples 4 – 7 in Table 17. The lexical items in sentences 4-6 are examples of the preference of the loan translation over the available Polish synonyms. Finally, the last sentence constitutes an interesting example of the translation of the ill-formed lexical collocation in English. The author of that sentence most presumably meant *random sampling*. However, that term was probably learnt insufficiently or its recovery was unavailable at that time and so it was replaced with *incidental sample* and then translated into Polish. It is noteworthy that the mental processes engaged in the production of the collocation were activated through the English language channel, which presumably resulted from the activation of the knowledge on sampling through that language channel.

The borrowing translation identified in the corpus was abundant in comparison with the Polish equivalents. A few of the most notorious examples of borrowings are presented in Table 18. For example, the preference for the items *efektywność, efektywny* might be observed not only in the corpus data but also in Polish translations of English teacher trainee coursebooks, such as *Learning to teach*, in which the translator only sporadically makes use of other synonyms. This preference is also seen in such examples as *efektywność szkoły, efektywny dialog, przeprowadzić efektywną dyskusję, efektywne podawanie materiału, efekty dyskusji, efektywność uczenia się pojęć, sprawdzian efektywności*, to name a few.

It can be observed that all of the borrowed lexical items presented in Table 18 have their common source in Latin or Greek. However, considering the bilingual context of the study, it is assumed that a number of them must have entered Polish through English. It would be interesting to look at the route of borrowing translation, i.e. whether or not it is taken directly from the ancient languages, such as Latin and Greek, or from English as the *lingua franca*. This, however, remains beyond the scope of the present study.

Table 18. Borrowing translation

ENGLISH SOURCE ITEMS	LATIN/GREEK ORIGIN	POLISH EQUIVALENTS	BORROWING TRANSLATIONS (CORPUS DATA)
The chapter contains the description of the results produced by the study...	Latin <i>Resultatum</i>	Rozdział stanowi opis wyników uzyskanych w trakcie badań...	<i>Rozdział stanowi opis rezultatów uzyskanych podczas badań...</i>
The last chapter contains suggestions for teachers...	Latin <i>suggestio</i>	Ostatni rozdział (...) prezentuje propozycje dla nauczycieli...	<i>Ostatni rozdział (...) podaje sugestie dla nauczycieli...</i>
...it tests their effectiveness in texts. ...help in achieving the effective results ...	Latin <i>effectivus</i>	...bada ich skuteczność w tekstach. ...pomoc w uzyskaniu pożądaných wyników...	<i>...bada ich [zdolności językowych] efektywność w tekstach. ...pomoc w osiągnięciu efektywnych rezultatów...</i>
Chapter 4 focuses on the research implications .	Latin <i>implicare</i>	Rozdział IV koncentruje się na skutkach badania. [implikacje błąd, następstwa czegoś; to, co coś spowoduje implikacje czegoś]	Rozdział IV koncentruje się na implikacjach badania.
...necessary tools in the course creation ...	Latin <i>creare</i>	...narzędzia niezbędne w tworzeniu kursów...	...narzędzia niezbędne w kreowaniu kursów...
In the process of designing the syllabus ...	Latin <i>syllabus</i>	...w procesie pisania programu zajęć w procesie kreowania syllabusu ...

2.2.2. Code switching

In the context of this study, switching between the language codes appears to be a strategy to deal with not readily available L1 equivalents. The sentences in Table 19 specifically relate to the area of English language teaching (ELT). That specific knowledge was acquired through the means of the English language what partially explains why L1 production on the topics concerned with ELT is marked with cross-

linguistic interaction. Some foreign items relate to elements of the English grammar, which are untypical for Polish. To the most vivid examples of the latter category belong *phrasal verbs* (rendered in Polish quite literally as *czasowniki frazalne*) and the names for the English grammatical tenses, such as *past simple and present perfect*.

Some specific ELT terminology was originally developed in English. Those terms, for the paucity of native expressions, have often been explained descriptively. For instance, *feedback* is rendered as *informacja zwrotna* and *washback effect* has been translated as *sprzężenie zwrotne* (Kruszewski, 1994). Yet another difficulty seems to be posed by the lack of the corresponding ‘catch phrases’ in the native language. Let us take as an example the expression *learner training*, which may be rendered into Polish as *szkolenie*. However, for some bilinguals the term may connote the association with formal professional training rather than being tutored in particular areas of the subject. Perhaps that was the reason behind leaving the phrase *learner training* intact.

Table 19. Code switching

CODE SWITCHING (CORPUS DATA)	POLISH EQUIVALENTS
➤ <i>Znajomość angielskich czasowników typu phrasal verbs...</i>	<i>Znajomość angielskich czasowników frazalnych/związków frazeologicznych...</i>
➤ <i>Praca niniejsza zawiera również appendix...</i>	<i>Niniejsza praca zawiera również załącznik...</i>
➤ <i>Nadmieniono również o istotnym znaczeniu zjawisk ‘backwash effect’ oraz ‘feedback’...</i>	<i>Nadmieniono również o istotnym znaczeniu zjawisk sprzężenia oraz informacji zwrotnej...</i>
➤ <i>... ‘Learner Training’ odgrywa istotną rolę w przygotowaniu do egzaminu.</i>	<i>...szkolenie uczniów odgrywa istotną rolę w przygotowaniu ich do egzaminu.</i>
➤ <i>...sprawdzenie (...) dwóch standardów języka angielskiego: Received Pronunciation oraz General American (...).</i>	<i>...sprawdzenie (...) dwóch standardowych wersji wymowy języka angielskiego: brytyjskiej oraz amerykańskiej (...).</i>
➤ <i>Badania zostały zawężone do dwóch struktur – the past simple i the present perfect...</i>	<i>Badania zostały zawężone do dwóch struktur – przeszłej i teraźniejszej dokonanej...</i>

2.2.3. Lexical approximation

Lexical approximation is interesting not only as a side-effect of cross-linguistic contacts but also memory functioning. As already mentioned, approximation is the result of an attempt to activate the deactivated or dislocated language items. This attempt returns inaccurate forms which approximate the target words particularly in terms of the number of syllables and sounds which occur in them. Let us take as an example items listed in Table 20. Approximating patterns found in the corpus data

belong to the four major categories: the category of verbs, nouns, prepositions and adjectives.

Table 20. Approximation

DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS	LEXICAL MISUSES	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
Pod kątem czegoś (<i>nie</i> : kogoś) ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem czegoś, ze względu na coś	<i>Spora część uczniów postrzega kulturę docelową pod kątem pewnych stereotypów...</i>	<i>Spora część uczniów postrzega kulturę docelową przez pryzmat stereotypów...</i>
<i>Im własności to, co charakterystyczne dla kogoś lub czegoś, lepiej: właściwości, fizyczne, chemiczne ciał.</i>	<i>Tę własność [miarę dyspersji] wykorzystuje się czasem do wyodrębnienia w próbie podgrup...</i>	<i>Tę właściwość wykorzystuje się czasem do wyodrębnienia podgrup próby...</i>
opanowywać opanowuję (<i>nie</i> : opanowuję, <i>nie</i> : opanowuję).	<i>...uczeń opanowuje nowy system komunikowania się...</i>	<i>...uczeń opanowuje nowy system komunikowania się...</i>
praca celowa działalność człowieka zmierzająca do wytworzenia określonych dóbr, wykonywany zawód wkład w coś zaangażowanie w coś	<i>Praca uczniów w wypełnieniu kwestionariuszy była anonimowa.</i>	<i>Wkład uczniów w badanie kwestionariuszowe był anonimowy.</i>
podkreślać akcentować, uwydatniać podnieść wykonać ruch do góry	<i>Podnieść należy, że narzędzia badawcze skonstruowano w ten sposób aby...</i>	<i>Należy podkreślić, że...</i>
pojęcie wyobrażenie o czymś, pogląd na coś zjawisko coś niezwykłego lub ktoś zadziwiający, wyjątkowy; nierealne, piękne widzenie senne lub urojenie	<i>Zjawisko strategii</i>	<i>Pojęcie strategii</i>
funkcja działanie, rola; praca, obowiązki, stanowisko, funkcja mediów, telefonu, lekarza pierwszego kontaktu	<i>...omówiono szereg czynników wpływających na funkcje spełniane przez uczniów jak również nauczycieli...</i>	<i>...omówiono szereg czynników wpływających na role spełniane przez uczniów jak również nauczycieli...</i>
elastyczny rozciągliwy; łatwo przystosowujący się do nowych warunków	<i>...wiąże się to z większą elastycznością mózgu...</i>	<i>...wiąże się to z większą plastycznością mózgu...</i>
Badania na – prace zmierzające do poznania czegoś za pomocą analizy naukowej, badania na zwierzętach, badania na jakimś terenie, badania na temat...	<i>Przeprowadzone badania na uczniach klasy maturalnej.../ Badania przeprowadzono na nauczycielach uczących w szkołach ponadpodstawowych.</i>	<i>Przeprowadzone badania wśród uczniów klasy maturalnej.../ Badania przeprowadzono wśród nauczycieli uczących w szkołach ponadpodstawowych.</i>
nosić doznawać czegoś, odczuwać coś przez pewien czas; przechowywać coś w pamięci: ktoś nosi coś	<i>Uczniowie (...) niosą w sobie wszelkie typy motywacji...</i>	<i>Uczniowie (...) noszą w sobie różne rodzaje motywacji...</i>

Within the category of verbs, the verb *postrzega* [*perceive*] instead of *rozpatruje pod kątem* [*consider with regard to*] belongs to one of the most evident examples of approximation. Both verbs connote similar meanings of considering, perceiving and looking at some issues. However, in spite of these similarities, only the verb *rozpatrywać* collocates with the phrase *pod kątem* in Polish. The verb *podnieść* [*to raise*] instead of *podkreślić* [*to underline*] (with reference to placing emphasis on something) is another example. In that case, the target word was approximated in terms of the physical structure, i.e. the identical initial syllable.

Approximations were also found in the area of morphology, which is claimed to be the most resistant to cross-linguistic interferences language area. The word *opanowuje* is an ill-formed variety of the infinitive *opanować* [*to acquire*]. In the same vein, the verb *nosić* is the approximation of *nieść* in the collocation *nosić w sobie coś* [*have sth in you*].

Some expressions may be regarded as semantic approximations. For example, the phrase *praca w* [*work in*] is an approximation of the phrase *wkład w* [*contribution to*]. It may seem that the content was of much greater priority than the actual form in which it was conveyed. Further examples from Table 20, such as *zjawisko strategii* [*a phenomenon of strategy*] instead of *pojęcie strategii* [*the term strategy*], *funkcje uczniów* [*learner functions*] instead of *role uczniów* [*learner roles*] are lexical misuses which approximate target words and so the reader is able to guess the intended meaning without a considerable effort.

Sometimes, the number may contribute to misuses. For instance, the noun *własność* [*property*] in the singular form describes possession, however, in the plural it may refer to the features of something and is synonymous with a similar Polish word *właściwości*. Thus, the plural forms of *właściwości* and *własności* mean the same with, nonetheless, strong dictionary indication that the former one is more accurate.

Within the area of adjectives, *elastyczny* [*elastic*] with reference to the learning brain may be taken as a standard representation of adjectival approximations. The target word was *plastyczny* [*plastic*]. The approximation is, most presumably, the result of the physical similarity between the words. Finally, the preposition *na* [*on*] instead of *wśród* [*among*] in the phrase *badania na uczniach* [*research on learners*] may also be categorized as an instance of approximation. The noun *badania* may collocate with either of the prepositions in question, however, not without the change in meaning. The preposition *na* connotes a more literal sense of experimenting physically on the subjects. In the case of a survey it would be better to use the preposition *wśród* [*among*] to indicate the group of subjects whom the survey concerned.

Although the above expressions were used as examples of approximation, one may not rule out mechanisms other than approximation that played a role in their production.

2.2.4. Meaning extension and narrowing

In the light of this study, in many cases, the meaning extension and narrowing may be approached as subcategories of loan translation and approximation. The

linguistic interferences lead to the production of language units which are inaccurate and as such broaden or narrow the meaning of words.

Some lexical items presented in Table 21, such as *wyposażyć* [*equip*], are loan translations. The meaning of the verb *wyposażyć* is quite literal and refers to the act of providing someone with something. However, in the corpus it was used to describe the learner possession of various types of motivation thus relating the word to a much wider context. On the other hand, there are examples of lexical overuse which do not seem to be the direct result of approximating or translating mechanisms. The particle *wreszcie* [*at last*] may not be used as a conjunction (as it is in the example in Table 21) either in English or Polish. Neither does it resemble any conjunction which may be compared with the target pattern that could be approximated. What is more, it exists in both languages as a form of exclamation. The word *dzięki* [*thanks to*] implied the positive result of someone's action. Nonetheless, in the corpus data it was used in the phrase carrying the negative meaning and in consequence, the positive outcome was owed to students' minimal engagement.

Table 21. Change of lexical meaning

DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
wyposażyć oficj. zaopatrywać w coś, dostarczać komuś coś potrzebnego: w tym zn. wyraz nadużywany	<i>Rodzaje motywacji w które wyposażeni są uczniowie do nauki języka obcego...</i>	<i>Rodzaje motywacji, którymi uczniowie kierują się w nauce języka obcego...</i>
wreszcie partykuła ekspresywna, wskazująca, że coś powinno trwać krócej niż trwa; partykuła ekspresywna wyrażająca zniecierpliwienie	<i>...zaprezentowano cele i założenia pracy, grupy uczniów uczestniczących w badaniach, wreszcie metody badawcze.</i>	<i>...zaprezentowano cele i założenia pracy, grupy uczniów uczestniczących w badaniach oraz metody badawcze.</i>
Dzięki komuś/czemuś (meaning the positive reason of sth)	<i>...dzięki mniejszemu wkładowi pracy ucznia.</i>	<i>...z mniejszym wkładem pracy ucznia</i>

It is difficult to arrive at the particular causes of those lexical misuses. They might, however, pinpoint Cook's (1992) assumption that bilinguality is a hybrid formation of mind, whose linguistic rules and regulations are in their own right and their comprehension may not lead through the analysis of the relationships between the two languages.

2.3. Text structure and style

The sentence structure, as presented by Grzegorzczkowska (1999), is based on the semantic and syntactic features of the verb as the most vital elements of the sentence. It is the verb with its characteristics that constitutes the core building foundation of the

sentence. Two essential processes include connotation, i.e. the demand of the presence of a particular word or structure and accommodation, i.e. adjustment of the words in terms of the form. As noticed by Grzegorzczkova, the changes in the area of syntax often entail semantic changes. Those syntactic-semantic inter-dependencies are the primary focus of this section.

Table 22. Sentence structure

ORIGINAL SENTENCE IN CORPUS	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<i>...wiedzę pedagogiczną można wykorzystać w procesie nauczania języka obcego dzieci przedszkolnych.</i>	<i>...wiedzę pedagogiczną można wykorzystać w nauczaniu dzieci przedszkolnych języka angielskiego.</i>
<i>...jest warunkiem koniecznym dla dostatecznego stopnia osiągnięcia kompetencji językowej...</i>	<i>...jest warunkiem koniecznym, żeby osiągnąć dostateczny stopień kompetencji językowej...</i>
<i>...przywiązując zbyt dużą rolę do teoretycznej znajomości gramatyki...</i>	<i>...przywiązując zbyt dużą rolę do znajomości teorii gramatyki...</i>
<i>... w pewnej dziedzinie (...) okazała się być lepsza grupa ogólna.</i>	<i>...w pewnej dziedzinie (...) grupa ogólna okazała się lepsza.</i>
<i>...proces palatalizacji przedstawiony jest z punktu widzenia fonetycznego...</i>	<i>...proces palatalizacji przedstawiono w oparciu o wiedzę z zakresu fonetyki...</i>
<i>Rozdział drugi prezentuje, jakie konsekwencje przynosi w praktyce adaptacja testów językowych.</i>	<i>Rozdział drugi prezentuje konsekwencje, jakie przynosi adaptacja testów językowych w praktyce.</i>
<i>...praca traktuje o sposobach postępowania ze słabym uczniem w nauce języka obcego.</i>	<i>...praca traktuje o sposobach postępowania z uczniem słabym w nauce języka obcego.</i>
<i>Inne natomiast, decyzje takie pozostawiają organowi nadzorującemu pracę nauczycieli, ograniczając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do osoby, która wyłącznie wykonuje powierzone jej obowiązki.</i>	<i>Natomiast inne, pozostawiają takie decyzje organowi nadzorującemu pracę nauczycieli, sprowadzając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do wykonywania wyłącznie powierzonych jej obowiązków.</i>

Numerous sentences in the corpus data were found to be complex in terms of the content and form. That complexity was additionally exacerbated by the disorganized sentence structure (Table 22).

In the first sentence, the verb *nauczać* [to teach] is ditransitive, i.e. it has two positions for indirect object and direct object. In Polish, the verb *nauczać* should first be followed by the NP describing the recipients of the teaching process (i.e. children) and then the NP describing the subject being taught (i.e. English). This order was ignored in many sentences.

The Polish language is inflectional which means that it makes use of inflections to signal the relationships between the words in a sentence (therefore the order of words is often optional). This premise, however, seems to have been taken for granted in many structures found in the corpus data. For instance, in the second sentence, not only the noun phrase *warunek konieczny* does not form a collocation with the preposition *dla* but is additionally modified by the verbal noun phrase (Table 22).

The major function of adjectives is to modify nouns. Adjectives then appear before head nouns which they modify. Placing an adjective before any noun may produce the meaning divergent from the intended sense. For example, in the third sentence in Table 22, the intended phrase *znajomość teorii gramatyki* [*the knowledge of the theory of grammar*] was turned into *teoretyczna znajomość gramatyki* [*the theoretical knowledge of grammar*]. In the same vein, in the fifth sentence, the adjective *fonetycznego* occupies the position of a noun and negatively affects the sentence style .

In the fourth example, sentence style was affected by overproduction of the word *być* (already discussed in section 3.5 of this chapter). In sentences 6 and 7, the word order was changed in order to improve the sentence structure and style. The last sentence in Table 22 is an interesting example of the structural and semantic chaos caused by a random order of language items. As a result, one must interpret the meaning of the sentence and re-write it, reordering the words in a logical sequence.

2.3.1. Overproduction and underproduction

The main premise behind summary writing, as discussed by Marzec-Stawiarska (2006), should be employing a limited number of words to convey the most essential information. A summary text should be brief and concrete. The corpus data suggest that summary writing may be challenging, especially when it concerns the formal style and a longer piece of text. For some reason, the level of formality was realized through complex phrases overloaded with vocabulary. Brevity, on the other hand, was maintained through underproduction. It may be assumed that extensive writing, yet insufficient development of sentence structures may be, to some degree, a psychological phenomenon. Students might associate complex structures with formality and underproduction - with brevity, and resorted to them in summary writing for MA theses.

The sentence patterns in Table 23 are examples of overproduction and underproduction. In the first sentence the brevity was achieved through the use of an adjective before the first noun although it should be related to the following noun. In consequence, the meaning obtained was *the qualitative part of the research* instead of *the part describing the qualitative research*. Considering the second example, the word *podsumowanie* [*conclusion*] was personified by the verb *stwierdza* [*states*], which may count as a logical error because inanimate objects are not capable of performing cognitive acts, such as stating.

Undoubtedly, underproduction often occurs as a side-effect of the attempt to contain complex information in the possibly smallest number of words. The two final sentences in Table 23 are overproductions in the area of single lexical items, like *czasookres* [*the timeperiod*] and overproductions in terms of loaded phrases, such as the verbal adjective *uczący (się)* [*learning*] before the noun *dyslektycy* [*dyslexics*], thus

producing a rich-looking, but stylistically awkward pattern. What is more, the main verb *znajdują* and the verbal adjective *uczący* both require a separate reflexive pronoun *się* and may not share it as they do in the example. The missing reflexive pronoun may count as underproduction. However, the phrase with two reflexive pronouns: *znajdują się uczący się* would still be representative of distorted style.

Table 23. Language overproduction and underproduction

LANGUAGE OVER- AND UNDER-PRODUCTION	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<i>Celem części jakościowej badań jest przedstawienie i analiza efektywnej pracy nauczycieli w szkołach państwowych i prywatnych.</i>	<i>Celem części pracy, opisującej badania jakościowe, jest przedstawienie i analiza efektywnej pracy nauczycieli w szkołach państwowych i prywatnych</i>
<i>Podsumowanie stwierdza, że ...</i>	<i>W podsumowaniu autor stwierdza, że...</i>
<i>...w określonym czasookresie...</i>	<i>...w określonym czasie...</i>
<i>Sytuacji, w jakiej obecnie znajdują uczący się dyslektycy...</i>	<i>W obecnej sytuacji, w jakiej znajdują się dyslektycy...</i>

2.3.2. Coherence

Coherence was typically distorted in lengthy sentences. Some of those sentences represented a set of loosely connected ideas. To provide an example, the first sentence in Table 24 might be successfully divided into two separate sentences. Otherwise, the expressions *sposób nauczania* [*the way of teaching*] and *pełnione role* [*performed roles*] should accommodate to the preceding phrase *odpowiedzialność za* [*the responsibility for*] as shown in the suggested correction. Furthermore, the information in the last part of the sentence about the mutually exclusive character of the teacher roles should post-modify the head noun *role* [*roles*] as an additional piece of information separated by a comma.

The second sentence in Table 24 is a perfect example of how coherence may be distorted in a lengthy sentence. The sentence in question has the length of a paragraph and may be equally well divided into smaller sentence units. However, for the sake of brevity, it may be left as a clause joined by the conjunction *i* [*and*] without any superfluous comments, such as *obejmuje on, bowiem to*, which effectively hamper the comprehension.

Table 24. Coherence

ORIGINAL SENTENCE IN CORPUS	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>1. ...na nauczycielu spoczywa odpowiedzialność za sposób, w jaki uczy, role, jakie pełni on w klasie często wzajemnie się wykluczają.</p> <p>2. Termin 'nastawienie jest tu użyty w szerokim znaczeniu, obejmuje on, bowiem to, czym jest kultura dla uczniów i jaka jest jej rola w nauce języka obcego, znajomość kultury brytyjskiej i amerykańskiej, uczucia i opinie na temat tej kultury, oczekiwania związane z jej nauką, tendencję do stereotypizacji jej przedstawicieli i opinie na temat treści kulturowych podręcznika do nauki języka angielskiego.</p>	<p>...na nauczycielu spoczywa odpowiedzialność za sposób nauczania i pełnione role, które często wzajemnie się wykluczają.</p> <p>Termin 'nastawienie' jest tu użyty w szerokim znaczeniu. Obejmuje on znajomość i nastawienie do kultury brytyjskiej i amerykańskiej, a także odczucia, opinie i oczekiwania związane z nauką o kulturze i społeczeństwie oraz z zawartością podręcznika do języka angielskiego.</p>

2.3.3. Monostylism

Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny (2004) defines *textual style* as the way in which the linguistic material is put together. Stylistic correctness is evaluated on the basis of three main criteria which include clarity, simplicity and conciseness. Clear style is easy to understand because it is built on the premise of the logical order of presentation, it lacks language errors and consists of single rather than complex clauses. Simplicity is a feature of the text which consists of simple syntactic structures without many borrowed, sophisticated or abstract words. The level of language formality must also be adjusted to the given context. Finally, the text should neither be too long nor include any unnecessary or repetitive phrases. The paucity of stylistic devices and overuse of informal register are, according to Dressler (1991), symptomatic of monostylism. Tables 25-26 contain examples of stylistically distorted sentences.

The first observation that may be made on the basis of the sentences in Table 25 is that the style of the sentences is rather informal and as such inappropriate for a formal piece of writing. Some sentences resemble free speech rather than academic language.

Table 25. Degree of text formality

SENTENCE PATTERNS (CORPUS DATA)	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>➤ <i>Uczniowie mają problemy z wyrażeniem tego, co chcą powiedzieć, a jako pierwsi przystępują do nowej, zreformowanej matury...</i></p> <p>➤ <i>...świadomy problemu nauczyciel może umożliwić znaczne rozwinięcie kompetencji leksykalnej...</i></p> <p>➤ <i>Informacje te pomogły zweryfikować to, w jaki sposób teoria ma się do praktyki.</i></p>	<p><i>Uczniowie ci jako pierwsi przystąpią do nowej, zreformowanej matury, mimo że nie uzyskali adekwatnego przygotowania...</i></p> <p><i>...świadomy problemu nauczyciel może znacznie wpłynąć na rozwój kompetencji leksykalnej...</i></p> <p><i>Informacje te pomogły ocenić zastosowanie teorii w praktyce.</i></p>

Apart from the colloquial language, the corpus data contain a significant number of repetitions as shown in Table 26. The most notorious examples include the verbs *dotyczyć* [concern] and *używać* [use] which were rarely replaced with other synonyms. In the realm of nouns, the word *nauka* was used to denote both learning and teaching instead of other, more distinctive expressions, such as *uczenie się* [learning] and *nauczanie* [teaching]. Other commonly occurring, lexical repetitions include *implikacje* [implications], *efekty* [effects] and *ewaluacja* [evaluation]. Perhaps the most intriguing repetition in Polish is the passive voice structure with the verb *to be* and past participle. Although such passive voice is allowed by the Polish language rules, it is the impersonal passive, which is more adequate in Polish formal contexts.

Table 26. Language overuse and repetition

REPEATED/OVERUSED WORDS AND STRUCTURES	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>Dotyczący, dotyczyć</p> <p>...problemy dotyczące kreatywnego pisania...</p> <p>W pracy podane są sugestie dotyczące wprowadzania nauki...</p> <p>...w celu uzyskania informacji dotyczących świadomości respondentów...</p> <p>Praca niniejsza dotyczy.../Zagadnienia te dotyczą.../...poglądów dotyczących...</p>	<p>...problemy związane z kreatywnym pisaniem...</p> <p>W pracy podane są sugestie odnośnie wprowadzania nauki...</p> <p>...w celu uzyskania informacji na temat świadomości respondentów...</p> <p>Praca niniejsza związana jest z.../ Zagadnienia te odnoszą się do.../ ...poglądów co do...</p>
<p>Używać</p> <p>...kobiety będą używały wyłącznie stylu typowo kobiecego...</p> <p>...używając komputera w procesie uczenia się...</p> <p>Używamy ich [komputerów] zarówno do pracy jak i do zabawy...</p> <p>...konsekwentnie używano czterech słów tabu...</p>	<p>...kobiety będą posługiwały się wyłącznie typowo kobiecym stylem...</p> <p>...wykorzystując komputer w procesie uczenia się...</p> <p>Korzystamy z nich [komputerów] zarówno do pracy jak i do zabawy...</p> <p>...konsekwentnie stosowano cztery słowa tabu...</p>
<p>Nauka</p> <p>...lekcje poświęcone nauce kolokacji...</p> <p>...trudności w nauce języka angielskiego...</p> <p>...opis strategii używanych przy nauce języka obcego...</p>	<p>...lekcje poświęcone nauczaniu kolokacji...</p> <p>...trudności w uczeniu się języka angielskiego...</p> <p>...opis strategii stosowanych w opanowywaniu języka obcego...</p>

Ewaluacja <i>Źródło ewaluacji...</i> <i>Proces ewaluacji materiałów nauczania...</i> <i>Sposoby ewaluacji efektywności...</i>	<i>Źródło oceny...</i> <i>Proces ocenia materiałów do nauczania...</i> <i>Sposoby ocenia skuteczności...</i>
Efekt <i>...wprowadzona reforma (...) zmieniła system kontroli efektów tego procesu.</i>	<i>...wprowadzona reforma (...) zmieniła system kontroli wyników tego procesu.</i>
Other repetitions <i>...zarysowano teorię strukturalizmu, czyli teorię języka i behawioryzmu, czyli teorię psychologii procesu uczenia się...</i> <i>...wykazanie różnic w uczeniu się języka obcego przez dzieci i dorosłych, z uwzględnieniem różnic w przyswajaniu obcojęzycznego słownictwa.</i>	<i>...zarysowano teorię psychologii uczenia się, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem strukturalizmu i behawioryzmu...</i> <i>...wykazanie różnic w przyswajaniu słownictwa obcojęzycznego przez dzieci i dorosłych.</i>
Passive voice structure <i>Cała analiza tematu została oparta na ankiecie...</i> Including the agent in the passive voice structure <i>...material prezentowany przez nauczycieli...</i>	<i>Całą analizę tematu oparto na ankiecie...</i> <i>... zaprezentowany materiał...</i>

Some phrases were awkward in terms of lexical constructions and lexical use. Examples of them are shown in Table 27.

Table 27. Awkward phrases

DICTIONARY DEFINITION	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Niemówność brak sprzyjających warunków do zrealizowania czegoś; niezdolność do czynu	<i>Uzyskane rezultaty (...) potwierdzają niemożność znalezienia tzw. metody idealnej.</i>	<i>Uzyskane wyniki potwierdzają, że nie można znaleźć idealnego rozwiązania.</i>
Postawa zachowanie, postępowanie, stosunek człowieka do życia lub pewnej wyróżnianej sfery zjawisk, zachowanie, postępowanie; postawa wobec kogoś/czegoś	<i>...przedstawiłam czynniki jakie mogą mieć wpływ na kształtowanie się postawy uczących się wobec komputera jako pomocy naukowej...</i>	<i>...przedstawiłam czynniki jakie mogą mieć wpływ na kształtowanie się postawy uczących się wobec rozwijania kompetencji językowej z pomocą komputera...</i>
Tenże – ten sam	<i>Omawia wyniki egzaminu maturalnego oraz opisuje sylwetki tychże, jak i metody i procedury...</i>	<i>Omawia wyniki egzaminu maturalnego oraz opisuje sylwetki maturzystów, jak i metody i procedury...</i>

The phrases presented in Table 27, such as *niemożność znalezienia* [*inability to find*], must have been the result of either the search for more sophisticated means of expression (although an unsuccessful one) or they could be an outcome of translation mechanisms and the unavailability of the Polish equivalent. The phrase *postawa wobec komputera* [*attitude toward the computer*] is an example of over-extension of the collocation *postawa wobec kogoś, czegoś* [*attitude toward sb/sth*]. One has attitudes towards people and towards various phenomena, problems and issues, etc. However, it is difficult, if not impossible, to talk in terms of attitudes toward inanimate objects which have no capacity to interact with one's beliefs, emotions or decisions, what the phrase implies. The third example in Table 27 may have been an attempt to omit the repetition of the sentence subject. However, in this context the antecedent of the plural demonstrative *tychże* [*those*] is unclear.

The following paragraph serves as an example of a complex sentence overloaded with information and undivided into smaller and more comprehensible units:

Porównanie zdolności językowych dwóch klas dokonane według skali uczniów, nauczycieli i badającego wykazało olbrzymie rozbieżności w ocenach: grupa o profilu humanistycznym oceniła swoje zdolności językowe wyżej niż grupa ogólna, gdy tymczasem oceny nauczycieli w dwóch klasach tylko w nieznacznym stopniu różniły się z ocenami badającego.

The colon sign which is normally used to introduce explanation and examples, is followed by, what seems to be, the presentation of background context (i.e. information about the difference in judgment between the students, teachers and researcher). For the sake of clarity, the whole paragraph was divided into three independent sentences and the missing elements of the sentence were restored:

Zdolności językowe dwóch klas porównano według skali uczniów, nauczycieli i badającego. Porównanie wykazało olbrzymie rozbieżności w ocenach dokonanych przez uczniów: grupa o profilu humanistycznym oceniła swoje zdolności językowe wyżej niż grupa ogólna. Natomiast oceny wystawione przez nauczycieli w dwóch klasach różniły się w nieznacznym stopniu z oceną badającego.

Let us consider another example in which the sentence agreement was disrupted because of ignoring the capacity of a sentence to contain a limited number of concepts. The grammatical relationships between and within the noun and verb phrases were not maintained due to excessive information in excess.

Rozdział drugi i trzeci stanowią opis i analizę odpowiedzi na pytania zawarte w kwestionariuszu przeprowadzonego wśród uczniów liceum ogólnokształcącego oraz opis rezultatów otrzymanych na podstawie kwestionariusza dla nauczycieli języka angielskiego.

The above clause contains information about the questionnaire conducted among learners and teachers. As observed, apart from the final full stop mark, the text does not contain any other punctuation marks. Additionally, the wrong inflection of the verbal

adjective *przeprowadzonego* blurs the general meaning. The sentence complexity, punctuation and morphology have been repaired in the following way:

Rozdziały drugi i trzeci stanowią opis i analizę wyników badania kwestionariuszowego, przeprowadzonego wśród uczniów liceum ogólnokształcącego oraz nauczycieli języka angielskiego.

The sentence length was reduced by referring the research context to both teachers and learners instead of relating one part of the clause to learners and the other - to teachers. In this way the sentence meaning was improved and the sentence length - sensibly minimized.

The next sentence, which is an excerpt from the longer sentence, is an example of intra-sentential disagreement. The main focus was placed upon the part of the clause in which the noun *podsumowanie* [summary] should modify other words in the genitive case:

(...) czwarty rozdział poświęcony jest podsumowaniu projektu badawczemu (...).

In grammatical terms, the adjective *badawczemu* modifies the noun *podsumowaniu* instead of the noun *projektu* [project] and should be amended in the following way:

(...) czwarty rozdział poświęcono podsumowaniu projektu badawczego (...).

In the similar way, the following examples 1 and 2 have been restored in points 1a and 2a.

(1) [Praca](...) dostarcza narzędzia niezbędne w kreowaniu kursów.

(1a) [Praca] (...) dostarcza narzędzi niezbędnych do tworzenia kursów.

(2) Respondenci podzieleni zostali na dwie grupy, uczniowie i nauczyciele języków obcych.

(2a) Respondenci podzieleni zostali na dwie grupy: uczniów i nauczycieli języków obcych.

To sum up, the linguistic problems discussed in this section frequently stood in opposition to the premises of building the quality style. Intra-sentential disagreement and complicated clauses blurred the textual clarity and hampered comprehension. The use of superfluous language and sophisticated phrases contradicted the premise of simplicity. The length of sentences with extra explanations and comments did not meet the criterion of conciseness. Finally, the level of formality was not adhered to. Those features indicated disturbances of style and, to a certain extent, they also manifested *monostyle*, especially through repetition of FL vocabulary and structures.

2.3.4. Punctuation

In terms of punctuation, avoidance was the most meticulously applied strategy. The lack of the necessary minimum of the punctuation marks and their misuse may only add to the complexity and ambiguity of paragraphs. In many such cases, leaving different concepts undivided made them difficult for the reader to follow. Let us illustrate the point with the following sentence:

Praca niniejsza poświęcona jest nauczaniu języka angielskiego w zespole dwuosobowym składającym się z nauczyciela pochodzącego z kraju anglojęzycznego (tzw. native speakera) oraz neofilologa, nierodowitego użytkownika języka czyli w praktyce polskiego nauczyciela języka angielskiego.

Not only is the sentence long and complex but it lacks commas and shows inconsequence in the use of the punctuation marks. The additional information about the native speaking teacher has been placed within the brackets, whereas the same type of information regarding the FL teacher has been separated with a comma. Having introduced slight improvements, the sentence took on a new shape:

Niniejszą pracę poświęcono nauczaniu języka angielskiego w zespole dwuosobowym, składającym się z rodowitego nauczyciela języka angielskiego (tzw. native speakera) oraz polskiego neofilologa.

Sometimes the misused punctuation changed meanings. For instance, the following sentence:

Praca ta składa się z czterech rozdziałów, jednego teoretycznego i trzech praktycznych.

presupposes the existence of eight chapters. Four of them are unspecified chapters, the next one is theoretical and three are practical chapters. However, the whole thesis consisted of four chapters and it was clear that the intentional meaning was different, i.e. the first chapter dealt with some theory and the three remaining chapters dealt with practical issues. To express that, however, the colon should be used, i.e.:

Praca ta składa się z czterech rozdziałów: jednego teoretycznego i trzech praktycznych.

In the same vein, the hyphen, which introduces generalizations, was misused in the following example:

Biorąc pod uwagę brak perspektyw na zmianę aktualnych okoliczności kształcenia językowego w szkołach średnich – praca zwraca uwagę na potrzebę częstszego treningu leksykalnego w domu ucznia.

The clauses in the above sentence whose parts should be divided by a colon rather than a hyphen (as no general idea follows it):

Biorąc pod uwagę brak perspektyw na zmianę aktualnych okoliczności kształcenia językowego w szkołach średnich, praca zwraca uwagę na rolę zadań domowych rozwijających słownictwo.

Yet another sentence is an example of underproduction in terms of punctuation and structure:

Co sprawia, że dwie osoby uczone w tych samych warunkach, czasie, z tych samych materiałów i przez tego samego nauczyciela osiągają różne wyniki w nauce języka obcego.

The phrase *Co sprawia, że...* is used for questions, however, in this sentence it ends with the full stop mark instead of the question mark. Also the comma separating the parts of the clause was omitted. Additionally, the agreement error was made in assigning the phrase *w tych samych [in the same]* in both plural noun *warunkach [conditions]* and the masculine noun *czasie [time]*. The sentence was repaired in the following manner:

Co sprawia, że dwie osoby uczone w tych samych warunkach, tym samym czasie, z tych samych materiałów i przez tego samego nauczyciela, osiągają różne wyniki w nauce języka obcego?

Another problem area was the use of small and capital letters. In Polish, the former ones occur at the beginning of the sentence and in proper names. In English their use is far more extensive and comprises the names of the days, months, languages, nationalities, the first person singular, etc. Although the overuse of the capital letters may be the result of interference from English, their use below may also be an outcome of confusing the type of the school written in small letters with its proper name written with capital letters:

(...) dla uczniów drugiej klasy Liceum Ogólnokształcącego i Profilowanego oraz dla nauczycieli języka obcego.

Another category concerned the use of apostrophes to indicate the possessive case with the foreign names. In Polish, the apostrophe is applied whenever the final part of the name is not pronounced in the same way as it is spelled. One justification for misusing apostrophes may be difficulty finding the proper pronunciation of the foreign names as not all of them are listed in the dictionaries. On the other hand, the rules on their use with foreign names in Polish may be insufficiently learnt as they are rarely taught explicitly. The following possessive cases of the same name were written differently by the same writer in two successive sentences:

- (1) ... słowa Michaela Lewis'a...
- (2) ...założenia podejścia Lewisa...

Since the last letter of *Lewis* is actually pronounced, the latter graphical representation is more accurate. The sentences, however, illustrate insecurity in the use of apostrophe. What is more, the two forms of graphical representation suggest that the writer was aware of the spelling options, however, their use was more intuitive than knowledge driven.

The full stop mark at the end of the sentences was present in the whole of the corpus data. However, the use of the full stop mark after numbers in phrases in the

genitive case was either unlearnt or forgotten. In the following example, the missing full stop mark was highlighted in red.

Temat został zrealizowany głównie w oparciu o kwestionariusze przeprowadzone w grupie 40. studentów...

Punctuation sheds some more light on attrition of the learnt *versus* acquired language elements. While it may be arguable whether certain content language items have been learnt or acquired, punctuation is the area of language which is developed in an instructed context. Thus, losing one's competence in the realm of punctuation speaks for the argument that formally learnt language items are ones of the first to be forgotten.

2.4. Sample summary texts

It may be claimed that an occasional use of a particular structure or phrase illustrated on single examples may not be considered as a sign of language attrition as there is always a range of psycho-linguistic factors at play during writing. However, the question is how to interpret the 'occasional' errors when a significant number of a variety of them occur in a relatively short text? The two sample texts below have been chosen from the corpus data as examples.

The sample text 1 contains lexical misuses (both content words and conjunctions), errors of coherence and logic, wrong punctuation, production of complicated phrases, wrong word order and informal expressions. There are not many repetitions of the same type of errors. However, the text style is affected by the total number of different language errors. As a result, the short paragraph is quite difficult to follow. The text lacks coherence and the reader has to make guesses about the relationships within and between the sentences.

While the sample summary 1 represents a collection of various errors, the sample summary 2 is slightly different in terms of the fewer number of different categories of language misuses and more repetitions of the same lexical items and grammatical structures. The text manifests the exclusive use of the passive voice structures consisting of the verb *to be* and *past participle*. The paucity of lexical expressions may be seen in repetitions of the word *dotyczyć* [*concern*] and *użytkownicy/uczący się języka obcego* [*FL users/learners*].

Both texts contain vivid examples of punctuation errors. The colon mark in the second text is used with one set of examples only, the capital letters are used after hyphens and in the middle of the sentences, and commas are ignored even where they are absolutely necessary (the missing commas are marked in red).

Sample summary 1

W pracy tej omówiono szereg czynników wpływających na funkcje spełniane przez uczniów jak również nauczycieli, na podejście do wykonywanego zawodu oraz stosowanie techniki nauczania języków obcych w celu osiągnięcia wymiernych wyników. Jednymi z najważniejszych są tutaj okoliczności w jakich pracują nauczyciele, jako że to właśnie różne środowiska wpływają na zachowanie nauczyciela oraz na to, jakie role i funkcje przyjdzie mu spełniać.

Komentarz [ab1]: Rzeczownik "funkcje" powinien zostać zastąpiony rzeczownikiem "role" ponieważ odnosi się do uczniów i nauczycieli w tym znaczeniu. / The noun 'functions' referring to teachers and learners represents a lexical misuse and should be replaced with 'roles'.

Komentarz [ab2]: Określenie niejasne – czytelnik nie wie o jakiej technice nauczania mowa. / Underproduction – the reader is not provided with any information on the kind of the teaching technique in question.

Komentarz [ab3]: Fragment niespójny z poprzednim zdaniem. Początek zdania odnosi się do do „wyników” z poprzedniego zdania. Jednak dalsza część opisu nie stanowi logicznej kontynuacji. / The beginning of the sentence is logically incoherent with the previous one. It refers to the noun 'wyników' (results of teaching) and then suggests the example of those results as 'okoliczności pracy' (working circumstances).

Komentarz [ab4]: Brak przecinka. / Lack of a comma.

Dla przykładu, niektóre instytucje pozwalają swym pracownikom na podejmowanie decyzji w kwestiach takich jak: autonomia, metody nauczania czy użycie dodatkowych materiałów. Inne natomiast, decyzje takie pozostawiają organowi nadzorującemu pracę nauczycieli, ograniczając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do osoby, która wyłącznie wykonuje powierzone jej obowiązki. Nawet jeśli, to na nauczycielu spoczywa odpowiedzialność za sposób, w jaki uczy, role, jakie pełni on w klasie dość często wzajemnie się wykluczają.

Komentarz [ab5]: Brak dwukropka. / Lack of a colon.

Komentarz [ab6]: Zapożyczenie, które można zastąpić bardziej zróżnicowanymi wyrażeniami, tj.: „wykorzystanie”, „sposób prezentacji”. / There are other synonyms for that word which are not a direct FL translation and which combine with the noun 'materiały' (materials), such as 'wykorzystanie', 'sposób prezentacji'.

Komentarz [ab7]: Niepoprawny szyk zdania, który powinien być zmieniony na: „Natomiast inne instytucje, pozostawiają takie/tego typu decyzje...”. / Incorrect word order, which should be improved as follows: 'Natomiast inne instytucje, pozostawiają takie/tego typu decyzje...'

Komentarz [ab8]: Nadprodukcja leksykalna, którą najprawdopodobniej można zastąpić słowem "dyrektor". / Overproduction – the organ supervising teachers in this context is probably 'the director'.

Komentarz [ab9]: Błąd logiczny: nie można ograniczyć "rol" do "osoby". / Logical error: the teacher 'role' may not be reduced to a 'person', which the sentence implies.

Komentarz [ab10]: Brak przecinka. / Lack of a comma.

Komentarz [ab11]: Zdanie niespójne, powinno zostać rozdzielone na dwa odrębne zdania. / Incoherent sentence. It should be divided into two separate sentences.

Sample summary 2

Praca niniejsza przedstawia zagadnienie komunikacji pod kątem teoretycznym jak i **praktycznym**, poprzez analizę danych zgromadzonych w wyniku badań. Problem komunikacji **został przedstawiony** od strony psychologicznych zahamowań, których doświadczają użytkownicy języka obcego. Zahamowania te **zostały nazwane** barierami lub blokadami komunikacyjnymi. **Użytkownicy języka obcego** **zostali podzieleni** na dwie grupy wiekowe – młodzież oraz **dorośli**, a co za tym idzie, wszystkie zagadnienia **teoretyczne** dotyczące problemu zahamowań w procesie mówienia, również **zostały podzielone** na dwie **grupy**, zgodnie z kryterium wiekowym przedstawionym powyżej.

Komentarz [ab12]: Brak przecinka. / Lack of a comma.

Komentarz [ab13]: Nadużywanie strony biernej typowej dla j. angielskiego (być + imiesłów bierny). / Overuse of the English passive voice structure (to be + past participle).

Komentarz [ab14]: Nadużywanie strony biernej typowej dla j. angielskiego (być + imiesłów bierny). / Overuse of the English passive voice structure (to be + past participle).

Komentarz [ab15]: Powtórzenie określenia z przedostatniego zdania. / Repetition of the phrase from the previous sentence.

Komentarz [ab16]: Nadużywanie strony biernej typowej dla j. angielskiego (być + imiesłów bierny). / Overuse of the English passive voice structure (to be + past participle).

Komentarz [ab17]: Niepoprawna fleksja: „dorośli” zamiast „dorosłych” oraz brak przecinka. / Wrong inflection: ‘dorośli’ instead of ‘dorosłych’ and Lack of a comma.

Komentarz [ab18]: Błąd logiczny. Zdanie insynuuje, że konsekwencją podziału użytkowników języka obcego ze względu na wiek jest podział na „wszystkie zagadnienia teoretyczne”. / Error of logics – the sentence meaning is that the consequence of dividing of the FL users into two age groups is division into ‘all theoretical aspects’.

Komentarz [ab19]: Nadużywanie strony biernej typowej dla j. angielskiego (być + imiesłów bierny). / Overuse of the English passive voice structure (to be + past participle).

Komentarz [ab20]: Brak przecinka. / Lack of a comma.

Część teoretyczna niniejszej pracy opisuje następujące problemy w obrębie **psychologicznej konstrukcji** **uczących się języka obcego**:

-Zagadnienia ogólne (**O**)sobowość, motywacja, wartość ćwiczenia komunikacyjnego postrzegana przez **uczniów**, zaangażowanie, cele, poczucie kontroli oraz przekonania. W przypadku grupy młodzieży (**P**)oczucie własnej wartości oraz grupa rówieśnicza. W przypadku grupy osób dorosłych (**Z**asady **dotyczące** nauki języka obcego oraz stereotypy **dotyczące** dorosłych **uczących się języka obcego**).

Komentarz [ab21]: Nadprodukcja językowa. / Overproduction.

Komentarz [ab22]: Powtórzenie wyrażenia. / Repetition of the phrase

Komentarz [ab23]: Błędy interpunkcyjne: Myślniki postawione w miejscu dwukropka, dużą literę powinna zastąpić mała. / Wrong punctuation: hyphens are used instead of a colon and the capital letters are used instead of lower case letters.

Komentarz [ab24]: Brak przecinka. / Lack of a comma.

Komentarz [ab25]: Brak czasownika w zdaniu i błąd interpunkcyjny. / Lack of the verb in the sentences and punctuation error.

Komentarz [ab26]: Brak czasownika w zdaniu i błąd interpunkcyjny. / Lack of the verb in the sentences and punctuation error.

Komentarz [ab27]: Powtórzenie słowa. / Repetition of the same word.

Komentarz [ab28]: Powtórzenie słowa. / Repetition of the same word.

Komentarz [ab29]: Powtórzenie wyrażenia. / Repetition of the phrase.

2.5. Discussion

The general observation which emerges from the corpus analysis is that the large majority of the texts represent the tendency to repeat certain structures and vocabulary. Different summary texts exhibited repetitiveness of different items what suggested the paucity of the linguistic means. The most repetitive patterns included English passive voice structures and sentences with the simple and continuous aspects of the verb *to be*. Moreover, formal character of the text was often disrupted by informal expressions. Switching from formal to informal style fits Dressler's (1991) definition of monostylism and may be symptomatic of L1 attrition. Monostylism is understood here as exploiting the limited repertoire of linguistic means and as resorting to informal rather than academic style whenever the writer experiences difficulty retrieving the target formal patterns and vocabulary.

International words and structures were used with greater frequency. The items shared across languages were apparently found unmarked, i.e. less exceptional in the bilingual context. According to Seliger and Vago's (1991) definition of L1 attrition within the framework of the markedness theory, the preference of the unmarked L2 items over the L1 marked items may be symptomatic of L1 attrition. From the perspective of a bilingual user, borrowed items, international vocabulary, structures occurring in both languages, etc., have a wider distribution, i.e. relate to both language systems and therefore may be considered less exceptional because they are used twice as often. The preference for the 'universal' language items may also be explained in terms of the brain's cognitive functioning. Operating two languages entails the need for the increased cognitive strain to maintain a wider range of synaptic connections and to economize some of them. Such a perspective also accounts for the preference of the items occurring in both languages over the language specific items.

Language repetitiveness, overuse of universal vocabulary, informal and superfluous phrases, inconsistency in the use of punctuation, long and complex clauses and lack of sentence agreement seem to compose a sort of hybrid language. In that language the text informality is often disguised under the complex and superficially sophisticated phrases. This assumption may be illustrated with the example:

Co więcej, mając pozytywny stosunek do pracy z komputerem w ogóle i używając komputera w procesie uczenia się języka angielskiego poza szkołą, badani nie bardzo wyobrażali sobie możliwość użycia tego środka dydaktycznego na zajęciach w szkole.

As can be observed, the attempt to adhere to the formal context, which was partially achieved through the use of the phrases, such as *proces uczenia się* [learning process] and *środek dydaktyczny* [didactic means], was unsuccessful because of the informal expressions, such as *nie bardzo wyobrażali sobie* [they could hardly imagine]. Within the single sentence, there were frequent repetitions of the words *komputer* and *użycie*. Finally, the phrases, such as *mając pozytywny stosunek do pracy z komputerem w ogóle* [having the positive attitude toward working with the computer in general] and *możliwość użycia tego środka dydaktycznego na zajęciach w szkole* [the possibility of using this didactic means during the classes at school] are superfluous and their content is blurred by the exaggerated and complex form.

An illustration of approximate proportions between erroneous language patterns found in the corpus data is presented in Figure 15. The majority of 32% of language errors consisted of lexical misuses. 26% were syntactic errors whereas the wrong word order was identified in 14% of the examples. Language overproduction and underproduction as well as other style-related errors comprised 19% of erroneous sentence patterns. The final 8% were structural loan translation, i.e. structural calques (Arabski, 1996). Since the categories of syntactic and lexical errors were quite extensive, the proportions between them are additionally presented in Figure 16.

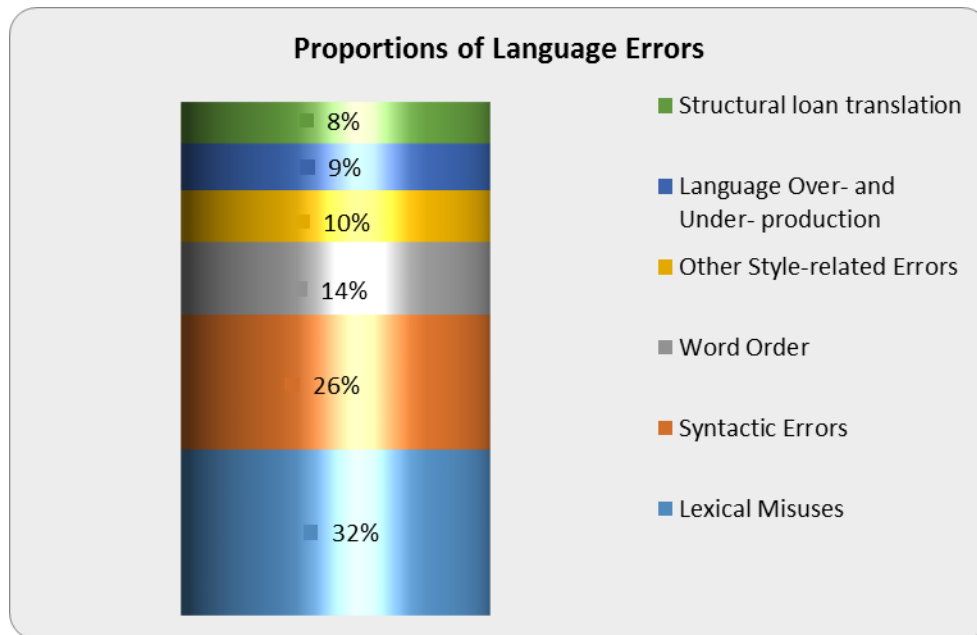


Figure 15. Proportions of erroneous language structures.

In this study, in the lexical area, approximating patterns in the number of 35% comprised the largest group of errors. The remaining errors consisted of borrowings in 17%, repetitions in 13% and lexical loan translation in 11%. Various instances of code switching, casual language use and changes of meaning constituted less than 10% each.

In the similar context of study, Latkowska (2006) observed differences in the lexical choices by bilingual and monolingual students. Her participants, also students of English at the University of Silesia, appeared to have lost the ‘specificity of meaning’ when performing a picture-naming task in their L1. The students produced more diverse answers than monolinguals, however, some of those answers were of little accuracy. In other words, more diverse but less accurate meanings seemed to have been used as a replacement for the specific, yet unavailable or difficult to retrieve terms. In Latkowska’s study, the preference for L2 words and concepts was also manifested through semantic extension and narrowing. Although those preferences were not statistically significant, the observable divergence from the monolingual norm might be symptomatic of - using Latkowska’s phrase - ‘underlying L2-induced restructuring processes.’

The results of this study and Latkowska's (2006) study allow for a similar assumption, i.e. approximation, repetition, lexical borrowing and translation appear to have been applied to make up for the specific terms, which were unavailable at the time of language production. The outcomes of both studies support the notion of different linguistic processes operating in bilingual minds. Latkowska does not consider the results of her study as a confirmation of attrition in progress but rather believes them to be evidence for Cook's (2003) multicompetence model and a different state of mind.

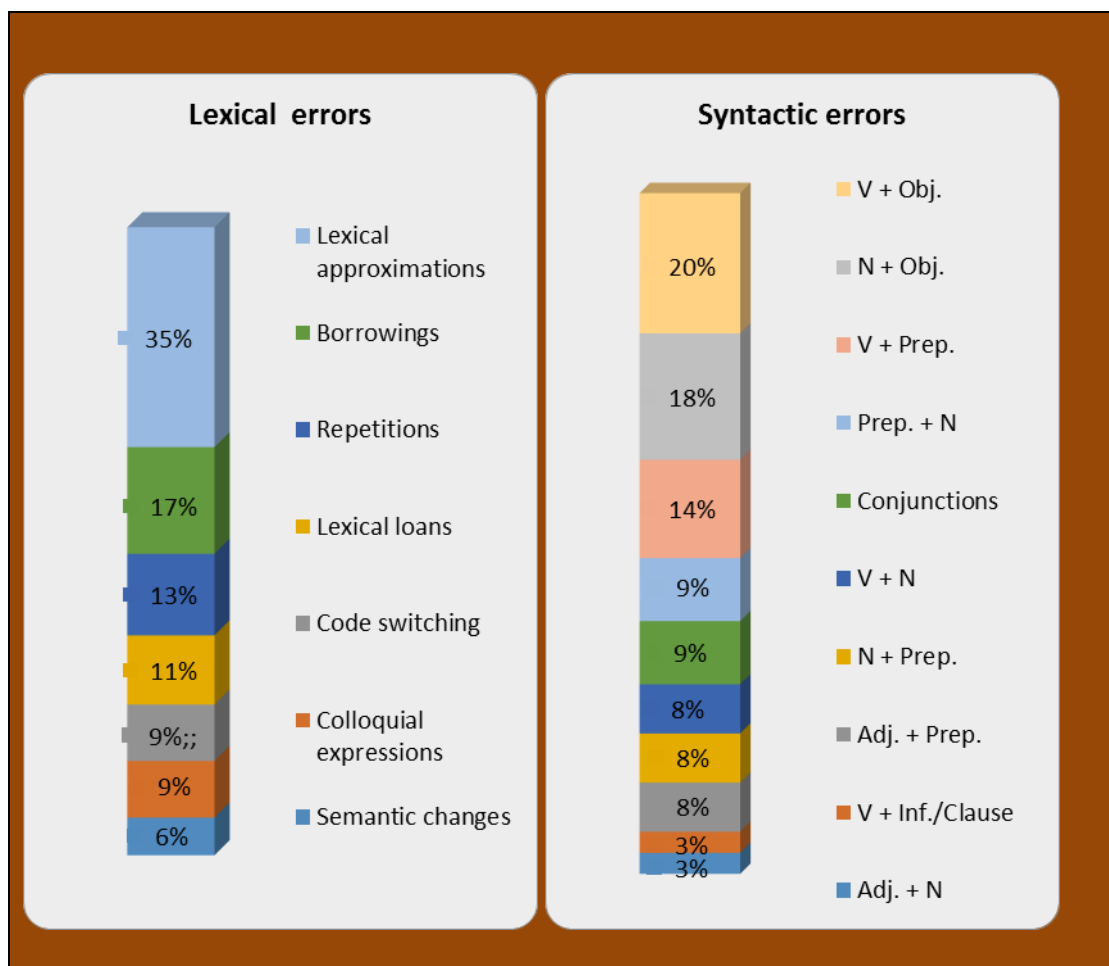


Figure 16. Proportions of categories of errors.

In the area of syntax, disturbances in verb + object constructions were noted in the number of 20% of all identified errors whereas noun constructions with objects constituted 18%. Errors in the area of the verb + prepositional phrases comprised 14% of all structural errors and the wrong use of conjunctions was identified in 14% of them. The proportions of the remaining categories were less than 10% each. Figure 16 shows the proportions of the number of different errors identified within those categories.

Yağmur (2004) investigated production of syntactic structures by the immigrant Turkish in Australia with a 'relativisation production task'. The study showed that the immigrant group obtained weaker scores than the native control group. What is more, some immigrant L2 users focused on meaning more than on the form. Yağmur's findings are particularly relevant to this study in which focusing on meaning rather than form has been noticed, too.

The syntactic errors identified in the corpus clearly denoted problems with language control. However, as widely claimed (e.g. Seliger and Vago, 1991; Köpke and Schmid, 2004), although the knowledge about language which underlies competence may remain intact, the retrieval processes may result in the reduced control over language production. Hence, attrition in written production may be due to controlling difficulties rather than deterioration of tacit knowledge.

The summary texts discussed in this chapter contained a wide range of content and structural errors, which have been described and discussed in this chapter. The corpus analysis showed that lexical and structural repetitions were common elements in language production. In consequence, the paragraphs often lacked variety in terms of linguistic devices. The preference for international vocabulary and loan translation indicate that L1 production was under constant revision of the FL system. It is noteworthy that the summary texts were not produced in an instructed setting under time pressure, i.e. not when concentrating would be easily distracted and the allocated time insufficient for diversified language output.

The corpus data consisted of the texts which were re-read and re-written by the students before they were finally submitted. The fact that the number of language errors remained may be regarded as indication of the reduced L1 control. Obviously, there might be voices claiming that the language patterns found in the corpus in this work do not result from attrition but multicompetence. In terms of Cook's (1992) theory of multicompetence, bilinguality is a different state of mind, which may not be compared to the monolingual norm and which leads to the use of non-standard language patterns. Therefore, the question which needs to be addressed is the question about the boundary between L1 attrition and multicompetence and criteria for differentiating between the two. In other words, it seems essential to find out where attrition ends and where multicompetence begins.

The theory of multicompetence discussed earlier in this work emphasizes that a bilingual should be expected to use the native language in a different manner than a monolingual L1 user. Production by multilingual speakers may contain non-standard forms, borrowings, meaning extension, etc. Nonetheless, it sounds reasonable to assume that language production must adhere to the prescribed L1 principles. Factors such as linguistic negligence and forgetting language rules should not be excused under the disguise of multicompetence.

The summary texts' analysis has shown that the level of L1 performance is not necessarily characterized by the frequency with which the same language errors appear in the text but by the range of different errors and inconsistency of their occurrence. The apparent randomness in the use of various non-standard language patterns may signal loss of L1 control and erosion of L1 knowledge. Punctuation, being used inconsistently or avoided, belongs to the most feasible examples. Problems with L1 control are also seen in sentence disorganization. It must be emphasized that although the Polish language is inflectional, there are still certain syntactic rules to adhere to. There have been contexts in which those rules seem to have been largely ignored. Additionally, casual and unnecessary language with a number of lexical misuses constituted the transgression of the prescribed norm for the formal piece of writing.

Although the corpus data contained a great deal of linguistic deviations, innovations and FL influences, it is my belief that explaining them in the onset as multicompetence would pose a danger of categorizing L1 negligence as a product of bilingualism. One should speak of multilingualism only when enough effort is invested in maintenance of languages. Loss of language items because of negligence may only be referred to as attrition. The presented results allow for an assumption that attrition might be present at the level of L1 production by proficient FL users in the L1 context.

3. Sociolinguistic questionnaire

As mentioned, the sociolinguistic questionnaire was constructed to provide the background description of the students and their self-perception of L1 and FL proficiency. The questionnaire also elicited information about the contexts of L1 and FL dominance and motivation to develop FL and maintain L1. The students were asked about the acquaintance with the term ‘attrition’ in order to eliminate any knowledge-driven responses.

3.1. Contexts and amount of L1 *versus* FL use

GROUP A

The dominant language in Group A was Polish in all the contexts except the university environment. Interactions with family, friends and the inner speech were mainly conducted in Polish. All the informants who owned pets spoke in L1 to them. Those students who worked (including teachers) also used L1 with much greater frequency than FL. Overall, FL use among the first year university students remained at a much lower level than in the case of L1 and the dominant language was definitely Polish.

Table 28. Average use of languages in various contexts in Group A

CONTEXT	AVERAGE USE OF ENGLISH	AVERAGE USE OF POLISH
WORK	3.6%	17.3%
UNIVERSITY	70.5%	29.5%
FAMILY	6.5%	93.5%
FRIENDS	12.9%	87.1%
PETS	0%	53%
INNER SPEECH	29.4%	70.6%

GROUP B

In Group B, English was predominantly used in the university context. Similarly to the first group, Polish was the dominant language for family interactions, social contexts, pet-talk and inner speech. The average FL and L1 use in various contexts is presented in Table 29.

Table 29. Average use of languages in various contexts in Group B

CONTEXT	AVERAGE USE OF ENGLISH	AVERAGE USE OF POLISH
WORK	12.5%	20%
UNIVERSITY	67.2%	32.8%
FAMILY	3%	97%
FRIENDS	27.5%	72.5%
PETS	3.3%	46.7%
INNER SPEECH	33%	67%

It is interesting to note that the amount of English use increased in professional and social contexts and rose slightly in the cases of inner speech and pet talk when compared to Group A. However, it must not escape notice that L1 remained dominant in all contexts except university. This was an expected proportion which showed the specificity of FL as the language of instruction in the university context. However, the amount of FL use in other situations, such as conversations with friends, colleagues and inner speech was on the increase. At the same time, the amount of FL use at the university showed a slight decrease when compared with Group B.

GROUP C

In Group C, the interactions within the students' families as well as with friends were held in similar proportion as in the first two groups. The mother tongue was predominant in 94% of family exchanges and in 86% of interactions with friends. It may not pass unnoticed that the number of students working as teachers rose from approximately 21% in Group A through 32% in Group B to 47% in Group C. In a similar vein, the average amount of FL use in the professional environment rose from approximately 3% in Group A through 12% in Group B to 32% in Group C. It comes as a surprise that the use of English at the university faced a steady decline from 70.5% in the first group to 60% in the last group. In comparison with the previous groups, the FL use was decreasing and L1 use - increasing despite a better level of FL proficiency.

Table 30. Average use of languages in various contexts in Group C

CONTEXT	AVERAGE USE OF ENGLISH	AVERAGE USE OF POLISH
WORK	32%	15%
UNIVERSITY	60%	40%
FAMILY	5%	94%
FRIENDS	14%	86%
PETS	0,23%	59%
INNER SPEECH	20,5%	53,5%
OTHER: on holidays	0,8%	5%

GROUP D

In Group D, the results showed a further decline in the amount of the FL use in the university and social contexts. The language of communication between family members and with pets was largely restricted to Polish. As seen in Table 31, the amount of FL use in professional ELT setting increased as a consequence of the rising level of employment among the students. English was also more frequently used for inner speech. In general, FL use was more intense than in the previous groups, however, L1 was still dominant.

Table 31. Average use of languages in various contexts in Group D

CONTEXT	AVERAGE USE OF ENGLISH	AVERAGE USE OF POLISH
WORK	54%	28%
UNIVERSITY	57%	41%
FAMILY	5%	95%
FRIENDS	21%	78%
PETS	2.3%	75%
INNER SPEECH	39%	57%

To obtain a clearer picture, the tendencies to use English as FL against Polish as L1 have been presented in Figures 17-22. Figure 17 shows the climbing tendency to use FL at workplace (which goes in line with the rising employment in ELT profession in the final years of study).

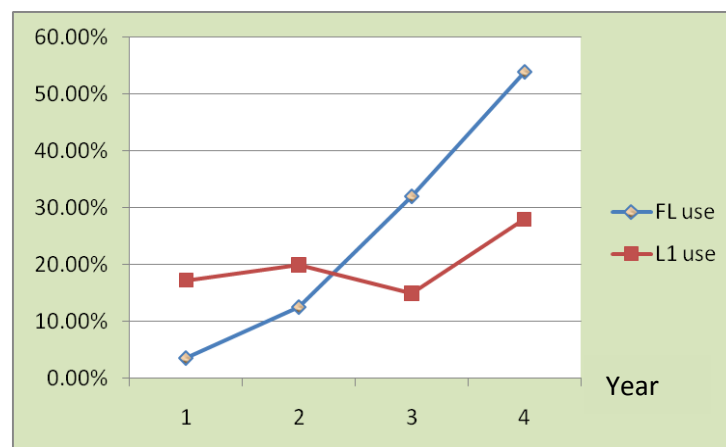


Figure 17. FL versus L1 use in professional contexts according to the year of study.

Figure 18 illustrates proportions of FL and L1 use at the university setting. Against early expectations, the use of FL at university dropped from approximate 70% in Group A to less than 60% in Group D. On the other hand, L1 use increased by approximate 10% in Group D as compared with Group A. One explanation for such a tendency may be that the social relationships toward the end of studies tightened and L1 was a natural means of expressing thoughts and emotions. FL might also be blocked by the affective domain rendering conversations in FL as too awkward (especially when the ideas could be explained in L1).

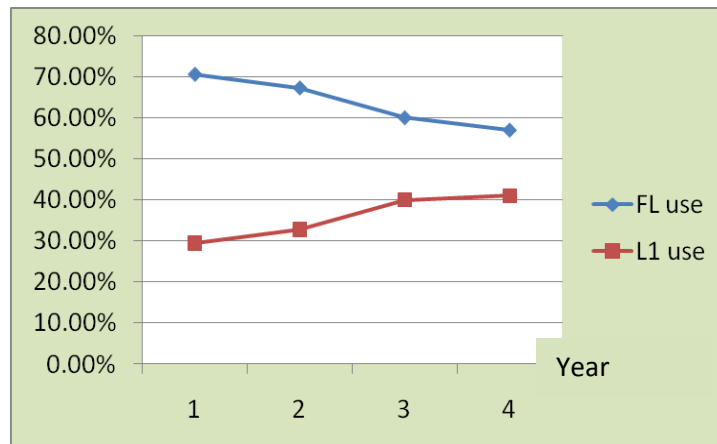


Figure 18. FL versus L1 use at university according to the year of study.

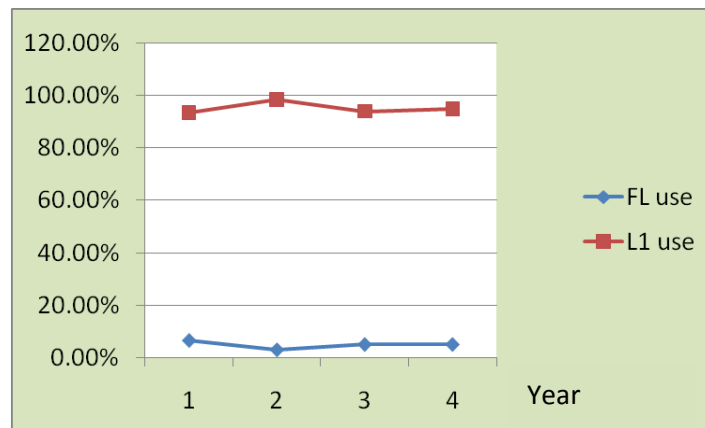


Figure 19. FL versus L1 use with family according to the year of study.

Family interactions were highly monolingual with the mother tongue being the primary channel of communication. FL was employed in less than 7% of family talk. Figure 19 shows that the FL use was maintained at similar levels in all the groups which is marked by the two, relatively straight, lines on the scale.

Figure 20 shows L1 as the main language of social interactions. FL was used most extensively by the second year students and its use was slightly lower in other groups.

Figure 21 shows the increasing use of the mother tongue for pet talk. In this context there should not be no affective filter at play because animals do not provide evaluative feedback which could impact the speakers' self-esteem in a negative way. However, speech directed at animals may also take place in the presence of other people (family members, friends, strangers) and therefore some affective considerations may appear. The results definitely confirm the rising L1 dominance.

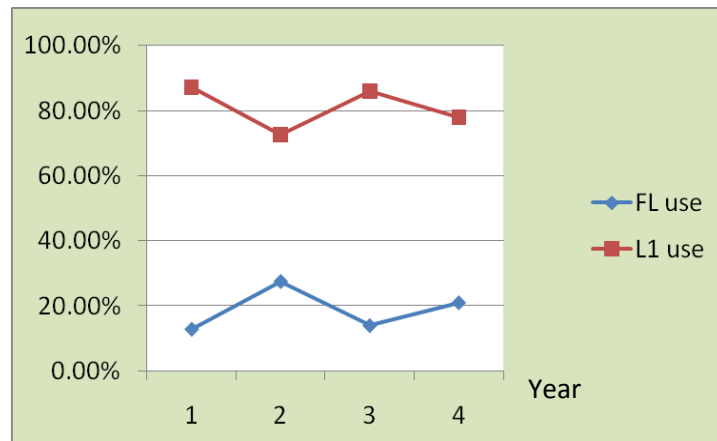


Figure 20. FL versus L1 use for social exchanges according to the year of study.

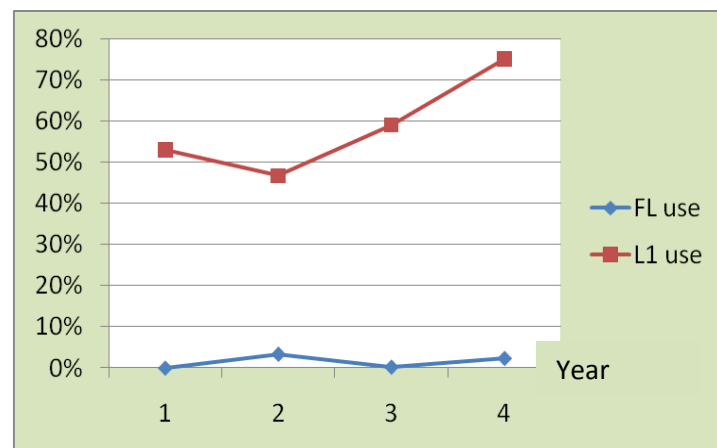


Figure 21. FL versus L1 use in pet talk according to the year of study.

Figure 22 demonstrates that the language of inner voice was predominantly L1 although to a smaller extent than in the case of pet talk and social language use. The fact that FL use in inner speech was maintained at the level of approximately 40% may suggest that both languages were active in the bilingual minds.

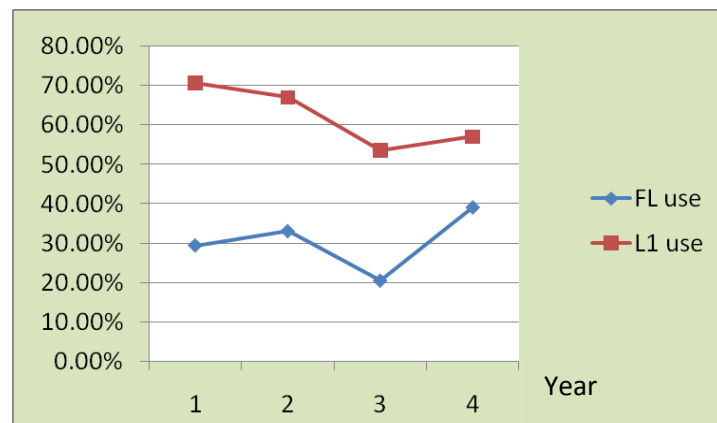


Figure 22. FL versus L1 use for inner speech according to the year of study.

Concluding, L1 substantially exceeded FL use. The amount of FL in professional context was rising due to a larger number of students who found employment in ELT and translation. Against early expectation, the FL use at university did not exhibit a climbing tendency. The reason might be seen in the social use of L1 at university. The overall FL production remained at the level of approximately 30% and L1 – 70%.

3.2. Receptive versus productive skills

Some questionnaire items focused on the preference between receptive reading and productive writing skills in FL and L1. Production and reception are different in the sense that production may contain erroneous language patterns as natural outcomes of on-line language processing connected with language retrieval and integration (e.g. Seliger and Vago, 1991, Sharwood-Smith and Van Buren, 1991) whereas reception involves recognition of the previously acquired language knowledge (and as such should consume less cognitive effort). Thus, it seems reasonable to assume that if language production exhibits symptoms of attrition but receptive competence stays intact, language items are misplaced for active retrieval. It might be presumed that receptive skills should be preferred over productive skills in language which is difficult to retrieve.

Perceptions of receptive and productive FL skills were investigated by Gabryś-Barker (2003). The context of her study was comparable to the context of this study, i.e. the participants were students of English working toward BA and MA degrees and had a similar learning history. In Gabryś-Barker's investigation, reading and writing skills were evaluated higher than listening and speaking. Those results were seen as a consequence of loss of confidence in listening and speaking due to insufficient practice. One may attempt to account for the reluctance to speak and listen in FL with the fact that the skills in question require high comprehension and quick reaction time. Affective filter may be raised when, for instance, reaction time and comprehension are delayed or absent. Unlike reading or writing, speaking and listening leave little room for revision and consulting dictionaries as they take place under time pressure and are more stressful.

The following section of this book deals with preferences between L1 and FL reading and writing.

GROUP A

In Group A, 47% opted for the receptive reading rather than writing. For 16% of the students writing in L1 was chosen over reading and 32% rated reading and writing in Polish at the same level. 5% did not have a choice of preference. As concerns FL skills, 47% of the students preferred to read than write in FL and for 37% writing was preferred over reading.

GROUP B

Within Group B, 55% of the students marked the preference for reading in L1 than writing in L1. 25% of the students held the same attitudes for both reading and writing, 15% had no preference toward either skill and 5% preferred to write in L1 rather than read. In FL, 40% of the students opted for reading rather than writing, 30%

had the same preference for both reading and writing, 25% preferred to write, and 5% claimed to have no preference for either FL reading or writing.

GROUP C

In terms of the perception of receptive and productive L1 skills, the majority of 60% of the students in Group C granted equal status to both reading and writing. 17% pointed to writing, another 17% chose reading and 6% claimed to have no particular preference. In the area of FL, 60% of the students had the same preference for both reading and writing and 34% preferred reading over writing.

GROUP D

In Group D, 50% of the students pointed to reading in L1. 45% marked reading and writing equal. 5% felt resentful toward either L1 reading or writing. In the realm of FL, a slight majority of 54% chose reading over writing. 23% marked both and 18% were in favour of writing. 5% of the students resented both FL reading and writing.

In the study by Gabryś-Barker (2003) reading and writing were evaluated higher by the students than listening and speaking. This study provides a further insight into the relationship between reading and writing. The proportion of the students in each group who decisively pointed to one skill rather than the other is illustrated in Figures 23 and 24.

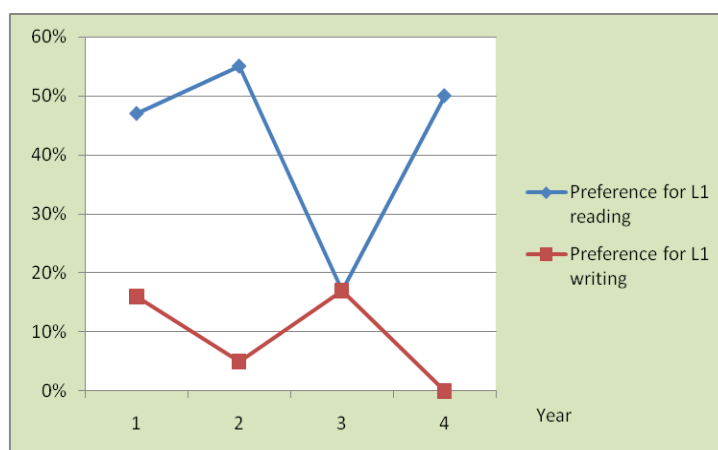


Figure 23. Perceptive vs productive skills' preference in L1.

Generally, in this study the receptive skill of reading rather than writing was chosen by a greater number of students. This may suggest a tendency to avoid cognitive effort connected with production. However, more students preferred to write in FL which - similar to Gabryś-Barker's (2003) conclusion - might be the result of extensive practice in that area. In the area of reading, the difference was not that perceptible. Although in Group B a slightly larger number of the students preferred to read in L1 than in FL, in Group C and Group D more students expressed preference for reading in FL rather than in L1. Once again, it might be the consequence of the specific context of FL instruction. It might also be supposed that since language production requires more cognitive strain, it is shunned.

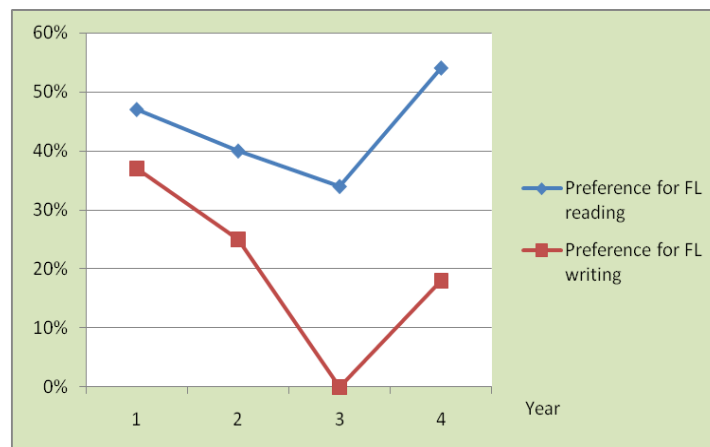


Figure 24. Perceptive versus productive skills' preference in FL.

3.3. Language competence

To better understand how the students perceived their competence, they were asked to provide theoretical definitions of language competence.

GROUP A

For the majority of the respondents in Group A, language competence had a pragmatic dimension, i.e. it was comprehended as the ability to understand and produce the language for effective communication. In some definitions of competence (Table 32) knowledge of lexis and language structure were of primary importance. Competence was viewed as the ability to react appropriately to all sorts of oral and written instruction thanks to extensive knowledge of vocabulary and grammar structures.

Table 32. Definitions of competence in Group A

AREA OF COMPETENCE	DEFINITIONS PROVIDED BY STUDENTS
Pragmatic knowledge	<p><i>Be able to speak as well as a native speaker.</i></p> <p><i>Communicate with all people fluently, to write and read without no mistakes.</i></p> <p><i>Understand almost every word which native speakers use.</i></p> <p><i>Use it in a daily life fluently.</i></p>
Lexical knowledge	<p><i>Know the meaning of all words and be able to use them.</i></p>
Structural knowledge	<p><i>Be greatly acquainted with all the structures of the language and be able to use it correctly in every situation.</i></p>

GROUP B

Some of the comments in Group B highlighted pragmatic aspects of language competence, such as communication with the world, professional progression and self-

development through the access to facilities and technological novelties in FL. For others *competence* meant mastering the language areas to the level of free expression (Table 33).

In this group, 80% of the students evaluated themselves as competent users of Polish as their L1. 20% of the students marked both Polish and English as the languages in which they considered themselves fully competent:

- *I'm a native speaker of Polish and I do practice English with good results.*
- *I am aware of the proper usage of the grammatical structures and my vocabulary is quite extensive.*
- *But I feel more confident when speaking in polish.*
- *I am able to communicate in both languages. I know a lot of vocabulary and most of grammatical rules.*

A degree of insecurity regarding FL competence may be sensed in those comments what seems to be justified taking into account language errors that appeared in them.

Table 33. Definitions of competence in Group B

AREA OF COMPETENCE	STUDENTS' DEFINITIONS
Pragmatic knowledge	<i>You are to be able to produce and understand lg. to be able to communicate with people from all over the world, to be able to have a good job, to be able to use all the facilities of the modern world</i>
Lexical knowledge	<i>I think it means that you are aware of structures you use and also use them well</i>
Structural knowledge	<i>Being able to communicate in all possible situations, produce full grammatical utterances To use it correctly without any difficulties</i>
Fluency in employing the linguistic knowledge	<i>To be able to use a language freely and fluently in all kinds of situations, it involves both productive and receptive skills; to have a good turn of phrase, wide range of vocabulary, correct grammar, to understand and be understood You don't have trouble with contexts, with expressing yourself as much as it would be possible for you in your native language, in environments that are in connection with you; you use language creatively and are able to adjust to situations cropping up, make no mistakes in general.</i>

GROUP C

The definitions of language competence in Group C were more detailed in comparison with the former groups and were grouped according to the area of competence which they referred to (Table 34).

Similarly to the previous comments, confidence in FL (which may not be achieved without the mastery of language areas of lexis, grammar and phonology) was viewed as the main criterion of competence. However, the perception of the importance of the areas of competence varied across individuals. Some students placed more emphasis on vocabulary, some - on grammar and others - on ability to apply the FL knowledge for practical purposes.

Table 34. Definitions of competence in Group C

AREA OF COMPETENCE	STUDENTS' DEFINITIONS
Pragmatic knowledge	<i>To be able to fully understand native speakers of that language and be understood by them. To be able to use it confidently, speak and write in good style, without grammatical mistakes.</i>
Lexical knowledge	<i>It means to know the actual meaning of words, be able to use them in right contexts, have reach vocabulary.</i>
Lexical-structural knowledge	<i>A person with rich vocabulary and aware how to use it properly (appropriate collocations) and also able to construct grammatically correct sentences.</i>
Ideal/native like language	<i>To be able to read/write, speak and listen to the language in at least near-native level (understand practically every type of text, being able to comfortably discuss various topics).</i>

GROUP D

The students' definitions of competence in Group D reflected the ones provided by the previous groups. They may be worded differently but they refer to the same language areas. Examples are presented in Table 35.

54% of the informants in this group claimed to feel fully competent users of L1, 32% considered themselves to have a good measure of competence in both languages and, what is interesting, 14% claimed not to be competent in either of the languages.

Table 35. Definitions of competence in Group D

AREA OF COMPETENCE	STUDENTS' DEFINITIONS
Pragmatic knowledge	<p><i>Being able to reflect all your thoughts using the given language's vocabulary.</i></p> <p><i>To be communicative, accurate and fluent.</i></p> <p><i>Being able to understand and communicate with other users of language.</i></p> <p><i>Be able to communicate in every situation.</i></p>
Structural knowledge	<p><i>To know rules of the language and to be able to apply them in real life situations.</i></p>
Lexical-structural knowledge	<p><i>It means to know a great deal of words and grammar and be able to communicate freely.</i></p> <p><i>To be able to use the right words in the right context, to communicate easily without any grammar mistakes.</i></p>
Ideal/native like language	<p><i>To speak naturally without thinking how to say something.</i></p>

3.4. Self-perception of L1 change

Self-perceptions of L1 change were an important part of the study as they complemented the findings from the corpus data and language tests. The students were asked whether they observed any changes in their L1 under the influence of increasingly advanced FL competence. Those students whose response to the question was positive were further asked to evaluate the observed L1 change either in terms of a benefit or undesired effect of FL development.

GROUP A

A slight majority of 54% of the students in Group A claimed not to have noticed any changes in their L1 that could be attributed to FL influence. However, 21% of the students reported L1 deterioration, which was seen in the lexical retrieval difficulties. 10% of the informants reported to have observed positive FL influence in the realm of vocabulary and 15% were unsure about the influence.

For 58% of the students, L1 maintenance was considered to be of high priority and 42% regarded L1 maintenance as an important element in their careers of translators. These opinions, however, were not supported by comments.

GROUP B

Among Group B, 20% of the students claimed to observe the negative FL influence on L1 and supported their views with the following remarks (some of them contain errors):

I do not notice my mistakes in writing and speaking because nobody sees it.

Sometimes I don't remember certain words in Polish but I remember their English equivalents.

Many clickes from English appeared.

I make some mistakes that are based on shifting some English structures to my native tongue.

If sth is less used in some way it disappears or becomes worse.

15% of the students observed a positive FL impact on L1 pointing to beneficial aspects of language development:

My vocabulary is broader, I am more conscious of some rules and phenomena.

It is connected with grammar mainly.

35% of this group's respondents did not notice any kind of FL influence and produced comments, such as:

I would say that there is not so much good English as it is thought and still Polish is our main language.

I try to think in English and don't link Polish and English.

I have always been very good in Polish.

20% of the students were hesitant:

I didn't think about it. It's hard to say anything that would be true in all cases.

Studying philology and other languages has made me more aware and thus better.

It is difficult to say because I started learning English at the age of 9.

The importance of L1 maintenance was highly recognized among the students in Group B. 80% of them considered it a *very important* and 20% as an *important* constituent part of L1 competence. Those students provided numerous justifications, such as:

I hate when Polish people can't use their language correctly.

I think my Polish language skills are helpful

To be a good translator I need to have a broad lexicon in both languages.

To translate well and also to give good example to my students to be.

A future translator has to be a perfect mother-tongue speaker

As an academic teacher I use Polish.

I am Polish and I wouldn't like to forget my skills because of influence of other language.

It's my native tongue and I love it. I wouldn't like to take a step back in development.

It is very important for me to be a perfect user of my own language.

I think it is still more important than English.

A teacher has to have good proficiency in both languages so that he can effectively teach his students.

You use this language in everyday situations.

It is my mother tongue so I am connected with it since I was born.

As may be concluded, the majority of motives were instrumental in nature. Some opinions, however, highlighted L1 as a part of national identity. Interestingly, a good measure of L1 skills was also perceived as an important instrument in building authority among students.

GROUP C

In Group C, 35% of the students claimed that their Polish language skills had been under the negative influence of English. That influence was believed to have an impact on syntactic structure of Polish sentences and the tendency to apply the borrowing strategy from English to Polish:

Sometimes I use constructions which do not exist in Polish and borrow words which have their Polish counterparts.

29% claimed to have improved their Polish language skills under the influence of English, especially in the realm of vocabulary. They also believed to have improved their metalinguistic awareness. Those students provided the following comments:

The range of my vocabulary is wider due to English words and their equivalents.

While learning to translate texts I've paid more attention to my Polish sentences.

I am more aware of unnecessary borrowings.

12% of the students did not observe any FL influence and 24% were unsure about the possible consequences of FL development.

Maintaining a good measure of L1 skills was *very important* to 70% of the students and *important* to 30% of them. Similarly, the perceived importance of L1 maintenance resulted mostly from the instrumental goal to become respected translators and eloquent L1 users. Unfortunately, there were few comments supporting those claims.

GROUP D

In Group D, 45% of the students considered their L1 to have improved under the influence of English. Those students supplied opinions, such as:

When studying English rules I had an opportunity to recollect some rules of Polish.

I am more aware of the differences between Polish and English grammar, etc. I pay more attention to it.

You are able to notice certain processes making the language, make associations between the languages, develop your range of synonyms.

Another 41% of the students observed a negative impact on the native tongue:

Sometimes I use English sentence order instead of the Polish one.

Especially the range of vocabulary is definitely smaller.

Oftentimes it happens that I forget or confuse words.

Sometimes I do some calques from English but I also improve my Polish while doing translation.

Finally, 14% were uncertain and explained that they did not pay attention to the changes within the languages.

82% of the students perceived L1 maintenance as *very important* and 18% - as *important*. Sparse comments in this group suggested that the importance of L1 was recognized through the prism of better career perspectives.

3.5. Students' motivation

It may be assumed that the students participating in this study were driven by a sort of hybrid motivation propelled by the need for pragmatic language use and better career opportunities. Some comments betrayed highly affective attitudes toward the FL itself and to the FL society and culture. The comments might also be an indication of higher recognition of the western welfare countries against the native, less developed, eastern culture (as suggested by Piller and Takahashi, 2006). This might be seen in the declared feelings of love for FL and attraction to the FL culture and people. However, there were also many instrumental and integrative motives, too.

Table 36 contains a typology of the motives to develop English as a FL on the part of all the students.

Table 36. Types of motivation for FL development

<p>Instrumental motives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>It gives me more possibilities of work, to get a good job.</i> - <i>I want to be a teacher.</i> - <i>I would like to be a translator</i> - <i>I want to be bilingual</i> 	<p>Integrative purposes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>To travel and meet people from other countries.</i> - <i>To communicate with people from all over the world.</i>
<p>Pragmatic reasons</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>To surf in Internet, it is the most often used language in the world.</i> - <i>Because it's useful.</i> - <i>Because it helps to communicate in many places in the world</i> - <i>I like this language and it helped in many situations.</i> 	<p>Affective motivation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Because I like it.</i> - <i>I love it. I think it's a very easy language to learn.</i> - <i>It sounds beautiful.</i> - <i>English is my passion.</i> - <i>I love everything which is connected with UK – its language, culture, music, etc.</i> - <i>I love English. It sounds to me more interesting than Polish.</i>
<p>External pressures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Because my parents wanted me to do so.</i> - <i>It becomes worldwide language and there is no possibility to find a job without knowing it.</i> 	<p>Intrinsic motivation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Because I want to.</i> - <i>I'm interested in linguistics.</i>

3.6. Discussion

A variety of aspects concerning self-evaluations were discussed in this chapter and the data were presented in figures, tables and lists. The main conclusions may be formulated in several points:

1. In terms of the perception of L1 receptive and productive skills, L1 writing received quite low scores and in general terms, reading was evaluated higher than writing.
2. In terms of the perceptions of language dominance, Figure 25 shows dominance of L1. However, it is interesting to note that the perception of L1 dominance was rising towards the end of the studies. Against early assumptions, FL use decreased in line with the year and level of proficiency attained by the students. The declining FL use might be attributed to the development of social bonds within the student community which must have been nurtured through L1.

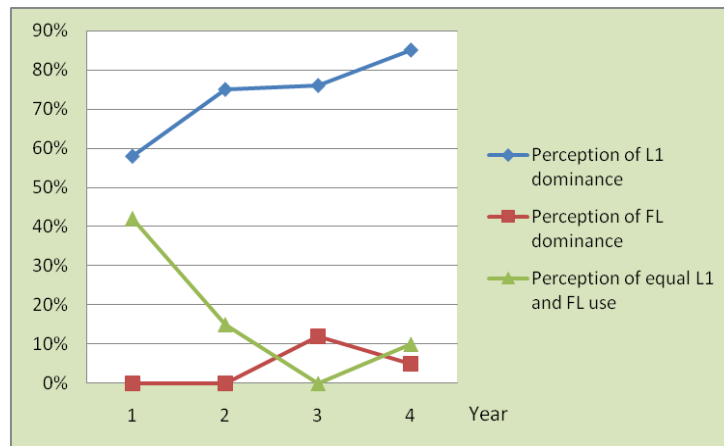


Figure 25. Perceived language dominance.

3. The students provided high evaluations of their L1 and FL proficiency (Figures 26 and 27). It is noteworthy that L1 proficiency was given slightly higher marks than FL proficiency in all the groups except for Group D. In the latter group, L1 and FL proficiency was considered as equal which presumably stemmed from the feeling of achieving the native-like control over FL by the students in their final years. Intermediate level of satisfaction with the attained level of FL proficiency was expressed by 10% of the students in Group A and declined in the remaining groups. Self-criticism of L1 proficiency was sparse.

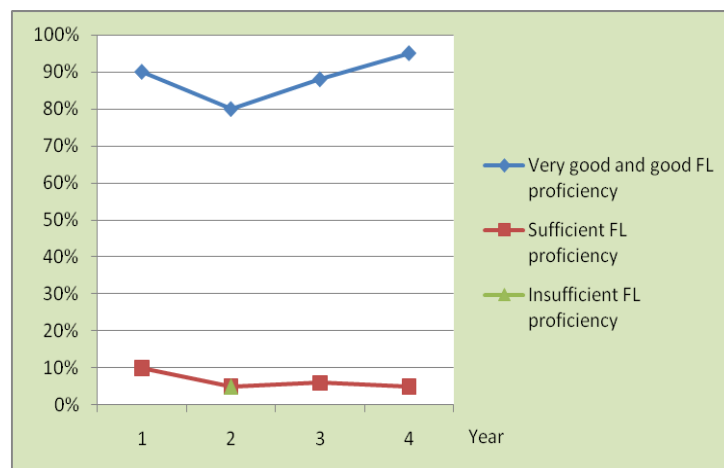


Figure 26. Self-evaluation of FL proficiency.

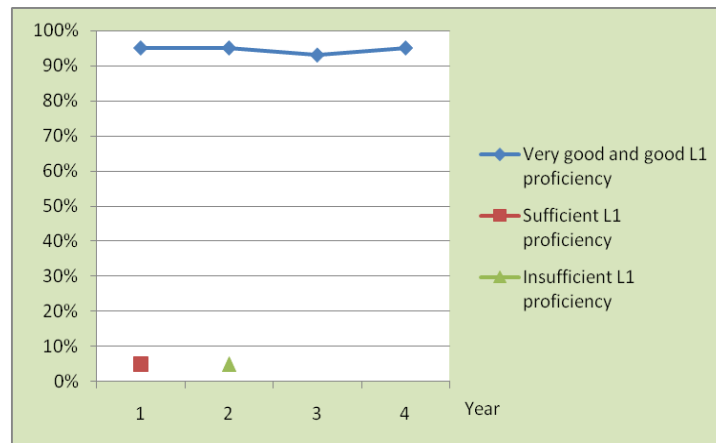


Figure 27. Self-evaluation of L1 proficiency.

4. Table 37 contains a juxtaposition of the evaluations of FL and L1 competence in the four groups. Confidence in language use in four different contexts was obviously greater in L1 than in FL. However, evaluations of FL competence in different situations were also high. What deserves attention is that the self-evaluation of L1 competence in the given contexts was the highest in Group A and lowest in Group D. It is an interesting observation as it suggests that the level of self-criticism in the realm of L1 rose at the final stage of the higher education. This may be seen as an indication of greater metalinguistic knowledge which invites more self-criticism. It may also indicate some early disturbances in L1 processing which may be symptomatic of attrition.

Table 37. Self-evaluation of L1 and FL competence on a scale of 1 to 100

SITUATIONS	ENGLISH LANGUAGE				POLISH LANGUAGE			
	Gr. A	Gr. B	Gr. C	Gr. D	Gr. A	Gr. B	Gr. C	Gr. D
Talk with a friend	85.3	90.9	96	93	99.47	98.25	99.4	96
Talk in a large meeting of friends	76.57	73.75	81.3	79	95.78	87.15	93.8	88
Talk with a stranger	75.78	71.25	84.7	77	93.15	87.5	92.3	89
Talk in a large meeting of strangers	54.73	56	65.5	63	77.89	74.5	79.4	76

Finally, Figure 28 illustrates the students' perception of FL influence on L1. It is quite compelling to note that students' confidence in L1 plummeted from nearly 60% in Group A to 0% in Group D. The very fact strongly speaks in favour of susceptibility of languages, L1 included, to FL influences. Interestingly, perceptions of positive and negative FL impact rose steadily at approximately the same rates. In consequence, in Group D, the equal number of students observed negative FL influence on L1 and positive FL impact on L1. There were also shrinking numbers of students holding neutral opinions about either positive or negative FL influence.

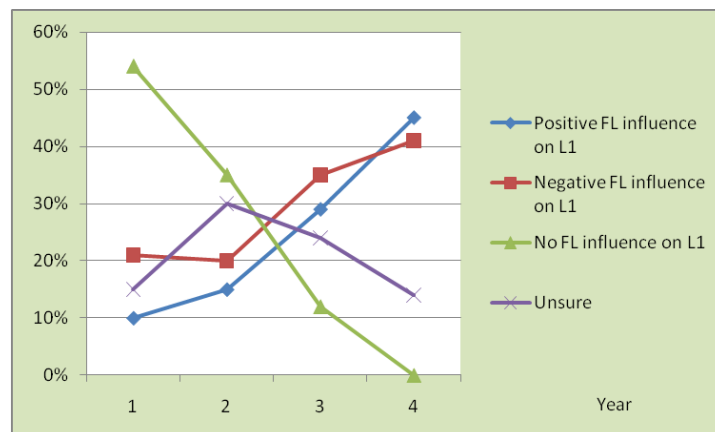


Figure 28. Perception of FL influence on L1.

It seems reasonable to assume that FL increasingly interacted with L1 despite the perception of the rising L1 dominance. The level of FL proficiency must then be the major factor triggering linguistic interaction.

4. C-test

The successive part of the research was based on the C-Test. As suggested by Schmid (2004), the test consisted of five different texts of approximate lengths of 80 – 100 words (Appendix D). The style of the texts ranged from less formal paragraphs about the *Lego* blocks through more literary pieces on cultural issues and forgotten occupations to more scientific astrological and psychological descriptions. The opening and closing sentences were retained for the reader's better comprehension. The middle part of each text contained twenty blank spaces of unfinished words. The procedure of creating the gaps followed Schmid's guidelines and consisted of two steps:

1. deletion the second half of a word in words with the even number of letters,
2. deletion of half + ½ of the word in words with the odd number of letters.

The rationale behind the C-Test was mostly quantitative, i.e. it clearly indicated the number of restored items against the total number of 100 gaps. Its aim was to find out whether there were any signs of decrease in L1 performance which might be attributed to FL interference.

The overall results of C-test were high, as shown in Table 38. The percentage of the correct entries rose from 87.5% in Group A through 90.1% in Group B to 92.5% in Group C. This climbing tendency along the year of study declined in Group D (89.5%). One possible explanation for the slightly lower results among the fourth year students might be that students in Group D had graduated from various higher vocational schools and their prior FL experience might be different than the experience of the remaining groups.

Table 38. C-test total results per group

GROUP A	GROUP B	GROUP C	GROUP D
87.5%	90.1%	92.5%	89.5%

Out of all misuses in the gapped items, 65% were of lexical nature. Students invented words beginning with the provided letters but not matching the context. For instance, in the sentence: *W związku z tym **ograniczamy** sumy, które mogłyby łatwo wesprzeć kulturę, są **marne***, the items in bold seem to be an attempt to complete individual words without attention to their meaning within the text. Other lexical misuses, such as (...) ***smakowicie** rozczytanych w powieściach...* (instead of *smarkaczy*) may have stemmed from the inability to arrive at proper vocabulary. However, one may not completely rule out the possibility of the lack of motivation or simply fatigue on the part of the students which contributed to wrong answers. 31% of errors were morphological and they frequently had the wrong case or number as in the sentence: *Diamenty **należał**...* and (...) *nie wymagała wczytywania się w **dziesiątkach** zawitych przepisów*. There were also sporadic misuses of conjunctions, e.g.: *Z tej okazji przygotowano w parku rozrywki wiele atrakcji dla najmłodszych. **Tak jak** np., **jedna** przejażdżka kolejką....* The proportions language misuses identified in the C-Test are shown in Figure 29.

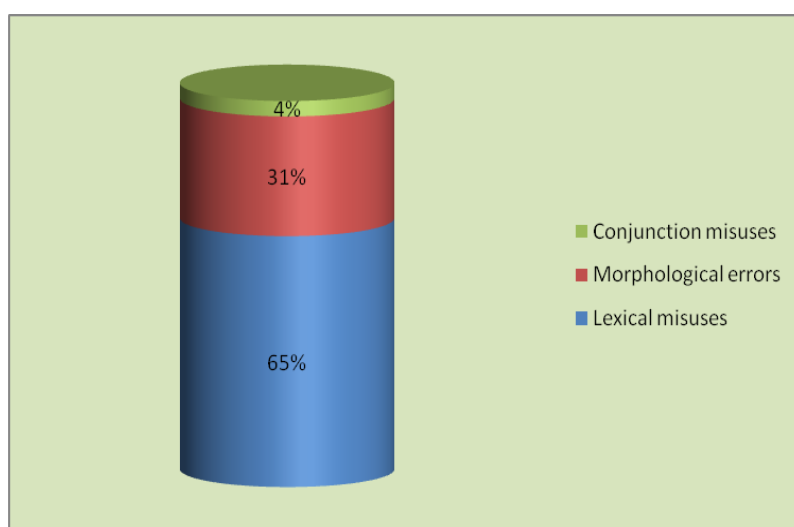


Figure 29. Proportion of errors in the C-Test task.

Concluding, the C-test results suggest that L1 skills were not affected by FL in a negative way. On the contrary, more advanced groups gained better results than the group of first year students. This may only point to enhanced rather than inhibited L1 proficiency. Thus, the C-Test results seem to support Ewert's (2009) findings that bilingualism enhances metalinguistic awareness and attention to L1 form.

5. Appropriateness judgment task

The final stage of the research consisted of the appropriateness judgment test (Appendices F and G). While the C-test was devised to measure L1 competence at the level of production, the appropriateness judgment test was intended to investigate the students' receptive L1 competence. Such measurement was perceived to be a vital stage of the research since, in the light of some studies (e.g. Wegner's (2007) study, cited in Ewert, 2009), highly advanced L2 users are more critical in their judgments on lexical innovation than monolinguals.

In this work, the receptive judgment task consisted of forty sentences taken from the summaries of MA works in the initial stage of research. The sentences contained errors related to L1 structure, style, lexis, punctuation, collocations, coherence and cohesion. There were also correct sentences inserted between the erroneous ones. For each sentence, the students were asked to choose and comment on one of the four marks:

- 0 – Unsure
- 1 – incorrect
- 2 – not quite correct but acceptable
- 3 – correct

The results were calculated individually for each sentence (Appendix G) and presented in the form of graphs according to the categories of errors.

5.1. Punctuation

In the category of punctuation, the use of apostrophes was frequently inconsistent and inaccurate. In Polish, foreign names whose final letters are pronounced, i.e. are not silent, do not require the apostrophe when declined. Thus, their use after the surnames *Skinner* and *Seligman* are unnecessary:

*Rozdział ten zawiera opis czterech głównych elementów teorii atrybucji, przytacza pojęcie behawioryzmu w ujęciu **Skinner'a** oraz opisuje poczucie własnej wartości człowieka widziane przez **Seligman'a**.* [sentence 15]

The wording in the final part of the clause, i.e. *poczucie własnej wartości człowieka widziane przez Seligman'a*, also causes some concern. The phrase seems overloaded with information and one might feel tempted to replace it with a simpler variant: *charakterystykę systemu wartości autorstwa Seligmana*.

The results presented in Figure 30 showed that the recognition of the error was extremely poor (0% in Group A and merely 18% in the remaining groups). It must be underlined that apostrophe is not a commonly occurring punctuation mark in Polish but is used in declination of foreign names. Analyzing the results it may be assumed that the L1 knowledge was insufficiently learnt.

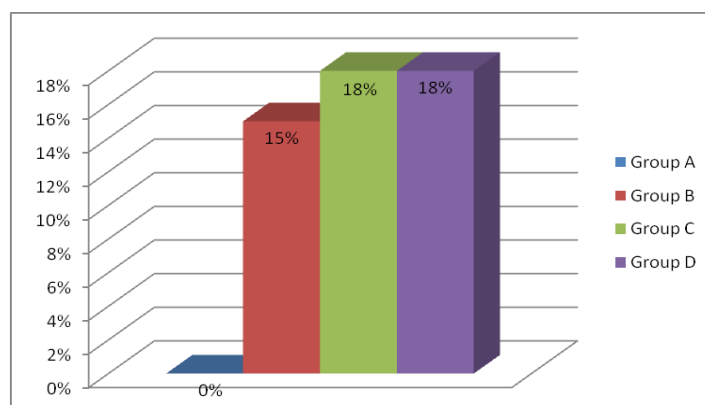


Figure 30. Negative judgments on the use of apostrophes.

A different example of a punctuation error was presented for evaluation in sentence 21. According to *Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny*, the Arabic numerals which represent the ordinal numbers must be followed by the stop mark. However, the sentence did not include any such punctuation marks apart from the full stop mark at its end:

Kwestionariusz składał się 31 pytań i został przeprowadzony w dużych i małych miejscowościach wśród 30 nauczycieli języków obcych w szkołach podstawowych. [sentence 21]

As observed in Figure 31, the sentence was recognized as incorrect by 26% of the students in Group A, 30% of the students in Group B and 47% in Group C. This rising tendency dropped to 32% in the group of the fourth year students.

A number of students in Group A and Group D underlined some correctly used lexical items which for some reasons appeared incorrect to them. For instance, they suggested to replace the word *pośród* with *wśród*, they put extra comma marks or used capital letters in the phrase *Szkołach Podstawowych*. Such results highlight the need for revision and re-learning of L1 punctuation rules. On the other hand, as observed in Figure 31, negative judgments on the missing punctuation marks were increasing the first three groups.

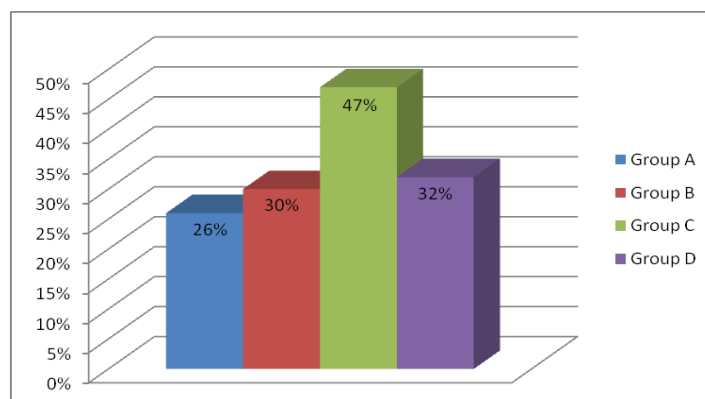


Figure 31. Negative judgments on missing punctuation after ordinal numbers.

The punctuation was the main focus in sentence 36 in which the comma mark before the conjunction *iż* was completely ignored:

Z analizy badań wynika iż zaznajomienie uczniów ze strategiami komunikacyjnymi ma pozytywny wpływ na rozwijanie umiejętności mówienia. [sentence 36]

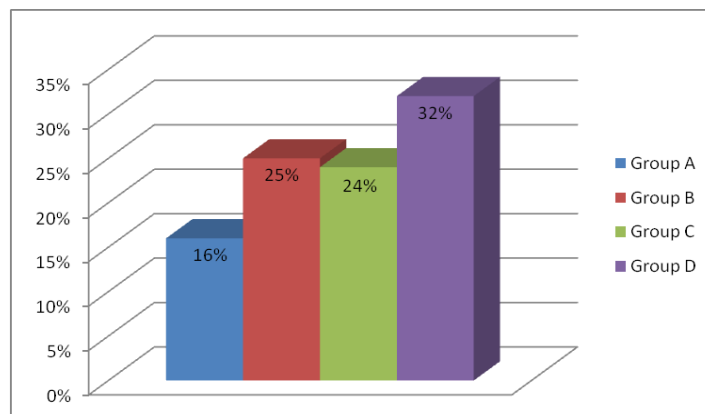


Figure 32. Negative judgments on the lack of a comma before conjunction *iż*.

The violation of the explicit grammatical rule did not meet with substantial recognition. Large majorities of the students in all the groups did not consider the missing punctuation item as an error. However, it must not escape notice that the number of the students who considered the sentence as incorrect because of the punctuation error, rose from 16% in Group A through 25% in Group B and approximately the same number in Group C to 32% in Group D (Figure 32). Those results are rather unsatisfactory taking into account the fact that one of the most basic grammatical rules was violated.

The last sentence in the category of punctuation constituted a compelling example of encroaching of L2 rules on L1 punctuation. The sentence presented for evaluation contained capital letters for adjectives describing nationality instead of the lower case letters (for all Polish adjectives). Additionally, a hyphen should be used between the ordinal number *drugi* and adjective *polski* to signal omission of the verb *jest*.

*Stadium przypadku zostało przeprowadzone z udziałem dwóch osób dwujęzycznych, których pierwszym językiem jest **Rosyjski**, a drugim **Polski**.*
[sentence 40]

Despite serious punctuation errors, less than half of the students in Groups A, B and D, marked the sentence as incorrect. Figure 33 shows that the misused punctuation was largely ignored. However, the students who marked the sentence as incorrect pointed to the wrong use of the capital letters. It might be assumed that more than half of the remaining students forgot the rule and could not repair the phrase.

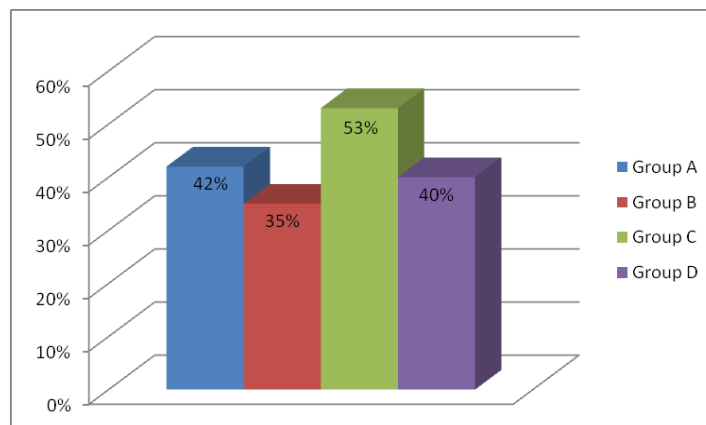


Figure 33. Negative evaluation of the lack of a hyphen and use of capital and small letters.

Summing up, it seems that the knowledge on L1 punctuation as well as its perception was - at best - random. As presented in Figure 34, the poorest average score was achieved by the first year students and the best - by the third year students. The fact that the scores in all the four groups were on the increase (from 21% in Group A through 26% in Group B to 35% in Group C and 30% in Group D), imply rising awareness of punctuation rules. The average results on sentences containing punctuation errors, as may be concluded, can not support the hypothesis that the knowledge of the Polish punctuation rules attrites along the year of studies and level of FL proficiency. However, for the large majority of students, L1 punctuation rules were rather obscure and must have been either learnt imperfectly or forgotten. It is essential to mention that punctuation is not acquired as a part of the tacit L1 knowledge but it is learnt explicitly through instruction. Thus, it seems a necessity for advanced bilinguals to pay more attention to punctuation, to revise and to reinforce L1 punctuation rules.

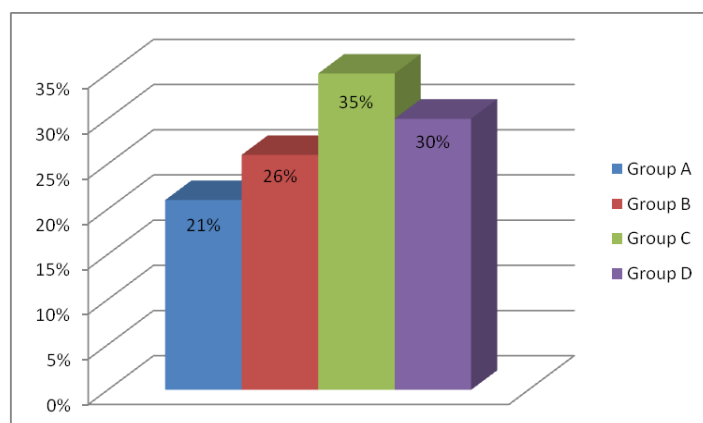


Figure 34. Average judgments on punctuation errors.

5.2. Lexical area

Lexical misuses were brought into focus as the next category. It is obvious that vocabulary used in a piece of writing builds its style. Mixing styles, unless used for some literary purposes, is not considered stylistically appropriate. In sentence 16, however, the formal character of the text was disrupted with a rather colloquial term *lamany* [broken] to refer to low FL skills:

*Główne postacie występujące w 'Rates of Exchange' to osoby, które posługują się **lamany** językiem angielskim, aby móc porozumieć się z brytyjskim wykładowcą przebywającym w ich kraju.*

[sentence 16]

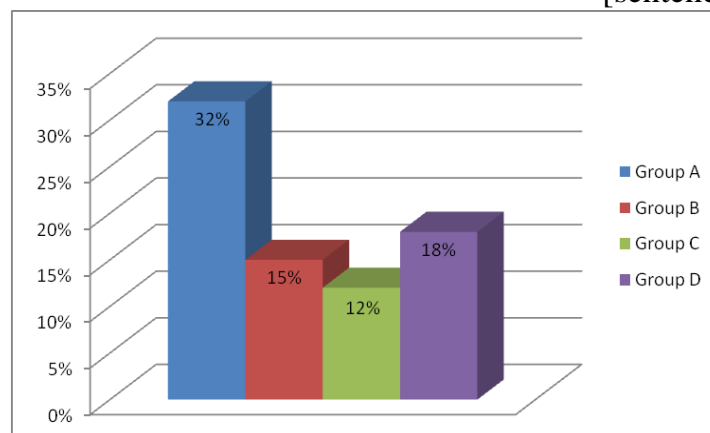


Figure 35. Negative evaluation of the term *lamany*.

Figure 35 shows the minority of the students in all the groups who considered the sentence to be incorrect. Perception of the stylistically inappropriate word was not very high. What is more, the number of the negative judgments was declining from 32% in Group A to 15% in Group B, 12% in Group C and 18% in Group D.

Sentence 27 was as an interesting instance of FL interference in the realm of vocabulary:

*Celem opisanych badań było zgromadzenie danych o sposobie postrzegania ćwiczeń **dramatycznych** w grupie nastoletnich uczniów.*

[sentence 27]

In this sentence, the adjective *dramatyczny* [dramatic] must have been mistaken for *dramaturgiczny* [drama] taking into account the English title: 'Perception of drama techniques and the ways they motivate adolescent students to learn a second language'.

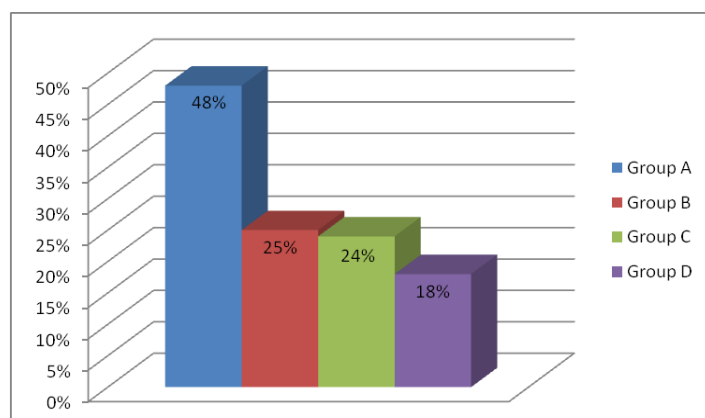


Figure 36. Negative evaluation of the phrase *ćwiczeń dramatycznych*.

Figure 36 shows that nearly half of the students in Group A marked the pattern as incorrect. The students either underlined the misused phrase or corrected the first letter from *d* into *g*, thus assuming that *dramatycznych* must have been mistaken for *gramatycznych*. The number of negative judgments decreased in other groups.

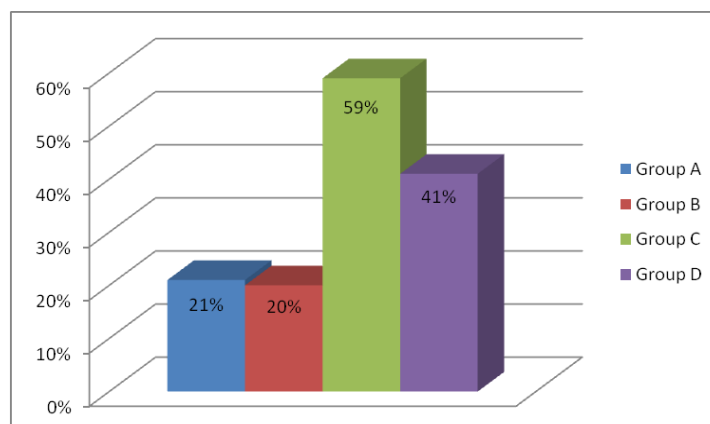


Figure 37. Affirmative judgments on the phrase *ćwiczeń dramatycznych*.

It was also quite interesting to observe that larger numbers of Group C and Group D accepted the sentence as correct (Figure 37), completely ignoring the fact that the adjective *dramatyczny* had been evidently put in the wrong context. That suggested that the distinction between the terms *dramatic* and *drama* in L1 became increasingly blurred in line with FL development and presumably under its influence.

In sentence 29, the adverb *teoretycznie*, i.e. *theoretically* was used to refer to the *theoretical* part of the thesis:

*Rozdział pierwszy **teoretycznie** określa ogólne założenia metodyczne.*

[sentence 29]

As the two terms carry different meanings, it becomes obvious that the pattern used in this sentence was erroneous and should be replaced with an adjective *teoretyczny*, divided by the punctuation marks. The adverb in sentence 29 changed its intended meaning. However, looking at Figure 38, it might be assumed that its identification must have been quite demanding. It might be the case that under FL influence the difference between the function of adjectives and adverbs and the distinction between the meanings of *theoretical* and *theoretically* became unclear. As shown in Figure 38, less than half of the students in each group marked the sentence as incorrect. The best result of 48% was achieved by Group A and it was followed by 41% of Group C and 36% of Group D. The lowest score of 15% was attained by Group B. Although in minority, the students who suggested improvements to the sentence either underlined the adverb or suggested other expressions, such as *teoretyczny/w teorii/ogólne teoretyczne założenia*.

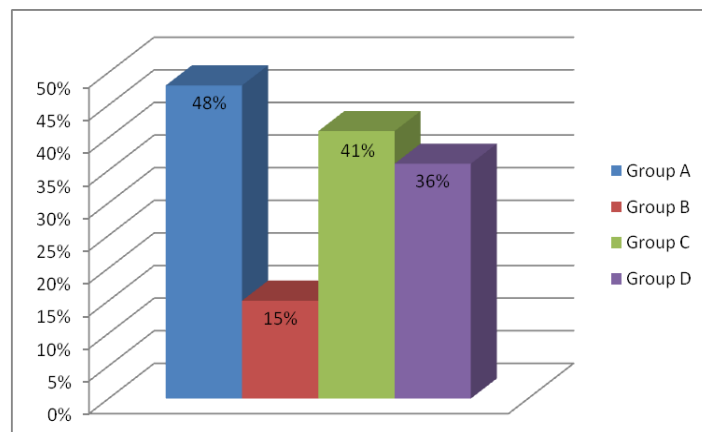


Figure 38. Negative evaluation of the word *teoretycznie*.

Sentence 37 represented a compelling example of the cross-linguistic interference:

*W badaniach właściwych przeprowadzony został eksperyment z **incydentalnym** doborem próby.* [sentence 37]

In all probability, the term *incydentalny*, i.e. the one which was misused, underwent the process of loan translating from English into Polish. However, the source phrase which was literally translated into Polish was an erroneous approximation of the collocation *random sample*. Since the source collocation could not be successfully retrieved, the adjective *random* was replaced with the similar meaning of *incidental*, which contributed to the ill-formed collocation of *incidental sample*. The phrase must have been then translated into Polish, preserving the phonological similarity. The result was a non-existent lexical combination – it does not occur in either the dictionary of modern Polish language by Markowski (2008) or in the most recent publication of the English borrowings in Polish by Mańczak-Wohlfeld (2010). In the dictionary of Polish, *incydentalny* means *of little significance* or *occurring sporadically*, however, it has not yet been extended to refer to *randomness* as it was the case in sentence 37.

Figure 39 shows that the sentence was marked as incorrect by half of Group A and Group C, 36% of the students in Group D and 15% in Group B. There were not many judgments evaluating the sentence as accurate either (large numbers of the students expressed uncertainty). A small exception was Group B, 45% out of whom marked the sentence as acceptable and attained the lowest result in terms of accuracy of judgment.

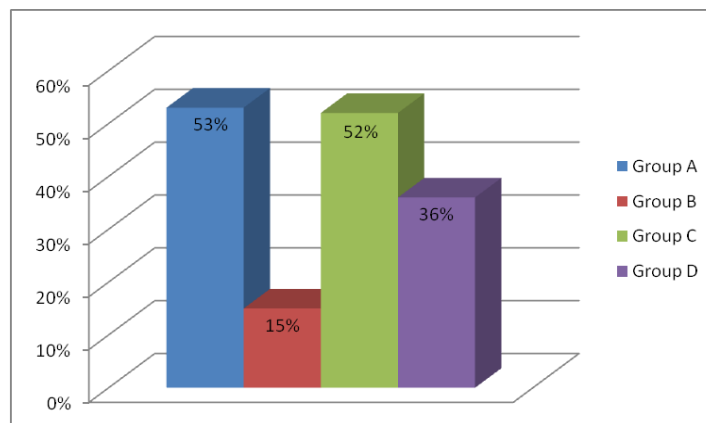


Figure 39. Negative evaluation of the phrase *incidentalny dobór próby*.

In another sentence, the term *profil* [*profile*] was presumably used to refer to the background information about the students. The word itself, however, has two meanings in Polish. The first meaning refers to the side of the human face whereas the second meaning is related to the range and character of something. In this context, it was used with reference to students in the following context:

*Celem niniejszej pracy magisterskiej było znalezienie odpowiedzi na pytanie, jaki **profil** reprezentują studenci uczący się języka obcego metodą Berlitz.*
[sentence 38]

There is no such collocation as *reprezentować profil* [*to represent a profile*]. One may possibly speak about *the profile of something*, which means the character, nature or the program of something. However, in this context the use of the term is, at best, unfortunate as it elicits associations with the side view of students' faces (which, taking into account the general sense of the sentence, was not the target meaning). It is difficult to decide whether the term was intended to refer to the type of attained education, e.g. humanistic *versus* scientific, or to more general background information.

In terms of judgments on sentence 38, 53% of Group A accurately provided negative evaluation of the pattern in question. The results in the groups of the second and third year students were lower and dropped correspondingly to 25% and 12%. Group D achieved a higher score of 36% as shown in Figure 40. On the whole, negative judgments of the lexical item alleviated along the year of the study. The tendency to mark the pattern as correct or acceptable was increasing in the first three groups. This, similar to judgments on sentence 37, may be accepted as an indication of greater tolerance to some foreign borrowings under FL impact.

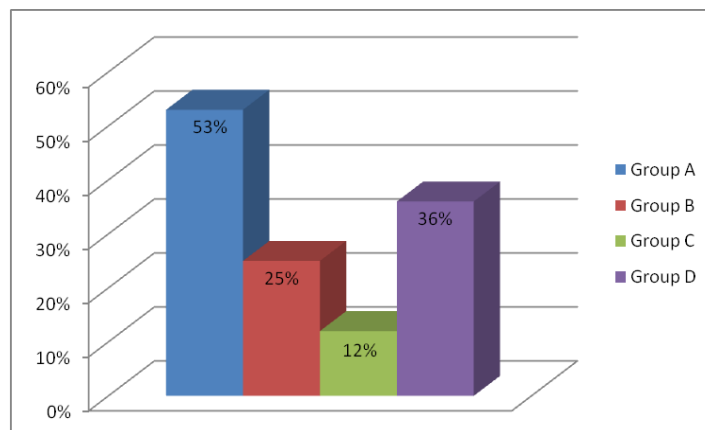


Figure 40. Negative evaluation of the word *profil*.

Sentence 39 contained the word *appendix* which was another example of the lexical borrowing. The borrowing successfully replaced L1 equivalents, such as *załącznik* and *apendyks* (with the latter one being already a borrowing adjusted in terms of Polish spelling rules):

*Praca niniejsza zawiera również **appendix** stanowiący zbiór narzędzi badawczych.* [sentence 39]

The physical and phonological proximity of the cognate words in both languages must have blocked the knowledge about their distribution between the languages. As seen in Figure 41, the borrowing was perceived as incorrect by the large numbers of Group C and the minorities of the remaining groups. However, for approximate 40% of the students in Group A, Group B and Group D the sentence was appropriate and the students did not recognize foreign spelling of the word. The difference was either too subtle or L1 knowledge on spelling rules was already restructured according to FL rules.

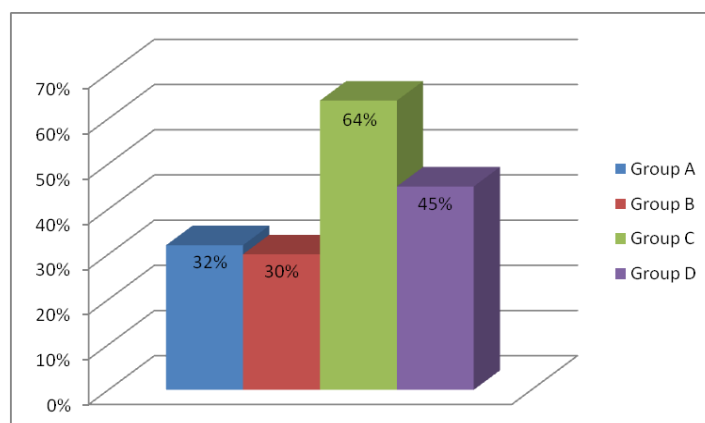


Figure 41. Negative evaluation of the word *appendix*.

The mean scores attained by the four groups on judgments on lexical misuses are presented in Figure 42. The average results on lexical misuses showed that the first year students were the most critical of lexical misuses. However, the number of negative evaluations decreased slightly along the year of study. Group A obtained the result of 44% whereas the number of negative judgments in Group B dropped to 21%. The results achieved by the groups of the second, third and fourth year students remained at

the level of 34% and 31%. The results might be a subtle indication that more proficient FL users become slightly more tolerant of FL vocabulary and lexical errors.

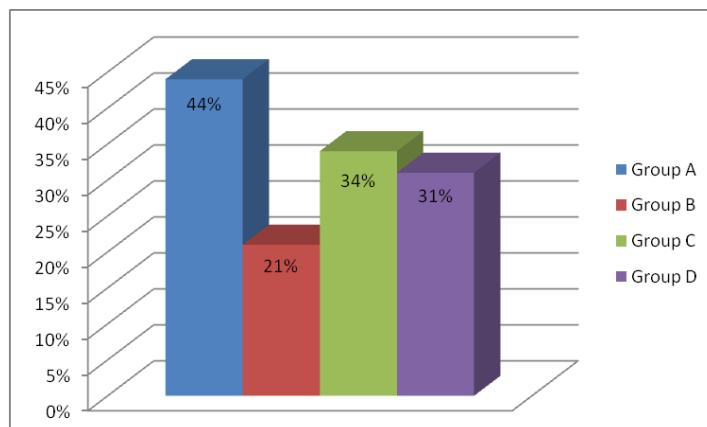


Figure 42. Average negative judgments on lexical misuses.

5.3. Prepositional phrases

Considering the sentences which included various prepositional phrases one might be surprised that the prepositions, being so distinct, might be misused. Sentence 7 definitely belonged to such instances. The verb *rozważać*, which should be followed by object, was followed by a preposition *nad*:

Autorka rozważa także nad funkcjami pedagogiczno-dydaktycznymi nauczyciela. [sentence 7]

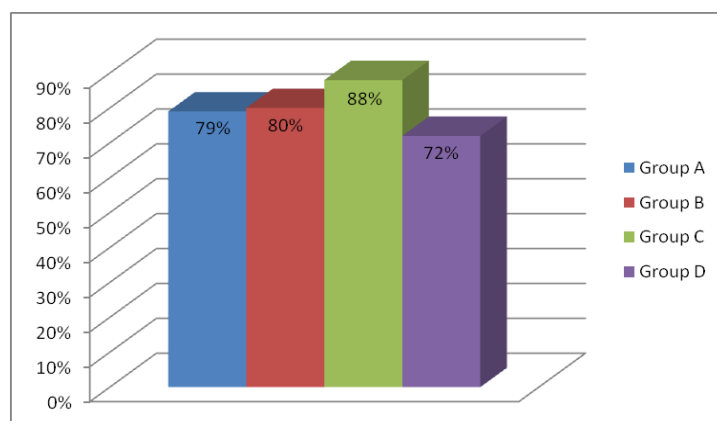


Figure 43. Negative evaluation of the phrase *rozważać nad*.

The pattern was not an evident FL translation. The verb *rozważać*, which was used in the sentence, seemed to be an approximation of the similar verb *rozmyślać*. Thus, the conclusion might be that the final product was a ‘tip of the tongue’ phenomenon, i.e. the target pattern was inaccessible at the time of writing and another verb, similar in meaning and spelling, was employed instead.

The misused preposition was recognized as a fundamental error by large majorities of approximate 70% to 90% of the students in all the groups as shown in

Figure 43. The students usually replaced the incorrect collocation with active verbs, such as *koncentruje się/analizuje* or suggested omitting the preposition.

In sentence 8, the prepositions *przy* and *przez* following the words *przydatny* and *dotknięty* were also misused:

Wymieniłam również wskazówki, które mogą być przydatne przy nauczaniu dzieci i nastolatków dotkniętych przez autyzm.

[sentence 8]

According to *Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny* (2004), the adjective *przydatny* may be followed by prepositions *do* (when followed by object) and *w* (not *przy*) and in this context, the preposition *w* is the most appropriate. It is difficult to speculate on the source of the misuse in question. It does not seem to be merely loan translation since the TL equivalent of *useful in* would render the Polish collocation right. In the following prepositional phrase *dotkniętych przez*, the preposition *przez* was unnecessarily used, and it should be replaced with the object to form the phrase *dotknięty autyzmem*. The preposition *przy* may be the result of FL interference and literal translation of the English phrase *touched by*. Although incorrect in the context of a mental disorder, the phrase was largely ignored in judgments. Perhaps, students treated it as a standard passive voice pattern where the agent can be mentioned in the prepositional phrase.

The results in Figure 44 show that the largest number of the students who provided negative judgments was in Group A (53%) and Group C (47%). The lowest results belonged to Group B (15%) and Group D (32%).

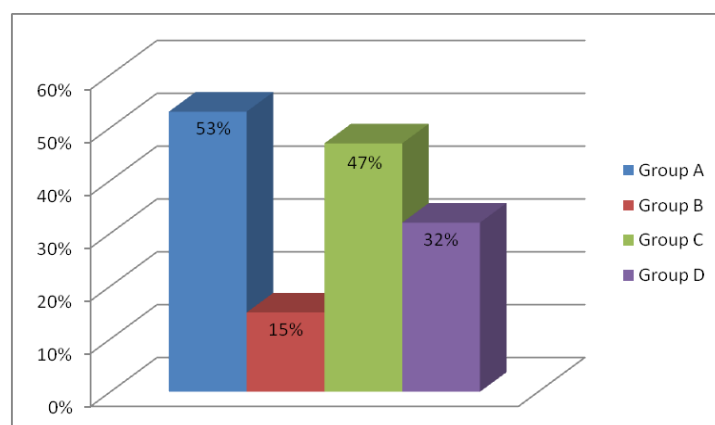


Figure 44. Negative evaluations of phrases *przydatne przy* and *dotkniętych przez*.

Sentence 10 contained direct translation of the English structure *were asked to work*, which formed an awkward pattern in Polish. Sentence 10 was also an example of a blank, in terms of punctuation, piece of writing and additionally a wrong preposition was used after the main verb *prosić* [*ask for*]:

Podczas dwóch pierwszych sesji rodzice Arka zostali poproszeni do pracowania wspólnie z synem w domu nad materiałem językowym wprowadzanym na lekcji.

[sentence 10]

It is noteworthy that the preposition *do* [*to*] is followed by the noun *pracowania* [*working*] formed from the verb *pracować* [*work*] despite availability of regular L1 nouns, such as *pracy/współpracy*. Figure 45 shows that the negative judgments in Groups A, B and D exceeded 50%. An exception was Group C, nearly 90% out of whom marked the pattern as inaccurate. The results suggest that structural loan translation was not well received especially by the third year FL users who perceived the syntactic differences between both languages as too distinct to be confused.

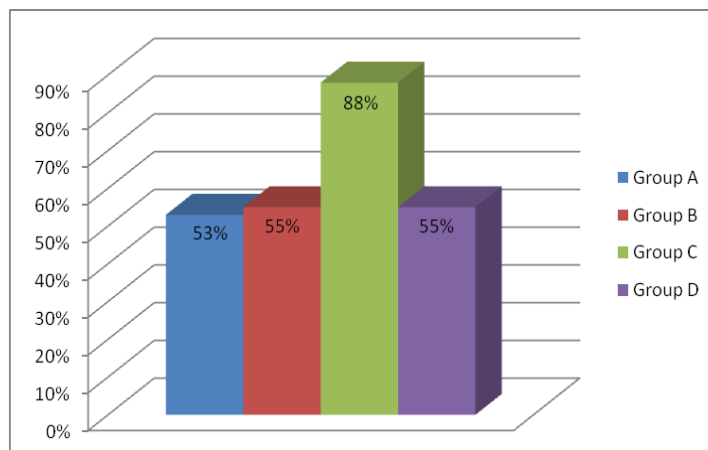


Figure 45. Negative judgments on the phrase *poproszeni do pracowania*.

Sentence 26 was an example of the misuse of the preposition *w*. The phrase *uciekać się w* was used instead of *uciekać się do* [*resort to*]:

Wielokrotnie politycy uciekają się w użycie strony biernej, ażeby tej odpowiedzialności uniknąć. [sentence 26]

The majority of approximate 60% in groups A, B and D and 82% in Group C pointed to the preposition and marked the sentence as incorrect (Figure 46). The prepositional phrase must have been well established in the bilinguals' language system or too distinct to be misjudged.

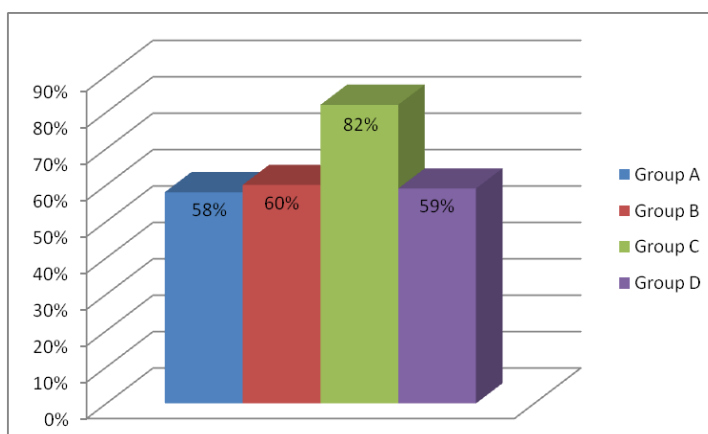


Figure 46. Negative judgments on the phrase *uciekać się w użycie*.

Sentence 30 was an interesting example of confusion of the preposition *na* [on] with *nad* [over]:

Kolejny rozdział skupia się nad korzyściami metodycznymi płynącymi z tych projektów. [sentence 30]

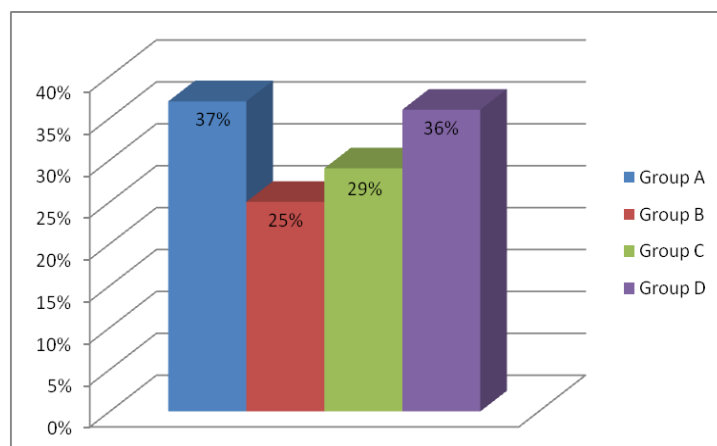


Figure 47. Students who marked sentence 30 as incorrect.

The phrase *skupiać się nad* [to focus over] is a wrong collocation in Polish with the preposition *nad*. In spite of the evident mistake, less than 40% of Group A and Group D and less than 30% of Group B and Group C marked the sentence as incorrect (Figure 47). It might be presumed that the preposition was ignored because of the physical similarity to its target form, i.e. *na*. However, it may also be possible that FL domain triggered the operation of FL rules in the L1 context.

The preposition *przy* [by] which occurred with the noun *nauka* [learning] in sentence 32 was another intriguing pattern under investigation. The verb *używać* should be viewed as linguistic overuse as the Polish language has alternative vocabulary collocating with the word *strategii* (e.g. *stosowanych w nauce, z których uczeń korzysta*) which would sound more natural in the following sentence:

W tym rozdziale zawarty został również opis strategii używanych przy nauce języka obcego. [sentence 32]

Large numbers of all the groups judged the sentence as either correct or acceptable. Such results might come as a surprise for dictionaries indicate that the use of preposition *przy* with the noun *nauka* is against the norm. A number of the participants assumed a strategy of pointing to the preposition and still marking the sentence as acceptable. Some students also highlighted the word order in the passive voice structure and suggested its change into *został zawarty*.

Figure 48 shows that, on the whole, Group A was the most critical toward the prepositional phrase whereas the remaining groups showed greater tolerance. It might be the case that use of the preposition *przy* [by] was extended under FL influence over L1 contexts in which it should not appear.

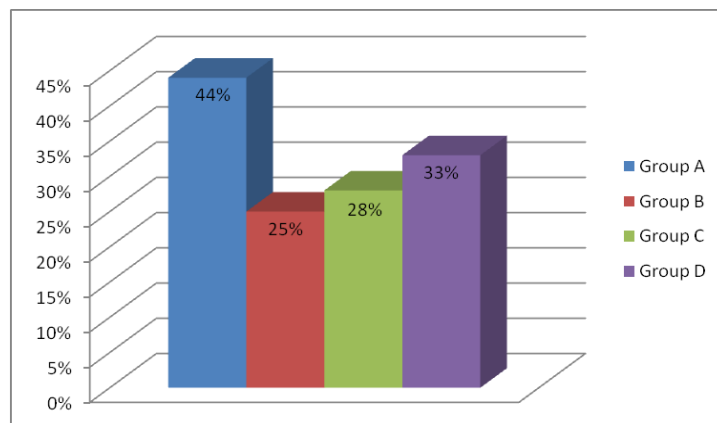


Figure 48. Negative judgments on the phrase *używanych przy nauczaniu*.

The average results obtained by the groups in the area of judgments on prepositional phrases are presented in Figure 49. In general terms, it appears that the negative evaluation of wrong prepositions fluctuated between 43% and 60%. There was no steady rising or falling tendencies which could imply that the recognition of prepositional misuse was dependent on the year of study and the level of FL proficiency. Approximately halves of Groups B and D and slight majorities of Groups A and C pointed out the prepositional phrases as inaccurate. Such results, compared to judgments on lexical misuses and punctuation errors, are quite high and imply that incorrect prepositions are better identified by bilingual users than lexical misuses and punctuation errors.

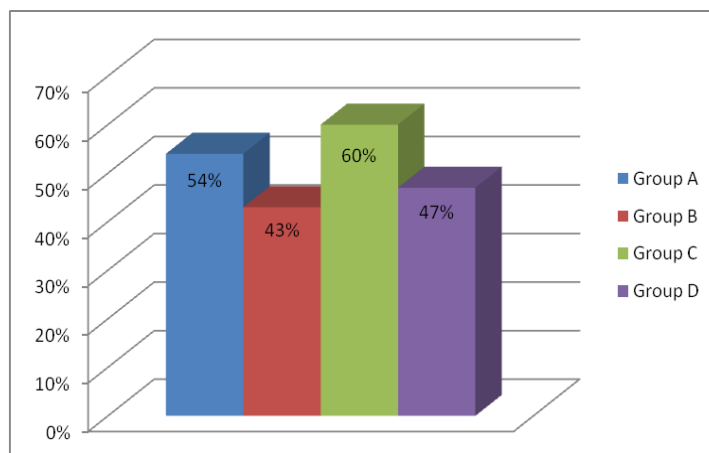


Figure 49. Average results in judgments on prepositional phrases.

5.4. Structural loan translation

In the area of loan translation, several sentences were put into focus. First of all, the notorious use of the English passive voice consisting of the verb *to be* and past participle was selected for evaluation. Sentence 6 was one of many instances of overuse of the passive voice structure. Although the pattern in question was formed in compliance with Polish grammatical rules, the same passive structure was too often repeated. The passive voice typical for the formal English language does not sound natural when it replaces the impersonal passive verb form in Polish. Thus the following

passage would sound more natural if the impersonal verb *zbadano* was used instead of *zbadane jest*:

*Ponadto w tej pracy **zbadane jest**, która z wyżej wymienionych technik **jest preferowana** przez uczniów.* [sentence 6]

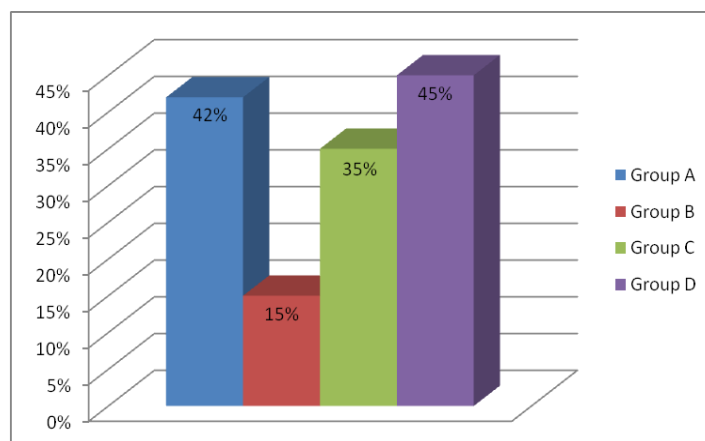


Figure 50. Negative judgments on the use of passive voice structure.

Quite large numbers of Group A and Group B considered sentence 6 as acceptable. Nevertheless, the students usually pointed to the passive voice structure and some suggested that its order should be altered. The acceptability rate, however, was clearly falling among the students in the final years of study (from 85% in Group B and 59% in Group C to 55% in Group D, see Appendix G). More than 40% of Group A and Group D, 35% of Group C and 15% of Group B, as shown in Figure 50, perceived the sentence as inaccurate. Those students made corrections in which they changed passive voice into its active counterpart (for instance, *praca skupia się.../bada...*). The impersonal verb was also proposed, however, not as frequently as the active voice. Some students advised to re-write the sentence in a completely different way. Concluding, overuse of passive voice was noticed and marked as incorrect by the minorities of the groups. However, it appears that Group A and Group D were the most aware of the error in question.

Sentence 23 contained a verb phrase which was structural translation of the phrase *is underlined*:

*Jednakże, **podkreślone jest**, iż zalety wynikające z nauki kreatywnego pisania znacznie przewyższają towarzyszące jej trudności.*

[sentence 23]

The verb phrase was literally translated from English into Polish and set in a Polish context, most presumably, to emphasize its formal character. This means that the passive voice expressing formality in English was transferred to Polish and formed structural calques. Some students who judged the pattern as incorrect, replaced the passive voice structure with impersonal verb phrases, such as *podkreślono/należy*

podkreślić/podkreśla się/warto zaznaczyć, że or suggested using active voice, e.g. *podkreślam jednak, że...*

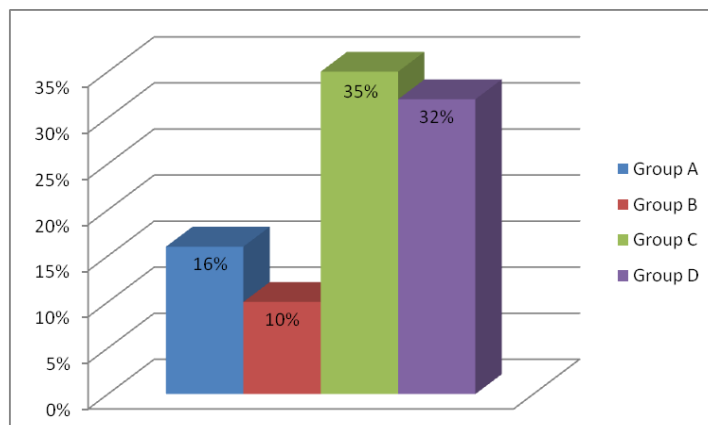


Figure 51. Negative evaluation of the passive voice structure *podkreślone jest*.

Despite the evident misuse in the verb phrase *podkreślone jest*, only the minority of the students marked it as incorrect. Figure 51 shows that Group C and Group D attained better results than the first two groups. This suggests that the passive voice with the verb *to be* was more frequently viewed as inaccurate by more advanced bilinguals.

Sentence 14 was an example of a widely spread syntactic translation of the English phrase *appear/turn out to be*, already discussed in Chapter IV. In the following sentence, the main subject was additionally shifted to the last position:

Jednak w dziedzinie, wymagającej analizy matematycznej, okazała się być lepsza grupa ogólna. [sentence 14]

The sentence contained a bizarre pattern which, however, might have passed largely unnoticed taking into account the frequency with which it is misused in the native mass media. Nevertheless, from the perspective of the language norm, it is incorrect.

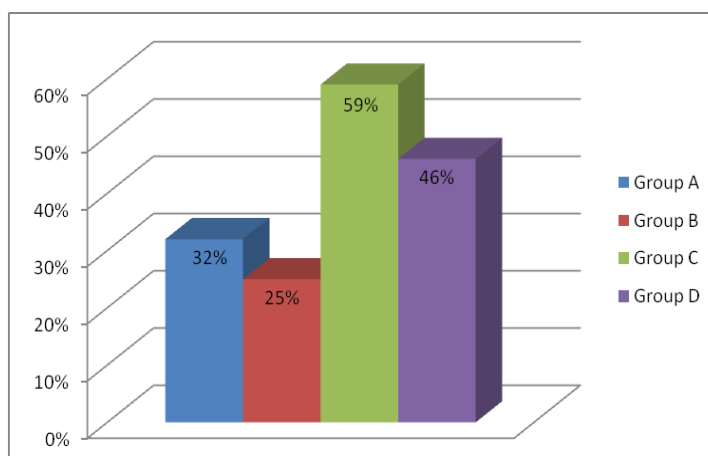


Figure 52. Negative evaluation of loan translation *okazała się być*.

The results presented in Figure 52 showed that the more advanced bilinguals achieved slightly better results than the first and second year students. Group C appeared to be more aware of the linguistic intricacy and therefore more critical of the structure than other groups. 59% of that group pointed to the pattern and marked the sentence as incorrect. 46% of Group D did not approve of the pattern whereas the negative judgments in Group A and Group B were the lowest and reached 32% and 25% accordingly. Those students who rejected the pattern, were not unanimous in terms of suggested correction. Some inflected the adjective *lepsza* into *lepszą* after the verb *być* and others placed the noun phrase *grupa ogólna* before the main verb. The majority of students signalled that the pattern was awkward, but they could not arrive at its proper correction.

Sentence 33 contained a similar loan translation, which should be followed by an object noun or adjective rather than infinitive:

*Wszystkie te elementy **okazują się stanować** nieodłączną część wypowiedzi ustnej.* [sentence 33]

As shown in Figure 53, the recognition of the error was rather low. The highest result of 27% was attained by the group of the fourth year students. Those participants underlined the structure in bold and some of them suggested improvements, such as rewriting the sentence and adding a dependent clause: *Okazuje się, że wszystkie te elementy stanowią.../ Jak się okazuje, wszystkie te elementy stanowią...* Few students deleted the infinitive *stanować* and used the instrumental case after it: *Wszystkie te elementy okazują się nieodłączną częścią wypowiedzi ustnej.* The overall judgments on this sentence did not portray the L1 knowledge in a positive light. They rather highlighted the necessity of revision and relearning of some L1 rules, especially those which are easily influenced by other language systems.

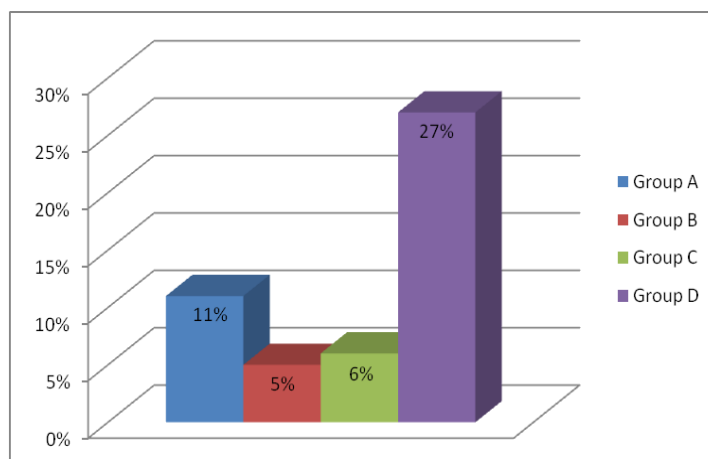


Figure 53. Negative evaluation of the loan translation *okazują się stanować*.

To sum up, overuse of the structural loans existing in both languages affected the style of Polish formal writing. On average, the sentences were considered incorrect by 25% of Group A, 14% of Group B, 34% of Group C and 38% of Group D. In spite of the generally low scores, Figure 54 suggests improving L1 knowledge according to the year of study. Concluding, a higher level of FL proficiency might invite more criticism

in judgments on loan translation which may be associated with boosted linguistic awareness and knowledge.

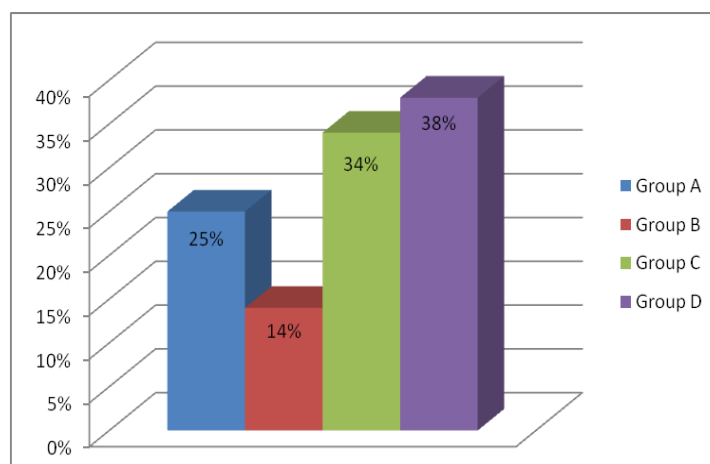


Figure 54. Average judgments on structural loans.

5.5. Coherence

According to a dictionary definition, an incoherent piece of writing is difficult to understand because its parts are not connected in a clear and reasonable way. An example of such an incoherent piece of writing was seen in sentence 12. The sentence organization was not easy to follow and the meaning was inferred rather than overtly read:

Inne natomiast, decyzje takie pozostawiają organowi nadzorującemu pracę nauczycieli, ograniczając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do osoby, która wyłącznie wykonuje powierzone jej obowiązki. [sentence 12]

In the above example, the word *natomiast*, which signals the development of a new argument, occupies the second position in the sentence instead of the first one. The determiner *takie* which should stand in front of the noun that it describes was wrongly placed after it. In other words, the beginning should be rewritten as follows: *Natomiast inne takie decyzje....* The concluding part of the sentence conveys the meaning of *reducing the teacher roles to a person who carries out entrusted on them duties*. As may be concluded, the phrase *to a person who* is an unnecessary overproduction. Therefore, it should be simplified and rephrased, for instance: *ograniczając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do wykonywania powierzonych obowiązków*.

Figure 55 shows that the large majority of 95% of Group A provided negative evaluation of sentence 12. However, the critical attitude alleviated in the remaining groups. The results might suggest that more advanced bilinguals were more tolerant of ambiguity and paid more attention to the content rather than the form. Such explanation may be accounted for with the fact that FL development involves a great deal of contradicting linguistic data and meaning comprehension in FL often takes place while ignoring some unclear and unknown language elements.

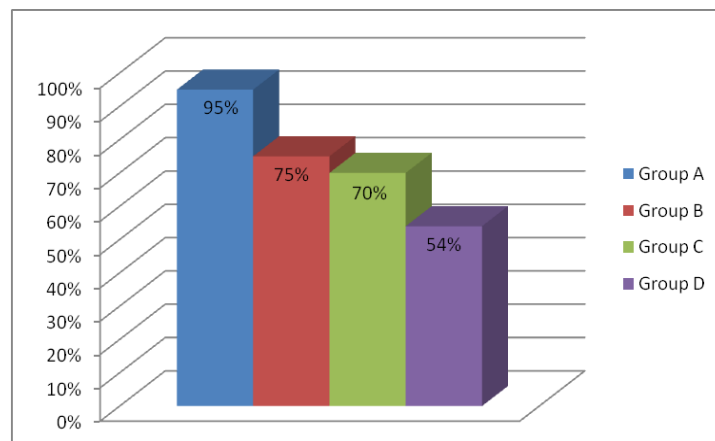


Figure 55. Negative judgments on intrasentential organisation in sentence 12.

Sentence 5 contained the wrong form of the instrumental case describing the nationalities of the English and the American:

Jako pierwsze zostały przedstawione zwroty mające związek z narodowościami, których język stanowi przedmiot naszych badań: Anglików i Amerykanów. [sentence 5]

The sentence could be repaired in two ways. Firstly, the names of the nationalities *Anglików i Amerykanów* could be placed after the word *narodowościami*. Secondly, the sentence order could be retained on condition that the noun forms after the colon mark would be changed according to the instrumental case and would agree with the pronoun *z [with]*, i.e. *z Anglikami i Amerykanami*.

Analyzing the results in Figure 56, it is easily noticed that the sentence pattern was regarded as incorrect by more than half of the participants in Group A. The number of negative evaluations shrank to 40% in Group B, 18% in Group C and 32% in Group D. This might indicate that bilinguals put more attention to the sense of the sentence rather than the form in which it was conveyed. More advanced bilinguals evidently experienced more difficulty recognizing the syntactic relationships within the sentence in question.

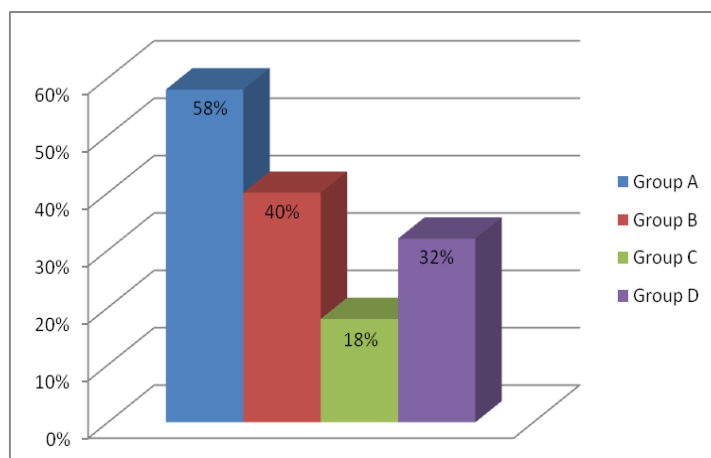


Figure 56. Negative judgments on capital letters and inflections in nationalities.

Sentence 17 also contained declension errors which were additionally accompanied by the wrong punctuation mark:

Respondenci zostali podzieleni na dwie grupy, uczniowie i nauczyciele języków obcych. [sentence 17]

The beginning of the sentence introduced the specific information about the respondents. However, the colon mark should have been used here (to describe the groups) instead of the comma. Also the declension of the nouns *uczniowie i nauczyciele* should be in concord with the verb phrase.

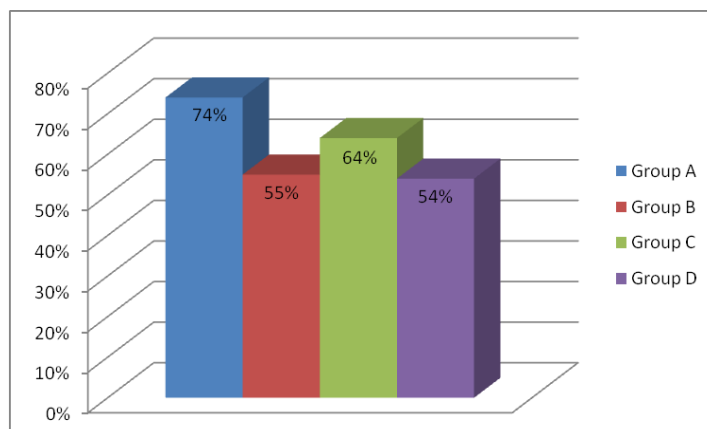


Figure 57. Negative evaluation of punctuation and declension in sentence 17.

Figure 57 shows that, in general terms, the tendency to mark the sentence as incorrect was quite high with a decreasing trend. It is another example in which the more advanced bilinguals seem to have focused on the meaning rather than sentence structure.

Sentence 20 included an example of an inappropriate declension of the Polish verb *przeprowadzać* [carry out]. The sentence was a relatively complex clause, which additionally did not contain any punctuation marks apart from the final stop:

*Rozdział drugi i trzeci stanowią opis i analizę odpowiedzi na pytania zawarte w **kwestionariuszu** **przeprowadzonego** wśród uczniów liceum ogólnokształcącego.* [sentence 20]

For the sake of clarity, the content of this sentence could successfully be divided into two smaller units. The length was probably the major factor which contributed to the wrong form of the verb. The wrong inflection in the verb *przeprowadzony* [carried out] did not refer it to any language item in the text, however, the relationship between the words in bold could be quite easily guessed.

Figure 58 illustrates that the majority of the participants in all the groups recognized the inaccurate morphological form with much success. The lowest score of 53% was obtained by the first year students and the highest of 88% – by the third year students. The second and fourth year students achieved approximately the same results of 60% and 58%. This example shows that the sensitivity toward morphological relations between the neighboring items may be better developed in highly proficient bilinguals.

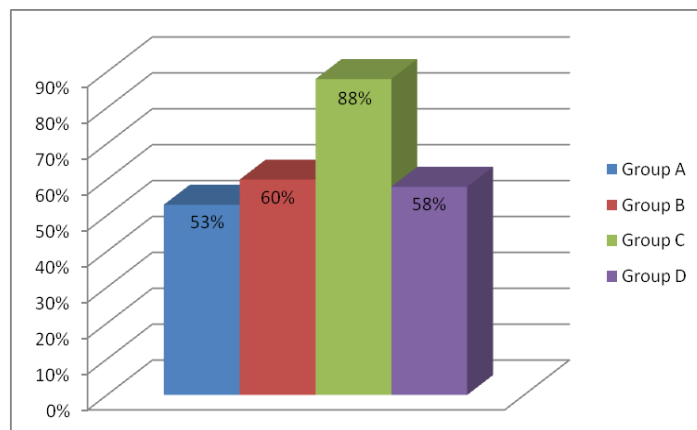


Figure 58. Negative judgments on the phrase *w kwestionariuszu przeprowadzonego*.

The average judgments on sentence incoherence are presented in Figure 59. The figure shows that the perception of sentence organization and its clarity was declining according to the year of study. Group A obtained the best result of 70%. Group B and Group C maintained the level of approximately 60%. Group D were less accurate in their judgments by 20% as against Group A and by 10% as against Group D. Apparently, more proficient bilinguals paid attention to the content whenever the form was not well organized.

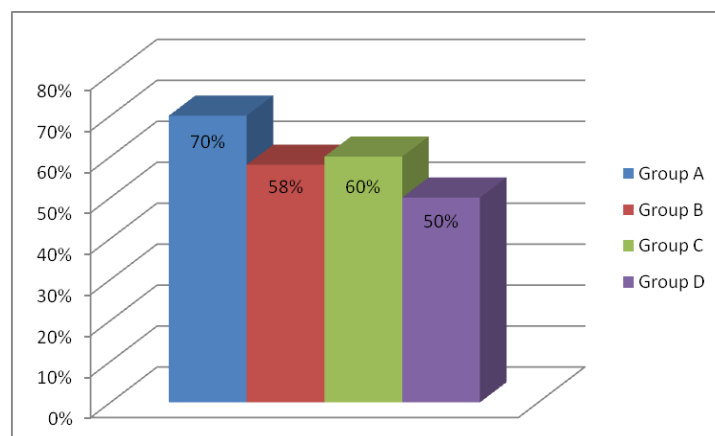


Figure 59. Average results in judgments on sentence coherence.

5.6. Word order

Another category of errors was related to the word order. For instance, sentence 34 contained the adverbs *pozytywnie i negatywnie* [in a positive and negative way] at the end of the sentence after the noun *klasa* [class]. Placing adverbs at the end of the Polish sentence might be regarded as an outcome of FL influence as it is typical for the English language. The adverbs in the sentence in question refer to and describe the verb *wpływać* [influence] and therefore should either immediately follow the Polish verb or precede it:

W tej części pracy zostały przedstawione czynniki, które wpływają na zarządzanie klasą pozytywnie i negatywnie. [sentence 34]

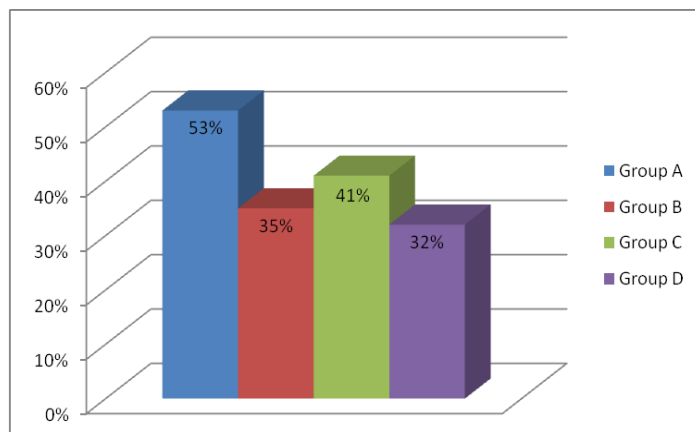


Figure 60. Negative evaluation on the position of adverbs in the sentence.

As seen in Figure 60, the highest score of 53% was achieved by Group A and it was lower in the remaining groups (35% in Group B, 41% in Group C and 32% in Group D). It might be concluded that in this sentence the FL-influenced word order met with less criticism and more tolerance along the year of study.

In sentence 3, the adjective *fonetyczny* [*phonetic*] was wrongly used in the phrase:

W pierwszym rozdziale proces palatalizacji przedstawiony jest z punktu widzenia fonetycznego. [sentence 3]

First of all, it must be made clear that the Polish noun phrase *punkt widzenia* [*standpoint*] collocates with a personal pronoun or object noun, not adjective. Placing the adjective before the noun phrase might have been an attempt to shorten the sentence in the summary text and to retain the intended meaning at the same time. However, the correct phrase would consist of the same number of words, e.g.: *z punktu widzenia fonetyki*. It is interesting why in the sentence in question the adjective occupies the post-noun position reserved for the object noun in both languages and not the pre-noun position.

Figure 61 shows that the number of the participants who marked the sentence as incorrect was declining from 42% in Group A to 15% in Group B and 36% in Group C and Group D. The sentence structure might not be perceived as erroneous since it successfully conveyed the meaning. Although the negative judgments were generally low, the number of the participants who marked the pattern as correct was rising from 5% in Group A, to 30% in Group B, 41% in Group C and 36% in Group D (see Appendix G). The results of judgments on sentences 34 and 3 suggest that perception of the word order errors was increasingly problematic for more advanced bilinguals.

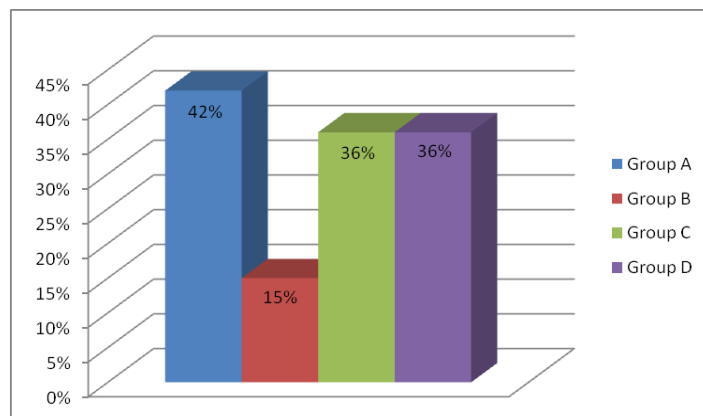


Figure 61. Negative evaluation of the phrase *z punktu widzenia fonetycznego*.

5.7. Errors of logic

Sentence 24 was inaccurate in terms of logic. The term *postawa* [attitude] connotes the sense of certain beliefs and behaviour towards particular concepts, issues and beings. Thus, combining the noun *postawa* with the phrase *wobec komputera* [toward the computer] was incorrect (a computer is an inanimate piece of equipment):

W swojej pracy przedstawiłam czynniki, jakie mogą mieć wpływ na kształtowanie postawy uczących się wobec komputera jako pomocy naukowej. [sentence 24]

The sentence illogicality remained largely unrecognized. As presented in Figure 62, the highest result of 58% was achieved by Group A. The remaining groups must have again put more attention to text comprehension rather than proper collocation.

Sentence 28 contained the verb *kształcić się*, [to educate] in combination with the noun *motywacja* [motivation] and was an approximation of the verb *kształtować* [to form]:

Praca ta miała na celu przedstawienie procesu kształcenia się motywacji i efektywności uczenia się uczniów. [sentence 28]

The lexical misuse in sentence 28 created an illogical sense in which motivation was capable of educating itself. Figure 63 shows that the comparative numbers of the students in the first three groups (i.e. 55% in Group B, 58% in Group A and 64%) evaluated the sentence as inappropriate. Some students additionally pointed to overproduction of the final noun *uczniów* [learners] or underlined the whole phrase *efektywności uczenia się uczniów* as too built on and complicated. The remaining students approved of the sentence ignoring the wrong collocation or resigned from its assessment. Some of them highlighted overproduction in the closing part of the sentence or marked the lack of punctuation which was, however, optional in the sentence. It was interesting to observe that the number of the participants who marked the sentence pattern as correct was growing slightly from 0% in Group A to approximate 20% in the remaining groups (see Appendix G). Again this might suggest attrition of the meaning of concepts in L1.

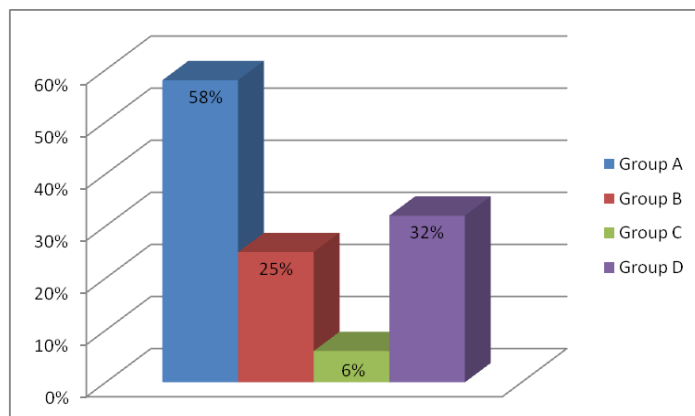


Figure 62. Negative judgments on the phrase *postawa uczących się wobec komputera*.

The average evaluation of sentences containing logical errors is illustrated in Figure 64. More than half of the students in Group A correctly identified the errors. However, average results in the remaining groups were much lower. The conclusion which might be drawn at this point is that more proficient bilinguals pay more attention to the intended meaning of the message than the form (even if illogical) in which it is conveyed.

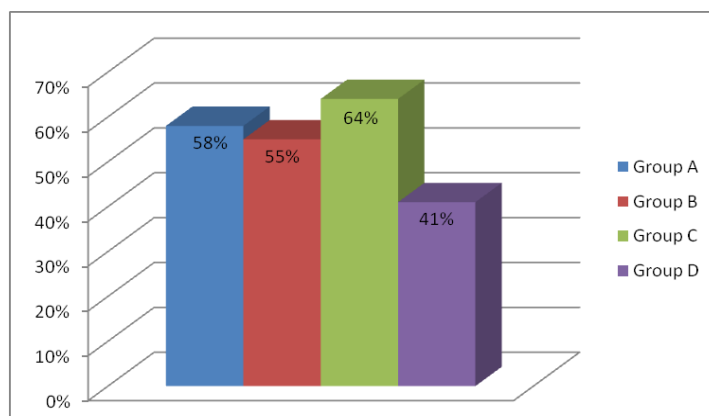


Figure 63. Negative judgments on the phrase *kształcenia się motywacji*.

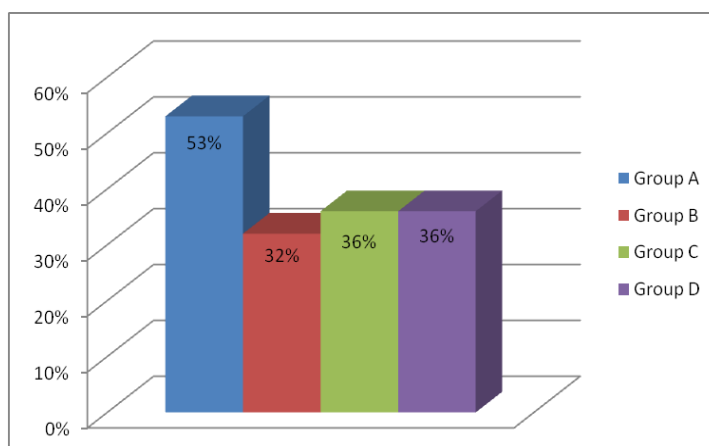


Figure 64. Average judgments on illogical sentences.

5.8. Correct and acceptable patterns

The remaining sentences of the questionnaire may be considered correct. The first sentence contained the Polish conjunction *zarówno... , jak i...* which joined two parts of the clause. According to the Polish punctuation rules, the comma mark must occur before the other part of the clause which begins with *jak i*. In the sentence in question, the conjunction introduced a subordinate clause, and that is why it should additionally be separated with the commas:

Czynnikiem powodującym pojawienie się barier komunikacyjnych, zarówno w grupie młodzieży, jak i dorosłych, jest brak słownictwa oraz wiedzy gramatycznej. [sentence 1]

Figure 65 shows the number of participants who marked sentence 1 as correct. The tendency to judge the sentence as incorrect was increasing in the first three groups. The growing criticism concerned the comma mark in front of the conjunction *jak i*. Some students marked the pattern as not entirely accurate but acceptable because of the singular verb form *jest* where, in their opinion, plural verb form *są* should appear. Those students raised objections against the syntactic inconsistency between the singularity of the main verb and the plurality of the object (which might be the result of English influence). Thus, they suggested that the pattern be repaired in the following way:

Czynnikami powodującymi pojawienie się barier komunikacyjnych, zarówno w grupie młodzieży, jak i dorosłych są brak słownictwa oraz wiedzy gramatycznej.

Other students pointed out that the word *pojawienie* would be better replaced with *pojawianie* as the latter form implies the cyclical character of the phenomenon in question and is therefore more suitable. There were a number of suggestions concerning the improvement of the noun phrase *brak słownictwa*, for which synonymous meanings, such as *niedobór/zasób/nieznajomość słownictwa*, were proposed. In sum, the combined numbers of correct and acceptable judgments constituted large majorities in all the groups.

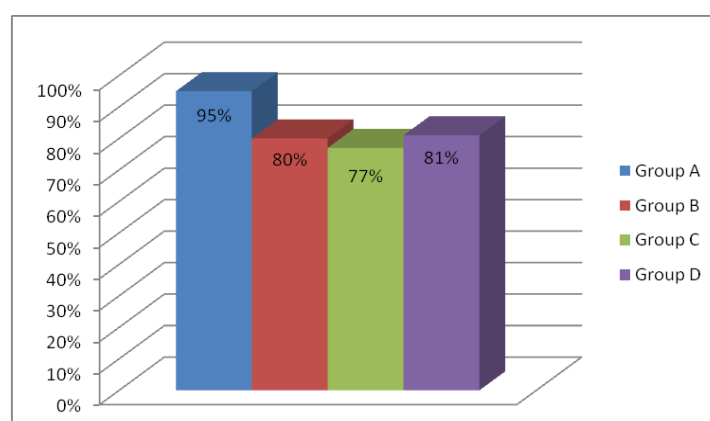


Figure 65. Affirmative judgments on sentence 1.

Some of the sentences in this section could be subject to some improvement. For instance, the collocation *stosowany do bogacenia* was a combination of the preposition *do* [to] and an emphatic form of the verb *wzbogacać*, i.e. *bogacić* [enrich]:

Diagnostyczny charakter pracy został rozbudowany o badanie i ocenę strategii uczenia się stosowanych do bogacenia słownictwa. [sentence 2]

Both terms *bogacić* nad *wzbogacać* share two meanings: to become more affluent and to become more varied and of better quality. However, it is the latter verb which is more naturally used with the noun *słownictwo* [vocabulary]. The prepositional phrase seems to represent a syntactic loan translation of the English phrase *used to enrich vocabulary*. The collocation *stosować do* in Polish is used to say that something may be applied to something else, e.g. *metoda stosowana do pomiaru parametrów*. In sentence 2 the emphasis was placed on the strategy that was used to enrich vocabulary and it would be more natural to use a less complex phrase, such as *strategii rozbudowywania/wzbogacania słownictwa*.

When it comes to the results, none of the students in Group A or Group B marked the sentence as correct as against 6% of the students in Group C and 9% in Group D. The sentence was marked as definitely incorrect by 21% of the students in Group A, 55% in Group B, 64% in Group C and 36% in Group D (Figure 66), i.e. more advanced students were more sensitive toward the pattern.

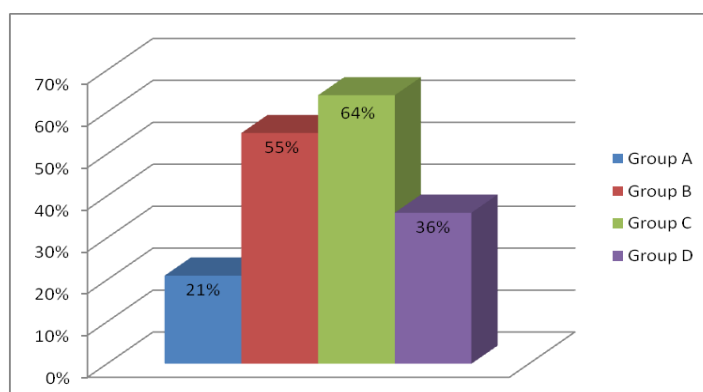


Figure 66. Negative judgments on the word *bogacenia* in sentence 2.

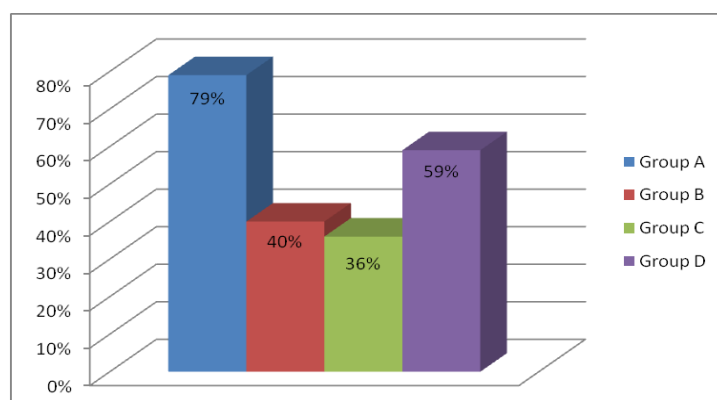


Figure 67. Affirmative judgments on sentence 2.

In sentence 4, the phrase *udział wzięli* might sound better if the words were reversed into *wzięli udział*. The former wording is spread by the cinema industry (appears at the end of the film/performance to name the starring characters).

W badaniach udział wzięli nauczyciele języka angielskiego, niemieckiego i francuskiego pracujący w gimnazjach na terenie Śląska. [sentence 4]

The total score for correct and acceptable answers per group was very high and rose from 84% in Group A, 90% in Group B to 94% in Group C and 91% in Group D (Figure 68). Some students in Group A suggested changing the word order but marked the sentence as acceptable. The results suggest that the first year students were the most critical of the word order, however, the number of affirmative judgments was much higher among the remaining participants.

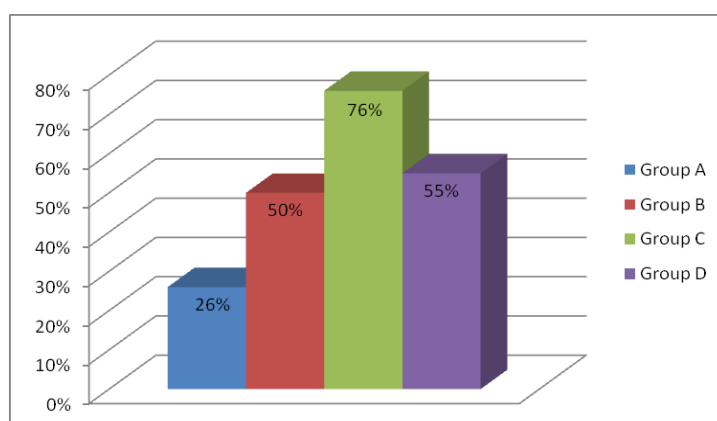


Figure 68. Affirmative judgments on sentence 4.

Sentence 9 contained the passive voice consisting of the verb *to be* and past participle, however, it was not overused within the sentence and was stylistically acceptable:

W rozdziale drugim opisana została ankieta, która stanowi główne źródło informacji. [sentence 9]

The majority of participants in all four groups marked the sentence as correct (Figure 69). The results were maintained at the similar level in all the groups except Group C who attained the score of 82% which might be received as an indication that the level of FL proficiency might improve evaluation of correct patterns.

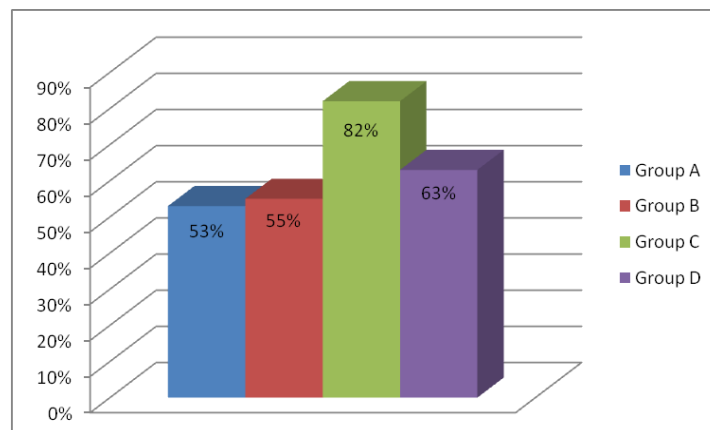


Figure 69. Affirmative judgments on sentence 9.

In sentence 11, the coordinating conjunction *i* was repeated and preceded by the comma mark. According to the rules of Polish punctuation there should be no punctuation marks preceding the conjunction *i* unless it is used to emphasize the equal status of the listed items, which was the case in this example:

Autorka pracy uwzględniła i style kierowania klasą, i osobowość nauczyciela.
[sentence 11]

Figure 70 shows rather disappointing results. Large minorities of the students considered the punctuation accurate. The best result of 30% was achieved by Group B. The results were most presumably an outcome of insufficient learning of the punctuation rule which is very sporadically made use of and might have been forgotten or imperfectly learnt.

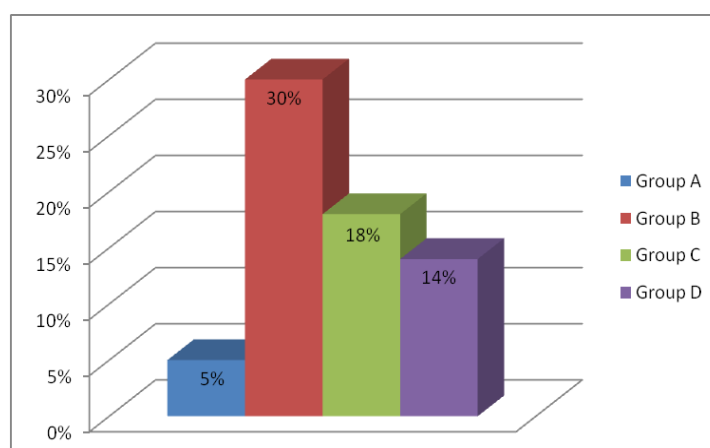


Figure 70. Affirmative judgments on sentence 11.

Sentence 13 might be described as clear and easy to follow. What is more, although it was passive, it contained an impersonal verb form:

Dalszą część rozdziału poświęcono zagadnieniom, związanym z teoriami uczenia się języka i ich zastosowaniami w dydaktyce języka obcego.

[sentence 13]

The affirmative judgments, as shown in Figure 71, did not constitute the majority. The best result was attained by the group of the first year students and dropped to 12% and 13% in the two latter groups. The students who marked the sentence as incorrect usually deleted the comma mark as the unnecessary punctuation. In fact, it was properly used and separated the additional information from the main clause. Low results suggest that the knowledge on Polish punctuation was either forgotten or imperfectly learnt, or both.

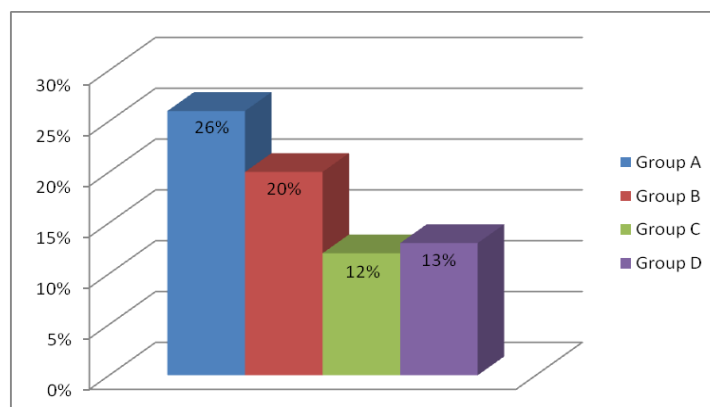


Figure 71. Affirmative judgments on sentence 13.

Sentence 18 was also grammatically accurate. It included the date written with the aid of Arabic numerals. According to the Polish language rules, the ordinal number represented by the Arabic numeral is not followed by the full stop mark in dates:

Badania do pracy przeprowadzono dnia 20 lutego 2005r. [sentence 18]

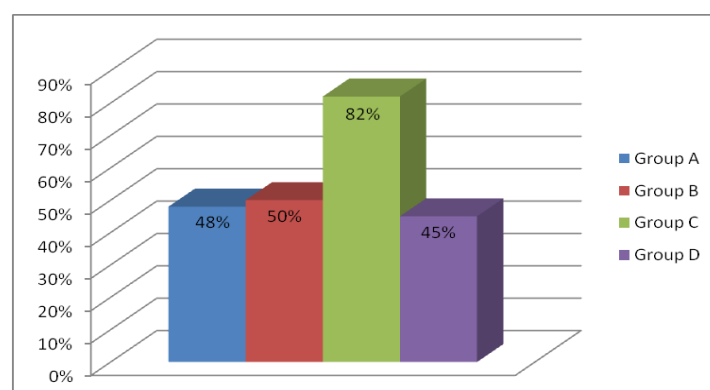


Figure 72. Affirmative judgments on sentence 18.

Figure 72 points to Group C as the most accurate group in their judgments - more than 80% of that group provided the correct answers. The other groups' results were lower by more than 30%.

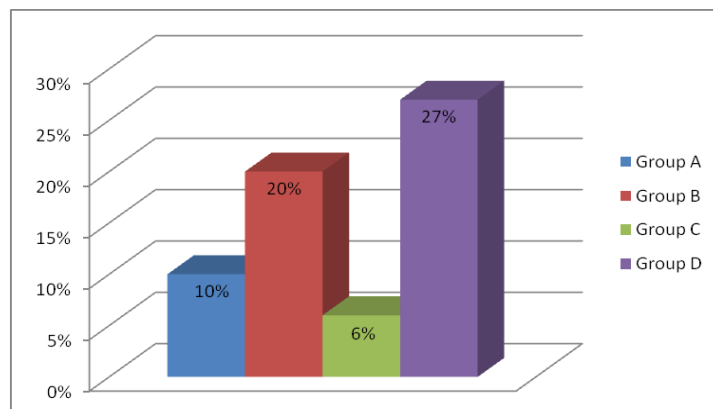


Figure 73. Negative evaluation of sentence 19.

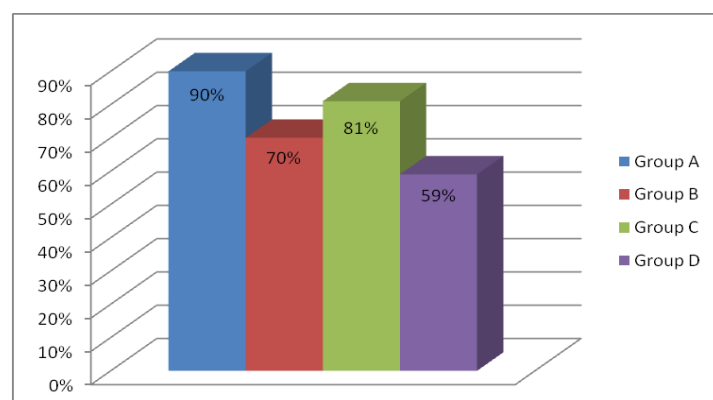


Figure 74. Positive evaluation of sentence 19.

Sentence 19 included the reflexive verb *boryka się* which might be placed at the borderline between the formal and informal style:

Celem pracy jest przedstawienie dodatkowych trudności z jakimi boryka się tłumacz literatury pisanej w języku niekonwencjonalnym. [sentence 19]

The affirmative judgments on that sentence were declining with each group. The number of acceptability judgments fell from 90% in Group A to 59% in Group D, and the percentage of negative marks remained at a low level (although it was rising along the year of study and reached 27% in Group D). Figures 73 and 74 illustrate the increasing criticism toward the phrase.

Sentence 22 was an example of code mixing. The name of the teaching method was introduced in the English language:

W pierwszym rozdziale mojej pracy omawiam w skrócie komunikacyjne cele i teorie leżące u podstaw metody Natural Approach. [sentence 22]

The term *Natural Approach* could be translated into *metoda naturalna* as done by Komorowska (2001). However, it may as well be retained in original as the proper name of the method. Additionally, the word order in the phrase *komunikacyjne cele* [communicative goals] could be changed to *cele komunikacyjne*. However, the altered word order may have well been an attempt to emphasize the communicative character of the goals. From this perspective, the sentence was grammatically appropriate.

In terms of results, the sentence was marked as correct and acceptable by the majorities of the students in all the groups as presented in Figure 75. It is interesting to note that the students' tolerance toward the sentence was declining according to the year of study. In other words, more advanced bilinguals were increasingly critical of the sentence.

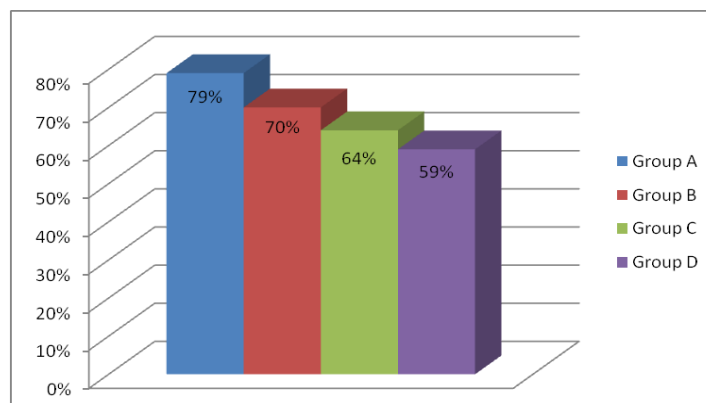


Figure 75. Affirmative judgments on sentence 22.

Sentence 25 was complete and correct:

Reasumpcję teorii związanych z nabywaniem języka drugiego stanowi tabela, umieszczona w rozdziale pierwszym pracy. [sentence 25]

However, as seen in Figure 76, only 48% of the students in Group A, 45% in Group B, 23% in Group C and 41% in Group D marked the sentence as correct or acceptable.

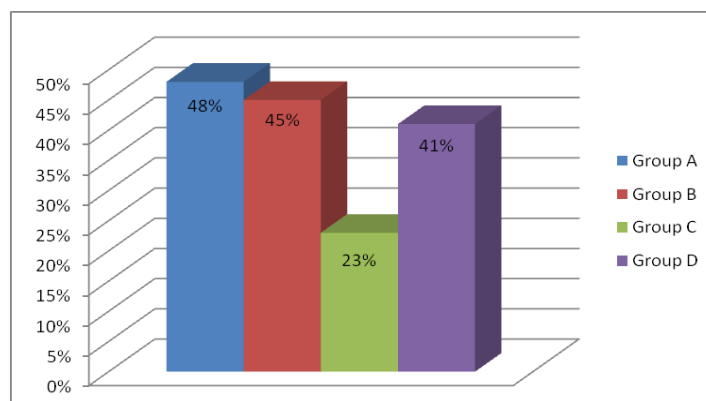


Figure 76. Affirmative judgments on sentence 25.

It was interesting that the students considered the word *reasumpcja* to be a lexical error and suggested substituting it with more familiar word, such as *podsumowanie*. In a similar vein, some students altered the phrase *nabywanie języka drugiego* with *uczenie się/rozwijanie języka obcego* and changed the word order in phrases *język drugi* and *rozdział pierwszy*. A number of participants marked the sentence as acceptable, however, the overall score for the correct and acceptable evaluations was decreasing. Large numbers of the students marked the sentence as incorrect because of the borrowing *reasumpcja*, and the remaining students expressed

uncertainty about the right answer. The results suggest that FL proficiency may attract sharper criticism in the case of lexical items which seem to be English borrowings.

Sentence 31 was also correct. It made use of the punctuation marks, such as a comma to separate the clause and a dash to avoid repetition of the same words:

Grupa kontrolna uczestniczyła w tradycyjnych zajęciach, a grupa eksperymentalna – niekonwencjonalnych. [sentence 31]

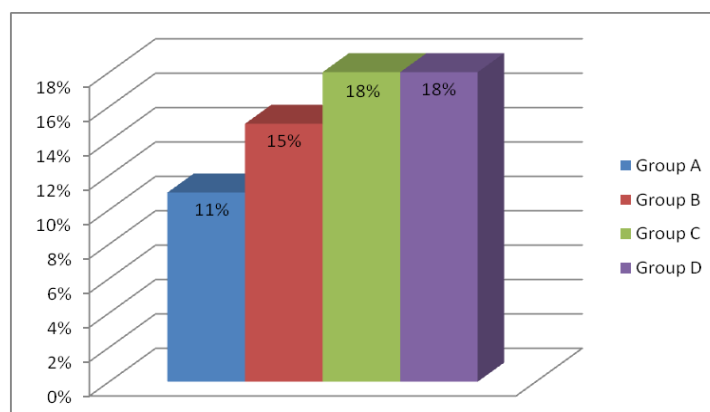


Figure 77. Affirmative judgments on sentence 31.

Overall evaluation by the students was very low (which shows Figure 77) and the best results in the two latter groups reached merely 18%. Those students who marked the sentence as incorrect replaced the dash with a verb phrase. Some students underlined the adjective at the end of the sentence but did not suggest its paraphrase. To some degree, poor results might be indicative of low knowledge of punctuation rules.

Sentence 35 was quite complex but did not contain grammatical errors:

Powyższa analiza jest uzupełniona oceną dwóch podręczników pod względem ich treści kulturowych. [sentence 35]

As shown in Figure 78, the number of approving judgments was increasing along the year of study with the highest score of 64% in Group C and the lowest of 6% in Group A. In this case, the level of FL proficiency seemed to have had a beneficial impact on the students' judgments.

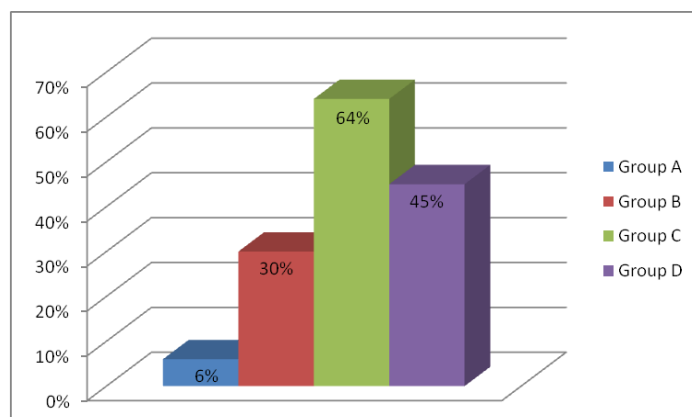


Figure 78. Affirmative judgments on sentence 35.

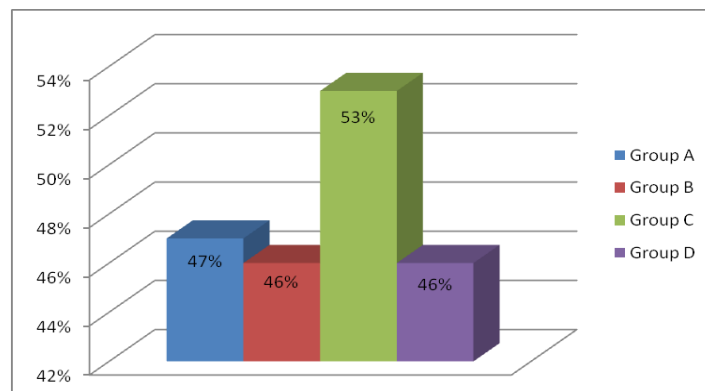


Figure 79. Average affirmative judgments on correct and acceptable sentences.

Average affirmative judgments on the sentences in this section are presented in Figure 79. Group A attained the result of 47%, Group B and Group C achieved the same result of 46% and the best result was attained by Group C (53%). On the basis of average results, a tentative assumption may be made that FL proficiency might have an influence on greater tolerance of complex sentences – Group C regarded the sentences as correct more often than other groups of participants.

Finally, all negative, acceptable and affirmative judgments were averaged per group to show general tendencies. For the sake of clarity of presentation, the averages for ‘correct’ and ‘acceptable’ judgments were summed and compared with the average of ‘incorrect’ evaluations. Figure 80 illustrates these overall tendencies which suggest that although negative evaluations fluctuated at the level of 30% to 40%, the number of ‘acceptable’ and ‘correct’ judgments was declining. Thus, it might be roughly stated that in general terms FL proficiency makes more proficient bilinguals increasingly careful in approving of L1 sentence patterns.

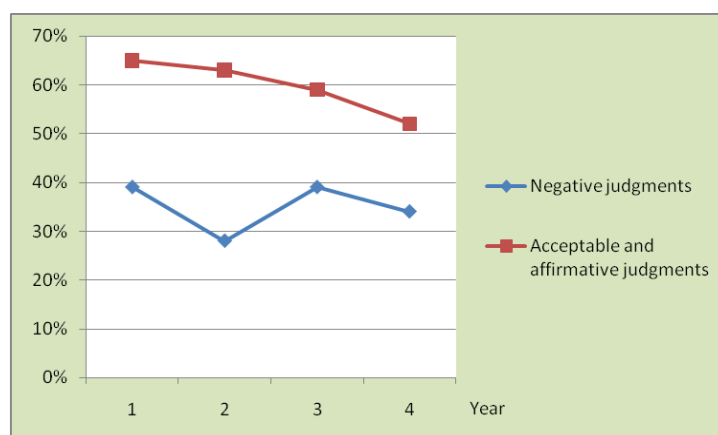


Figure 80. Average results in the judgment test.

5.9. Discussion

Against early expectations, FL use in the university setting was gradually declining whereas the use of L1 grew more intense. The research findings support the widespread view that bilingual education enhances metalinguistic awareness.

In spite of relatively critical subjective evaluations of one’s own L1 competence, the C-Test showed no attrition in the word-completion task. On the contrary, the results

were improved along the year of studies and level of FL proficiency, which may only be approached as a positive effect of bilinguality.

The appropriateness judgment task indicated that the language area which should be paid more attention to was L1 punctuation. The participants ignored the wrong use of punctuation marks or their non-use and focused on the meaning comprehension. Some punctuation errors might be the result of FL influence and confusion caused by the differences between the languages. It might also be possible that those rules had been insufficiently learnt and/or forgotten.

Lexis was the area which exhibited many FL influences. Lexical misuses were slightly better recognized in the group of the first year students than in the remaining groups. Such results support the stance that L1 lexicon is more susceptible to FL influence in advanced bilinguals. On the other hand, some FL borrowings in the study were considered erroneous by smaller numbers of early bilinguals and larger numbers of more proficient participants, which suggested boosted L1 sensitivity to the foreign patterns.

L1 perception was enhanced in the case of loan translation. Examples being the result of loan translating were recognized as erroneous by the rising numbers of the students what points to greater language awareness. Prepositions which were confused or used in a different sense might have been either insufficiently learnt or the distinction between their L1 and FL equivalents might have attrited.

The syntactic relationships between the words within sentences were tackled with increasing difficulty by more proficient students. In the same vein, illogical errors were identified by fewer students in their third and fourth years of studies. Those findings were particularly intriguing because they suggested that proficient bilinguals may show a tendency to tolerate syntactical and logical inconsistencies as long as they are able to comprehend the intended meaning.

Finally, more advanced bilinguals were better at recognizing the correct sentences although the average results showed that more proficient bilinguals were generally less tolerant in their judgments. Thus the conclusion which may be drawn here is that the knowledge of FL contributed to stricter judgments in many (however not all) L1 areas.

Chapter VI

Conclusions and implications

1. Research purpose

The following chapter is an attempt to reconcile the discussed ideas on L1 dynamics under FL influence with the results of the conducted studies. This chapter contains a review of the main goals set in this work, stages of the research and obtained results. The section with conclusions completes the work on L1 attrition which has been the main focus throughout the pages of six chapters. However, the problem area may not be considered exhausted. It will certainly be expanded by other researchers, new questions and searches for answers to them.

This work was not intended as a manifestation of ideas of radical language purism. Its aim was to find out whether it is possible for L1 to attrite in an L1 setting under intensive formal FL instruction. Language changes have been viewed as inevitable and natural in the course of time. It has been my belief, however, that understanding language dynamics and attrition in maintaining standards of one's native tongue should be given proper attention.

2. General discussion of the research findings

The research consisted of several steps. In the first stage, the corpus of summary texts in L1 was compiled from one hundred MA theses by the graduate students at the Institute of English, University of Silesia. The language found in the corpus was investigated with a view to finding patterns which did not comply with the L1 norm. Those patterns were classified according to their categories and described with the aid of dictionaries, particularly *Wielki Słownik Poprawnej Polszczyzny PWN* (2004). Since language production is more likely to exhibit signs of language attrition because it is dependent on various cross-linguistic and psychological phenomena governing on-line production, the second, follow-up stage was designed to measure receptive judgments of the patterns selected from the corpus data.

The second stage of the research was carried out among 78 Polish university students of English in the first four years of their studies and it consisted of three parts. It commenced with the questionnaire on the students' history of language development and their self-perceived language change. Secondly, a C-test was devised as a quantitative measurement of language proficiency in guided production in L1 (full texts were provided with parts of selected words to be restored). Finally, appropriateness judgment test was constructed in which sentences selected from the language corpus were presented for the students' receptive evaluation. Such procedures allowed for a comparison of language errors at the level of production and reception.

The primary focus of the research centered on whether the native language of adult bilinguals is susceptible to language change described as language attrition in the FL educational context. While searching for answers, L1 productive and receptive skills were investigated. The aim was to find out whether symptoms of L1 attrition could be observed in the C-test completion task and accuracy judgments in L1. It was assumed that it would be interesting to look at the results of the two tests and compare them with

self-perceptions of competence in L1. Finally, among the goals there were questions about vulnerability of L1 areas to attrition, conditions conducive to L1 attrition to take place and implications that could be formulated on the basis of the research results.

2.1. Attrition at the level of L1 production

The language patterns were discussed within the framework of the grammatical and lexical categories as suggested in *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* (1986). In the course of language analysis there appeared the need for some additional categories to be distinguished, too.

In the light of the definitions presented in this work, language attrition at the level of production means ‘divergence from the norm of language’ (Sharwood Smith, 1994), ‘overuse of certain elements of the language system’ (Wysocka, 1999) and ‘interferences from the L2 (...), a simplification or impoverishment of the L1’ (Schmid and Köpke, 2009). After the analysis of the language corpus, a conclusion may be drawn that all of the above symptoms were present in the collection of summary texts and described according to lexical and syntactic categories. Some of those linguistic symptoms of attrition might be merely ‘slips of the tongue’ (as in the phrase *skupiać się nad*). Some resembled backsliding where the mistakes were so evident that they could not have resulted from imperfect learning (e.g. some punctuation marks). Some were extensions (e.g. the use of preposition *przy*), some resulted from FL influence (e.g. L1 structures with the verb *to be* and other instances of loan translation) and yet others could be described as unique in its own kind because they appeared to be the outcomes of operation of some merged L1 and FL rules (as in the phrase *o ujęciu procesu w teorii*). It was found out that the lexical patterns which diverted from the L1 norm constituted the largest group of errors and comprised 32% of their total number. Grammatical errors formed the second, significant in terms of the size (26%), category. The remaining patterns were examples of word order errors (14%), stylistic errors (10%), language overproduction and underproduction (9%) and structural loan translation (8%).

Not all of the categories of language errors occurred systematically across the corpus as it might be expected. It was found out that a combination of different errors appeared in individual summary texts and rendered them stylistically and linguistically inappropriate. Thus, although the summary texts might not share a large number of the same errors, the individual texts were highly repetitive in terms of analogous or exact language patterns. This repetitiveness created an impression of the paucity of linguistic variety in the texts and was illustrated and discussed on two examples of summary texts in Chapter V. In the sample summary texts, the lack of L1 control was observed in the chaotic use of punctuation, free word and sentence order and distorted syntactic relationships. What is more, the formal tone of the texts was occasionally disrupted with informal digressions. In a similar vein, the language identified in the L1 corpus often resembled a flow of casual speech with colloquial phrases, repetitions and loosely connected structures. In that sense, the texts represented diminished quality in terms of both form and vocabulary. Such production must have been caused by mutual L1 ↔ FL interference and by some re-organisation in the bilingual mind to handle more than one language.

The fact that the corpus consisted of summary texts in L1 which were parts of MA theses written in FL led to an assumption that both language modes must have been activated during summary writing. As a result, there must have been a degree of interaction between FL and L1 rules. Many Polish researchers (e.g. Bartmiński 2004, Otwinowska-Kasztelanica 2006, Zabawa 2008a) emphasize that deviations from the L1 norm are frequently the result of negligence of L1 rules and that they often stem from carelessness of speakers and translators who render texts hastily and without proper attention to L1 structure and vocabulary. Cook (1992) defended the way bilinguals use their L1 by arguing that their unique state of multi-competent mind may not be juxtaposed with a monolingual norm. Indeed, the text features found in the corpus made L1 writing quite distinct. However, it would be hardly possible at that stage of the research to find them acceptable and justified by their 'own right' (Cook, 1992).

The language found in the corpus was 'unique' because it stood in opposition to the L1 norm in several respects. The passive voice structure with the verb *to be* and past participle to emphasize the formal context was overused in comparison to passive structures with the impersonal verb. This means that the latter alternative of expressing passive voice was rather rare. It was an interesting observation as it implied some conceptual change in understanding of what linguistic means should be used to express formality in L1. That also means that production in L1 was approached from the FL perspective and through the prism of FL standards. Certainly, the overused passive voice structure cost the bilingual mind less cognitive strain as it was, metaphorically speaking, a common denominator (i.e. the same structure) for both languages. However, the patterns with the impersonal verb are twice as much space-efficient what should have been essential in summary writing. Further, the syntactic combinations described as *Verb + Object/Preposition* and *Noun + Object* were frequently identified as incorrect. The misuse and lack of punctuation contributed to the disorganised, incoherent sentences and logical errors. Finally, the lexical patterns were not only repetitive but they were often FL imports, loan translation and approximation.

All of the above mentioned errors might be viewed after Latkowska (2006) as substitutions of specific and unavailable terms within Cook's (1992) understanding the construct of multicompetence. However, since those errors at the level of L1 production might as well be the result of haste, ignorance and lack of proper attention to language and because of the danger that they might be too easily deemed as outcomes of 'unique' multi-competent processing, they were at that stage regarded as examples of L1 attrition in the L1 context.

2.2. Self-perception of L1 dynamics

Encountering language problems, be it at the level of production or perception, must coincide with certain observations of language change on the part of language users. The self-perception of language dynamics as well as background information on the students was addressed by the means of the questionnaire.

The students participating in the studies started to develop their English language proficiency around the age of 10, i.e. around puberty. At the time of the study, they had been developing their English language skills for the minimum of ten years. Under intensive, quality tuition they were mastering it to the advanced and native-like levels.

The students were also learning other foreign languages, however, the achieved proficiency in them was elementary and did not go beyond the intermediate level. Thus, the English language was the only foreign language in which they were highly advanced and throughout the whole work they have been referred to as ‘bilinguals’.

It was assumed in this work that under quality tuition and in line with gaining competence in a range of FL skills, the L1 use would continue to dwindle. Thus, it came as a big surprise that the perceived amount of the use of FL in the university setting was increasingly smaller in favour of L1. Nevertheless, in general terms, the students provided high evaluations of their L1 and FL proficiency. Confidence was naturally higher in their L1 reaching the average level of 95% on the scale 0-100 and only slightly smaller in FL reaching the average level of 90%. The students felt more competent interlocutors in L1 than FL, especially before larger and unknown audiences.

Perhaps the most important finding of this study was that the students’ perception of L1 dominance was rising and so was rising the awareness of L1 change under FL influence. It was extremely compelling to note that more than half of the first year students claimed not to notice any changes within their L1 and that the number of such beliefs dwindled with each year to 0% in the group of the fourth year students. That means that L1 change under FL impact is observed only after reaching a certain degree of FL proficiency.

Analogously, speaking in terms of the perception of interference between the two language systems, there was a rising number of the students who observed both positive and negative FL impact on their L1. The results showed that the process of FL development entails constant revision of L1 according to the FL rules in the course of which the students become more aware of the positive and negative FL influences. To sum up, according to the study, there is a correlation between the stage of FL development and self-observation of instability of the L1 system.

It was expected that the negative evaluation of FL influence on L1 would eventually override perceptions of positive FL impact on L1. Thus, it came as a disappointment that self-perception of FL influence on L1 was rather balanced, i.e. the same number of the students saw that influence as positive and the same number saw it as a negative outcome. That result was a negation of the claim that highly advanced bilinguals consider FL a destructive force in L1 maintenance.

Although the students highly estimated their L1 proficiency, they had different views on receptive and productive language skills. In both FL and L1, writing was approached with greater resentment than reading. The preference for L1 writing dropped from 16% in Group A to 0% in Group D which is shown in Figure 23 in Chapter V. In other words, the fourth year students had, for some reasons, an aversion to written production in L1. It is possible that language decoding, involving language recognition is less strenuous in terms of cognitive effort and less time consuming and was therefore preferred over more cognitively-demanding task of encoding. It is also viable that greater objections towards writing in L1 stemmed from difficulty finding proper means of expression. Thus, those results might be received as indicative of decreased L1 productive skills resulting from L1 attrition.

The presented outcomes also point to the crucial role that FL development plays in building meta-linguistic awareness. FL interference helped the bilinguals realize that their L1 system was neither stable nor resistant to FL impact but quite to the contrary – fragile and susceptible to change. It was expected at that stage that the results of two other studies, i.e. C-test and judgment task would allow for more objective conclusions on L1 dynamics.

2.3. C-Test task findings

The C-test was a tool devised on the basis of Schmid's (2004) *New blueprint for language attrition research* to provide quantitative feedback on the students' L1 proficiency. The task required from the students wide vocabulary, high comprehension skills and good awareness of the inter-sentential and intra-sentential relationships. Schmid (2004) explained that this task

‘requires the speaker to make full use of the natural redundancy of a text, which makes it possible to measure not only relatively low level skills (command of vocabulary, grammar, idioms) but also higher order skills such as awareness of intersentential relationships, global reading, etc.’ and that ‘it has been (...) found to be a highly valid and reliable predictor of overall proficiency’. (p. 360)

The C-test used in this study might be described as a sort of a word restoration task in which five different texts, each 80-100 word-long, contained the total of one hundred gaps. The students were asked to restore the entries in which the second half of the words had been deleted. The results obtained in this study were completely unsupportive for the hypothesis that the advanced bilingual students would manifest decreased ability to restore the gaps. The overall scores achieved by the students were very high in all the groups and approximated 90%. An emphasis must be placed on the fact that the scores were rising in the first three groups. Group D achieved a weaker result which might be explained in terms of slightly different FL instruction gained outside the university before entering the complementary MA course. However, the climbing tendency might only be received as an indication of enhanced linguistic skills. That tendency suggested that L1 skills were improved by FL proficiency.

65% of the errors which were identified in the C-test task were lexical misuses. They were items inappropriate for the provided context as they conveyed the wrong sense. Some of them may have been caused by the readers' inattentiveness but there were also lexical misuses which implied inability to find the right word. Unfortunately, there were also a few entries which were evidently completed with the first available association with the initial letters provided in the gap. In all probability, they resulted from carelessness and haste. To provide an example, gap 46 in the C-test task was filled in with the phrase *w ogrodzie* [in the garden] instead of *w ogóle* [at all]:

*Przecież nawet ja bym dawał chętnie, gdyby tylko była taka możliwość i żeby była ona prosta, nie wymagała wczytywania się w dziesiątki zawiłych przepisów. Ale u nas w (46) **ogrodzie** nie ma (47) **takich** możliwości.*

*Even I would eagerly give if there was such a possibility and if it were simple and did not require delving into plenty of unclear regulations. But there is no (47) **such** possibility for us (46) **in the garden**.*

The entry marked in red was an evident result of negligence, which showed that psychological factors must also be taken into account when calculating the results. Morphological errors comprised the minority of 31% of all the errors. They were incorrect inflexions which did not agree with the part of the sentence they referred to. For instance, in the above passage the determiner *takich [such]* in gap 47 misleadingly pointed to the multiple aspect of the singular noun *possibility [możliwość]*. The inflection did not agree with the noun phrase in the previous sentence that it related to. Inaccurate inflections were also added to other categories of words, such as nouns and verbs, bringing a change of meaning. For instance, the most frequently committed morphological error was the plural morpheme instead of the singular one, such as the one in entry number 19:

*Na razie wiemy, że jest tam gwiazda o połowę mniejsza, ciemniejsza i chłodniejsza od Słońca i dwie planety. (...) Naukowcy podejrzewają, że między nimi a ich (19) **gwiazdami** mogą (20) być skaliste obiekty przypominające Ziemię, Marsa, Merkurego, Urana i Neptuna.*

*At the present time, we know that there is the star which is smaller, darker and colder than the Sun and two planets. (...) Researchers suspect that between them and their (19) **stars** there may be rocky objects resembling the Earth, Mars, Mercury, Uranus and Neptune.*

In consequence, the text was not consistent as it mentioned the star and two planets in the preceding sentence and then made reference to the plural noun *stars* instead of the singular one. In a similar vein, other inaccurate inflections were predominantly the result of the agreement and plurality errors. The most sporadic errors were conjunction errors, which comprised 4% of the total number of errors in the C-test task.

The results of the C-test were very high and slightly improving according to the year of study with the exception of the group of the fourth year participants. What is more, some language misuses resulted from the students' weariness, inattentiveness and negligence. In the light of the findings, there was no attrition detected in this L1 completion task. The students used the cues successfully and restored the correct language items. The task did not pose any major difficulties and the students' lexical knowledge and awareness of inter-sentential and intra-sentential relationships was in a very good condition. According to Schmid and Köpke (2009, p. 216), the C-test results improve according to the level of education, i.e. the higher the level of education the better the results. Their claim finds confirmation in this study in which participants boosted their performance in line with their progression toward the higher degree.

It has to be asked how the C-test results relate to the corpus findings? Why are there symptoms of attrition found in the summary text writing and no confirmation of them in the C-test? One explanation is that different mechanisms must have been at operation during their completion. The summary texts were examples of free production

in L1, without the provided context and the gaps to be filled in. There is some probability that errors in the summary texts were the result of translation mechanisms which must have been at operation during the text development. It must be remembered that the main body of the thesis was written in English and the summary texts were written in Polish. That could contribute to activation of the FL mode and to the use of FL structures instead of L1 counterparts. Some of L1 equivalents may have been completely deactivated at that time - hence code switching, loan translation, lexical and structural borrowings. The C-test task provided L1 context and activated L1 mode. Thus, there was less FL linguistic and conceptual interference whereas the enhanced linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge most presumably contributed to higher scores.

To conclude, the results of the C-test task which required wide knowledge of L1 lexis, syntax and required good inferential skills did not manifest attrition. They showed that as far as the controlled writing is concerned, i.e. when the L1 context and word clues are provided, bilingual users achieve high results.

2.4. Appropriateness judgment task findings

The results gained on the basis of the appropriateness judgment task were divided into the categories of errors and then averaged. The average outcomes per category were not always consistently rising or falling in the groups but they fluctuated in the case of some categories of errors.

The sentences containing punctuation errors and loan translation were more often marked as erroneous by more advanced students than by the first year students. However, this tendency concerned the minority of the students in the four groups, i.e. the majority accepted the sentence patterns as appropriate. The sentences containing lexical misuses elicited slightly less criticism on the part of the more advanced students. Latkowska (2006) found out in her study that the degree of approval in judgments on lexical acceptability was substantially higher in the group of bilinguals than in the control group of monolinguals. Latkowska concluded that FL influence contributed to the inclusion of the FL-specific concepts into L1 and was made use of during comprehension and judgments on acceptability:

Overall, the study revealed a substantially higher degree of approval in the bilingual group, which led to a conclusion that the L2 contributed to a change in the bilinguals' perception of their L1 lexical stock and was a source of lexical expansion rather than loss. In its simplest sense, this finding suggests that under the influence of L2 English, the bilingual subjects included L2-specific concepts in their L1 and used them for comprehension and acceptability judgments in the language. (Latkowska, 2006, p. 152)

In this work not only did the number of negative judgments on lexical items slightly decline but also the majority of the students marked lexical items as definitely appropriate. Putting it in other words, the majority of the students marked lexical misuses as correct while the number of the students who expressed negative judgments was shrinking. Ewert (2009) explained that FL users are more prone to accept the language patterns which share some cross-linguistic features:

In several cases the L2 users are more likely to consider sentences containing some crosslinguistically similar features as more correct than other subjects. These structures include: sentence frames, the choice between infinitives and nominalised forms, prepositions and temporal conjunctions. (Ewert, 2009, p. 148)

An interesting observation was made on errors concerning sentential agreement and coherence. The tendency to recognize those sentences as incorrect was high in Group A where it reached 70% and declined steadily to 50% in Group D (cf. Figure 59). This means that the structural connections between parts of the sentence were gradually paid less attention to. From the studies described in this work it appears that the students were increasingly tolerant of structural ambiguity under FL influence. As a result, they focused their attention on the meaning and ignored the intra-sentential lack of agreement. In the same vein, the sentence containing word order error was marked as incorrect by increasingly smaller numbers of the students presumably because the wrong word order did not disturb the meaning comprehension.

Further, the students were more unanimous in recognizing the correct sentences. Such results find confirmation in the research by Ewert (2009). The results of her study showed that there was more agreement among the bilingual students in accepting the grammatical sentences (however, there was also more unanimity about rejecting the ungrammatical ones).

Finally, it is noteworthy that self-perception of the increasing amount of FL influence on L1 was in concord with the mounting criticism towards sentences in the appropriateness judgment task. Figure 80 in Chapter V shows that the total number of the 'correct' and 'acceptable' judgments was on the steady decline from approximate 65% in Group A to approximate 50% in Group D. To sum up, in the appropriateness judgment task it was found out that there are certain L1 productions, e.g. loan translation, which may be better recognized as incorrect (perhaps because they are more distinct). On the other hand, L1 lexical misuses are less easily identified (probably as an effect of greater focus on meaning than form). In the same vein, sentential agreement may be considered as less significant by more proficient bilinguals as long as the comprehension is not disturbed. That might be a transfer of FL learning strategy to ignore the conflicting data and keep the focus on meaning comprehension.

3. L1 attrition in an L1 context

Language change in the FL context may be observed at two levels of production and perception. That change is triggered not so much by the length of contact with FL but by its amount and quality. It was shown that the perception of cross-linguistic influence in one's L1 changes considerably as the level of FL proficiency becomes more advanced. FL proficiency changes the ways in which a bilingual user thinks about one's L1 and how he/she uses it. There are certainly positive outcomes of dealing with two advanced language systems but the focus in this work has been placed upon the negative product referred to as attrition, which certainly occurred at the level of production. Towards the end of their studies the students reported decrease in the use of FL in favour of L1. Nevertheless, as Gabryś-Barker's (2003) study showed, the

students' perception of FL attrition is climbing in the final years of the university tuition.

In the context of this study, L1 attrition may be defined as an obligatory part of language dynamics characterized by the repetitive use of the limited number of vocabulary and structure, paucity of punctuation, structural disorganisation and focusing on conveying all of the intended meaning without paying appropriate attention to the form.

3.1. Attrition in L1 written production

In the course of the research it was found out that there are several factors which may prompt attrition in creative language production. Those factors comprise paying attention to the content while ignoring the language form, borrowing lexical and structural items from FL, resorting to a limited range of linguistic means and avoidance of punctuation. As a result, writing in L1 manifests structural chaos: problems with language control which are seen in problems with coherence and cohesion, paucity of punctuation marks, repetition of FL-induced vocabulary and structure as well as insufficient linguistic diversity. There should be little doubt that language which contains those symptoms may be referred to as attrited. Most presumably, L1 attrition results from language processing and difficulty retrieving the accurate items because of too high level of FL activation. According to Ewert (2009) 'language that is not currently used by a bilingual person is nonetheless always activated' (p. 173). Attrition is a blockage of once available linguistic information because of disturbances at the level of language processing, which was described by Gabryś-Barker (2003) in the following passage:

Language attrition seems to be procedural in nature in the case of advanced users of the L2 and to refer to access to the consciously known structures and language forms. The deficits seem to lie in storage and retrieval processing. (p. 113)

What is more, as shown in studies in this work, when retrieving L1 patterns bilinguals tend to rely on 'universal' syntactic and lexical patterns shared by languages. Cross-linguistic features identified in the corpus would not have been that extraordinary if they occurred with lower frequency. However, it was shown that overuse of language patterns, such as the passive voice with the verb *to be* and past participle, infinitives, etc. rendered the text unnatural and difficult to read. Thus, attrition is also too extensive reliance on patterns shared by languages. On the other hand, the C-Test results showed that in controlled language production in which the language context is provided and the gaps cued, bilinguals may perform better along their progress in FL. It might be possible that such a C-test task is too guided for bilinguals to commit any major mistakes and their lexical knowledge readily available, especially when the retrieval process is facilitated.

3.2. Attrition in perception of L1 sentences

At the level of perception, attrition may be described as ignorance of erroneous and unacceptable language structures. Obviously that ignorance is not intentional but comes as an effect of blurring of the differences between the languages, which must

entail a type of qualitative change. Ewert (2009) states that to assume that L1 competence changes is to say that the students must possess qualitatively different L1 knowledge. In the appropriateness judgment task the results were not always clearly indicative of the definite L1 attrition. They often showed rising tendencies, which might suggest that judgments on acceptability of L1 structures were boosted rather than attrited. However, those rising tendencies often concerned only the minority of the students. Some judgment results fluctuated, which made it difficult to draw firm conclusions. Additionally, one may not rule out the possibility that the students did not focus sufficiently on the appropriateness task which required much attention to detail.

It seems, on the basis of the judgment test, that the knowledge and use of L1 was changing under the FL influence which might be seen in losing the distinction between items in both languages and unifying concepts. It may also be the case that L1 knowledge was under the process of restructuring at the time of the study. That is why certain elements were already well contrasted with FL and established whereas other elements were still to be accommodated. Therefore, the observed L1 attrition might be an intermediate stage of further L1 development.

3.3. L1 vulnerability to attrition

A vast typology of various language errors was formed on the basis of the corpus data. Essentially, there were two broad categories which comprised half of all identified errors. They were lexical misuses that constituted one third of all language misuses and syntactic errors which constituted one fourth of all language misuses. Within the former category, lexical approximation formed the biggest group and was immediately followed by borrowings, overuse of the same vocabulary and lexical loans. Code switching, colloquial expressions and semantic change belonged to the minority. Within the latter category of errors, the greatest problems were posed by verb phrases and noun phrases followed by object. The use of prepositions also created difficulty. Other misuses of phrases and conjunctions within the syntactic category occurred more sporadically. The remaining language errors comprised word order errors, stylistic errors and structural loan translation.

The proportions of language errors gave an idea as to which language areas are most susceptible to attrition. As expected, the lexical domain proved the most vulnerable to FL impact. Lexical misuses indicated the possible conceptual change under FL influence which was observed in merging concepts in the process of meaning extension or giving a lexical item more specific meaning in the process of narrowing. That change was also seen in resorting to the limited number of language constructions. Syntactic connections were also quite a susceptible area. Some of those errors were quite peculiar as they seemed to result from an attempt to build L1 syntactic structures closely imitating their FL equivalents what only contributed to the impression of uncontrolled L1 production.

3.4. L1 of a bilingual speaker

It may be claimed with all certainty that FL instruction leaves an imprint on the condition of L1. This research, however, has not unequivocally proved that L1 proficiency decreases because of the destructive FL interference. Apart from production in L1 which indicated deficiencies in language control, the remaining studies showed

that certain areas of L1 performance may improve under FL influence. In the Dynamic Model of Bilingualism proposed by Herdina and Jessner (2002), learner languages are interdependent and interrelated. Dynamics is observed in the stages of language variation in the course of time. According to Herdina and Jessner, at an early stage of bilingualism attrition manifests itself as the increased scatter of performance which is recognized as erosion of proficiency. This scatter is reduced when the language system stabilizes at a new level, i.e. attrition is reduced when the language system under the FL influences establishes in an altered form. This perspective helps to understand L1 attrition as an intermediate stage of the L1 system's development manifested by diminished performance skills in the process of establishing a new quality L1 system. The results obtained from the studies described in this work suggest that this 'intermediate' phase of further L1 development within the bilingual system may be quite extended in time. The transitory phase may not depend on the length of FL development but most of all, on the attained level of FL proficiency and on experience in operating both language systems.

It seems reasonable to assume that the progress of the bilingual system (as described in section 3.2. of Chapter II) must go through certain stages of development. It may be concluded that at the initial stage language attrition plays a major role within this system's evolution. Therefore, L1 production and L1 norm often stay in contrast. What is more, during this stage of linguistic development symptoms of regression are indispensable to acquire a new level of L1 awareness crucial for its maintenance and expansion. This first stage leads to the second stage during which greater linguistic awareness is developed and language forms are paid greater attention to. The third stage might be either a continuation of FL development and perfection of L1, or decline of one of the languages due to gradual non-use and lack of progress, i.e. fossilization. L1 attrition to occur in L1 setting has to follow the latter route of cessation of L1 use in favour of FL (perhaps with a small exception to basic everyday situations in which L1 is required). The degree of L1 attrition depends on how much effort is put in its maintenance. One may expect that complete negligence of L1 rules and regulations (perhaps even conscious effort to eliminate them from one's competence) exacerbates the symptoms of attrition.

To conclude, L1 attrition in an L1 context may be viewed as a manifestation of L1 dynamics exhibited in the onset of a new quality bilingual system, which may be revised, changed under conflicting L1 and FL evidence and expanded. This has been referred to as a 'holistic' state of mind by Cook (1992), as a qualitatively different stage of development by Ewert (2009) and as 'a change in the native language system of the bilingual who is acquiring and using a second language' by Schmid and Köpke (2009, p. 210).

4. Didactic implications

In studies carried out by Otwinowska-Kasztelanica (2006), bilingual speakers were metaphorically described as importers and innovators whereas monolinguals as consumers and adopters (cited in Ewert, 2009). Bilinguals seem to produce FL-induced patterns in L1 but they rarely use them. It is the monolingual or low proficiency multilingual audience that spread those patterns among the society. Mass media play a particular role in reinforcing them among the society.

From this perspective and in the light of this work's findings, some pedagogical implications may be put forward. Most of all, to facilitate the stabilisation of the L1 system, classes of comparative L1 ↔ FL instruction should be run in line with FL tuition. This should improve the awareness of the cross-language complexities and differences between the languages, and contribute to better quality L1 production. Such specific L1 training should be definitely taken into consideration by institutions offering professional translation studies and FL teaching programs. Otwinowska-Kasztelanica (2006) also points out the need for the syllabus dealing with cross-linguistic phenomena in modern Polish, especially for students of the media and communications programs. It is equally essential to provide L1 training for future language teachers who in the course of their didactic work shape the L1 used by their learners. It has to be reiterated that all teachers, FL teachers included, are obliged by the Ministry of Education to show particular care in L1 production. In compliance with this obligation, teachers must monitor not only their own L1 production but also the L1 used by their students. Teacher training programs should thus take appropriate measures to prepare future FL teachers to serve as models in both languages.

Finally, it is impossible to undermine the role of metalinguistic awareness developed in the process of differentiation between the languages. As seen in this work, metalinguistic awareness is an outcome of dealing with conflicting language data. It is undisputable that under formal instruction metalinguistic awareness could be further developed and contribute to quality production in L1.

5. Limitations

The presented research and discussion are definitely not free from certain drawbacks. There are at least two limitations which have to be recognized. First of all, the research was diagnostic and cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. This means that it did not monitor the students' changes and progress in their L1 over time. Secondly, it was not possible to measure the proportion of sincere answers and random guesses. Therefore the conclusions reached here have to be approached tentatively.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Grammar patterns selected from the corpus data

Nouns followed by prepositions (Table 6)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Wskazówka dla kogoś, Wskazówka co do czegoś	Ostatni rozdział przedstawia (...) wskazówki praktyczne dla nauczyciela w pracy z uczniami.	Ostatni rozdział przedstawia (...) praktyczne wskazówki dla nauczyciela co do pracy z uczniami.
Pomoc w czymś	... pomoc przy teoretycznym opracowaniu tematyki pracy... ... podziękowanie za wszelką pomoc przy pisaniu pracy...	... pomoc w opracowaniu ta teoretycznego pracy... ... podziękowanie za wszelką pomoc w pisaniu pracy...
Kwalifikacje do czegoś Materiał do czegoś: (zużywany przy robieniu czegoś; tworzący podstawę do czegoś: ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem czegoś)	Zebrane informacje ukazały braki w kwalifikacjach nauczycieli co do (...) rozumienia roli przedstawionych materiałów nauczania dla dzieci.	Zebrane informacje ukazały braki w kwalifikacjach nauczycieli do nauczania dzieci.

Nouns preceded by prepositions (Table 7)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
dzięki komuś/czemuś (oznacza dodatnią przyczynę czegoś)	... dzięki mniejszemu wkładowi pracy ucznia.	...z mniejszym wkładem pracy ucznia
w myśl (nie: po myśli) czegoś	W niniejszym opracowaniu odniesiono się także do wniosków (...), które dotyczą czynników mających wpływ na przyswajanie słownictwa po myśli fundamentalnej zasady (...), że szybciej przyswajane są wyrazy używane częściej (...).	W niniejszym opracowaniu odniesiono się także do wniosków (...), które dotyczą czynników wpływających na przyswajanie słownictwa w myśl fundamentalnej zasady (...), że szybciej przyswajane są wyrazy używane częściej (...).
pod kątem czegoś	Temat ten analizowany jest pod różnym kątem ...	Temat ten analizowany jest pod kątem różnych teorii nauczania...
W ujęciu (formie przedstawienia) czegoś	Praca koncentruje się na ukazaniu różnic w ujęciu wspomnianego procesu poprzez dwie teorie fonologiczne: fonologię generatywną i fonologię rzędu. Rozdział składa się z dwóch głównych części traktujących o ujęciu procesu w teorii fonologii generatywnej i fonologii rzędu.	Praca koncentruje się na ukazaniu różnic w procesie nauczania w ujęciu dwóch teorii fonologicznych: generatywnej i rzędu. Rozdział składa się z dwóch, głównych części, w których przedstawiono teorię fonologii generatywnej i fonologii rzędu.
z perspektywy czegoś, błędne w zn. 'przyszłość'. Np.: W perspektywie, poprawnie: w przyszłości	Omówiono w nim [rozdziale] sposoby rozwiązywania problemów (...), wskazując na ich zalety i wady w perspektywie efektywności kształcenia.	Omówiono w nim sposoby rozwiązywania problemów (...), wskazując na ich zalety i wady z perspektywy skuteczności kształcenia.

Nouns followed by object (Table 8)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Uzasadnienie czegoś (nie: dla czegoś) czegoś (nie: dla czegoś)	W pierwszej części [rozdziału] przedstawione jest uzasadnienie dla metodyki na której TBL się opiera (...).	W pierwszej części przedstawiono uzasadnienie metodyki na której opiera się TBL (...).
Stopień czegoś (5. poziom, intensywność czegoś, np. zamożności społeczeństwa).	Kwestionariusz (...) ma na celu sprawdzenie (...) czy pozytywne nastawienie do kultury rodzimej i obcej ma wpływ (...) również na stopień, do jakiego można się zasymilować...	Kwestionariusz (...) ma na celu sprawdzenie (...), czy pozytywne nastawienie do kultury rodzimej i obcej ma również wpływ (...) na stopień asymilacji...
Stopień czegoś (2. stanowisko, godność, np.: stopień doktora)	Wywiad przeprowadzony z nauczycielami z różnym stopniem wykształcenia i stażem zawierał podobne pytania...	Wywiad, przeprowadzony z nauczycielami z różnym wykształceniem i stażem, zawierał podobne pytania...
Kontynuacja czegoś	Ostatnie rozdziały poświęciłam głównie analizie wyników (...), na podstawie których wyciągnęłam wnioski co do (...) potrzeby wprowadzenia ewentualnych zmian w kontynuacji nauczania według tej metody...	Ostatnie rozdziały poświęciłam głównie analizie wyników (...), na podstawie których wyciągnęłam wnioski co do (...) potrzeby wprowadzenia ewentualnych zmian w kontynuacji nauczania tą metodą...
cecha kogoś, czegoś	Ta sekcja przedstawia cechy charakterystyczne dla nauczyciela niekompetentnego...	Ta sekcja przedstawia cechy nauczyciela niekompetentnego...
Umiejętność b/m czegoś , rzad., zwykle w lm umiejętności w czymś Wykazać coś, wykazywać się czymś (w sensie pozytywnym)	...uczniowie nie wykazują zaangażowania lub umiejętności do pozytywnego zakończenia tego procesu [nauki].	...uczniowie nie wykazują się zaangażowaniem lub umiejętnościami pozytywnego zakończenia tego procesu/ ...uczniom brakuje potrzebnego zaangażowania lub umiejętności by zakończyć naukę z wynikiem pozytywnym.
możliwość czegoś (nie: do czegoś, na coś)	...z braku możliwości do nawiązania naturalnej komunikacji w języku angielskim...	...z braku możliwości nawiązania naturalnej rozmowy w języku angielskim...
Potencjał czegoś	...strategie te zwiększają potencjał do nauki...	...strategie te zwiększają potencjał nauki...
Propozycja czegoś	...ostatni rozdział jest (...) próbą wysunięcia propozycji na udoskonalenie pracy nauczyciela i ucznia.	...ostatni rozdział jest (...) próbą wysunięcia propozycji udoskonalania pracy nauczyciela i ucznia.
warunek 1. to, od czego jest uzależnione istnienie czegoś innego: Warunek czegoś , warunek konieczny czegoś	... warunku koniecznego dla budowania pozytywnej atmosfery...	... warunku koniecznego budowania pozytywnej atmosfery...

Verbs followed by object (Table 9)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
owocować czymś : zaowocowałyby uzyskaniem pożądanego stopnia...	zaowocowałyby w uzyskaniu pożądanego stopnia zaawansowania językowego	zaowocowałyby uzyskaniem pożądanego stopnia zaawansowania
napotykać kogoś (nie: na kogoś), coś (nie: na coś)	Małgorzata Fabianowska w tłumaczeniu 'Strachu przed lataniem' napotkała na trudności dwojakiego typu.	Małgorzata Fabianowska w tłumaczeniu 'Strachu przed lataniem' napotkała trudności dwojakiego typu.
ukazywać coś/kogoś ; ktoś ukazuje coś – (czymś, w czymś), ktoś ukazuje kogoś/coś – (w czymś, na czymś)	W rozdziale trzecim zamieszczono szczegółową analizę wyników przeprowadzonych badań ukazujących, że zdobycie umiejętności komunikacji w języku obcym ma pierwszoplanowe znaczenie (...).	W rozdziale trzecim zamieszczono szczegółową analizę wyników przeprowadzonych badań ukazujących pierwszoplanowość komunikowania się w języku obcym (...).
Okazywać się kimś/czymś ; Ktoś okazuje się kimś (nie: okazuje się być kimś), coś okazuje się czymś (nie: okazuje się być czymś)	Główną przyczyną tego zjawiska okazał się być mały zasób słownictwa...	Główną przyczyną tego zjawiska okazał się mały zasób słownictwa...
rozważać coś (nie: o czymś, o kimś)	[Autorka] rozważa także nad funkcjami pedagogiczno- dydaktycznymi nauczyciela.	Autorka rozważa także pedagogiczno- dydaktyczne role nauczyciela.
ktoś, coś umożliwia coś – (komuś)	Stosowanie ich [strategii metakognitywnych] umożliwia uczniom planowanie (...) oraz na lepsze spożytkowanie czasu...	Stosowanie ich umożliwia uczniom planowanie (...) oraz lepsze wykorzystanie czasu...
służyć komuś, czemuś (nie: dla kogoś, dla czegoś) – jako coś, za coś	...narzędzie służące do kontroli umiejętności językowychnarzędzie służące kontroli umiejętności językowych ...
przysłużyć się komuś – (czymś)	...część poświęcona projektowaniu przez uczniów własnych słowniczków, które mają się przysłużyć do lepszego przyswajania wyrażań, idiomów i słówek.	Część poświęcona projektowaniu przez uczniów własnych słowniczków, które mają służyć lepszemu przyswajaniu wyrażań, idiomów i słówek.
Ktoś stosuje coś – (gdzieś) – (w jakichś okolicznościach) – (do czegoś, w jakimś celu)	Rozdział II zawiera opis metod badawczych zastosowanych do zgrupowania informacji.	Rozdział II zawiera opis metod badawczych zastosowanych w celu zgrupowania informacji.
ktoś prosi (kogoś) – o coś/czegoś ; pot. zapraszać ktoś prosi kogoś – do czegoś	...rodzice Arka zostali poproszeni do pracowania wspólnie z synem w domu...	Poproszono rodziców Arka o to, by ćwiczyli wspólnie z synem w domu.
ocena czegoś, kogoś	Końcowym fragmentem badania jest ocena zrealizowania wyznaczonych celów przydatności pracy.	Końcowym fragmentem badania jest ocena realizacji wyznaczonych celów przydatności pracy

Verb followed by infinitive or 'that' clause (Table 10)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
pozwalać (komuś) + bezokolicznik lub na coś	co pozwoi na uniknięcie negatywnych doświadczeń szoku kulturowego.	...co pozwoi uniknąć złego doświadczenia szoku kulturowego.
Ktoś pozwała (komuś) + bezokolicznik, na coś	Poznanie teoretycznych założeń pozwała nam na wyciągnięcie wniosków podczas obserwacji zajęć praktycznych przy użyciu badanej metody.	Poznanie teoretycznych założeń pozwała nam wyciągnąć wnioski z obserwacji zajęć praktycznych prowadzonych badaną metodą.

Verbs followed prepositions (Table 11)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Uciekać się do czegoś - posługiwać się czymś	...politycy uciekają się w użycie strony biernej...	Politycy uciekają się do użycia strony biernej...
Skupiać się na czymś	Kolejny rozdział skupia się nad korzyściami metodycznymi płynącymi z tych projektów.	Kolejny rozdział skupia się na korzyściach metodycznych płynących z tych projektów.
Mieć na celu coś	Każdemu nagraniu towarzyszyły dwa ćwiczenia, które miały na celu sprawdzić zrozumienie...	Każdemu nagraniu towarzyszyły dwa ćwiczenia, które miały na celu sprawdzenie zrozumienia...
	...kwestionariusz (...) mający na celu ujawnić ich [uczniów] postrzeganie kultury docelowej...	...kwestionariusz (...) mający na celu ujawnienie ich postrzeganie kultury docelowej...
okrzyknąć kogoś – kimś, za kogoś; ktoś okrzykuje coś – czymś, za coś	Kiedy książka Eryki Jong , 'Fear of Flying' (...) została po raz pierwszy opublikowana (...), okrzyknięto ją jako wyjątkowo śmiałą.	Kiedy książka Eryki Jong 'Fear of Flying' (...) została po raz pierwszy opublikowana (...) okrzyknięto ją wyjątkowo śmiałą.
Przekonywać się o czymś/ do kogoś, do czegoś; ktoś przekonuje kogoś – o czymś, ktoś przekonuje kogoś – do kogoś, do czegoś	Podczas obserwacji zajęć (...), można było przekonać się, czy wszystkie rozwiązania proponowane przez teoretyków możliwe są do przeprowadzenia w praktyce...	Podczas obserwacji można było przekonać się o praktyczności rozwiązań proponowanych przez teoretyków...
przyczyniać się do czegoś lub do tego, że...	Ich [rodziców] obecność może przyczynić się do rozwinięcia w młodym uczniu pozytywnego stosunku do kursu językowego...	Ich obecność może przyczynić się do rozwaju pozytywnego nastawienia ucznia do kursu.../ Ich obecność może przyczynić się do tego, że w uczniu rozwinie się pozytywne nastawienie do kursu...

Adjectives followed by prepositions (Table 12)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
Dokładny w czymś	...bardziej zaawansowani byli bardziej dokładni przy użyciu zaimków.	...bardziej zaawansowani byli bardziej dokładni w stosowaniu zaimków.
Przydatny dla kogoś, komuś – do czegoś, w czymś	...wskazówki, które mogą być przydatne przy nauczaniu dzieci...	...wskazówki, które będą przydatne dla nauczycieli w nauczaniu dzieci...

Stosowana przez	...najczęściej stosowaną strategią u średniozaawansowanych uczniów.	...najczęściej stosowaną strategią przez uczniów na poziomie średniozaawansowanym.
Potrzebny komuś, rzad. Dla kogoś – (do czegoś, na coś, nie: dla czegoś)	...dorośli często traktują język obcy jako rodzaj narzędzia potrzebny dla uzyskania awansu zawodowego (...).	...dorośli często traktują język obcy jako narzędzie potrzebne do awansu zawodowego.

Conjunctions (Table 13)

DICTIONARY ENTRY	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<i>Bądź... bądź (to)...</i>	...pisemne testy, które zawierały bądź opisy zjawisk związanych z antonimią słówek będących z reguły przymiotnikami względnie segregację i ich dopasowanie znaczeniowe.	...pisemne testy, które zawierały bądź opisy zjawisk związanych z antonimią, bądź (to) ich segregację i dopasowanie pod względem znaczenia.
zarówno..., jak...; zarówno..., jak i...	W pierwszej części – teoretycznej przedstawione zostały dane dotyczące (...) strategii stosowanych zarówno przez nauczycieli i uczniów (...).	W pierwszej, teoretycznej części przedstawiono dane dotyczące (...) strategii stosowanych zarówno przez nauczycieli, jak i uczniów...
	Wnioski związane zarówno z efektywnym i nieefektywnym zarządzaniem klasą...	Wnioski związane zarówno z efektywnym, jak i nieefektywnym zarządzaniem klasą...
w zależności od czegoś:	...tworzenie grup językowych według cech charakterystycznych uczniów, a w szczególności rodzaju pamięci, słuchowej czy wzrokowej w zależności która z nich jest lepiej rozwinięta, zaowocowałyby uzyskaniem pożądanego stopnia zaawansowania językowego i z mniejszym wkładem pracy ucznia.	...tworzenie grup językowych według cech charakterystycznych uczniów, a w szczególności zgodnie z rodzajem pamięci: słuchowej lub wzrokowej, w zależności od tego , która z nich jest lepiej rozwinięta, zaowocowałyby uzyskaniem pożądanego stopnia zaawansowania językowego i z mniejszym wkładem pracy ucznia.
Rozdźwięk między kimś a/i kimś, rozdźwięk między czymś a/i czymś	Nie stwierdzono rozdźwięku w rodzajach motywacji...	Nie stwierdzono rozdźwięku między rodzajami motywacji a...

Structural loans (Table 14)

TARGET STRUCTURE DESCRIPTION	ENGLISH SOURCE STRUCTURES	LOAN STRUCTURES IN POLISH
English verbal nouns	<i>Suggestions concerning...</i> ...the necessity of being understood by the teacher...	<i>Sugestie dotyczące...</i> ...konieczność bycia przez nauczyciela zrozumiałym...

<p>Verb (esp. <i>seem, appear, turn out, etc.</i>)</p> <p>+ to be + participle/ adjective / verb</p>	<p><i>The main target seems to be attaining the level of fluent communication skills...</i></p> <p><i>...benefits gained from English language learning turned out to be the primary and the most important criterion...</i></p> <p><i>All the elements turn out to compose the integral part of speaking...</i></p> <p><i>The main goal for people learning a foreign language seems to be attaining the level of fluent communication...</i></p>	<p><i>Głównym celem (...) wydaje się być osiągnięcie poziomu umiejętności płynnego komunikowania się...</i></p> <p><i>...korzyści osiągnięte z nauki języka angielskiego okazały się być podstawowym i najważniejszym kryterium...</i></p> <p><i>Wszystkie te elementy okazują się stanowić nieodłączną część wypowiedzi ustnej...</i></p> <p><i>Głównym celem osób uczących się języka obcego wydaje się być osiągnięcie poziomu umiejętności płynnego komunikowania się...</i></p>
<p>Being + adjective/ participle</p>	<p><i>...being creative during teaching ESP.</i></p> <p><i>...different reactions to being corrected...</i></p>	<p><i>...bycie kreatywnym w trakcie nauczania ESP.</i></p> <p><i>...różne sposoby zachowań w stosunku do bycia poprawianym...</i></p>
<p>Direct translations with the present and past forms of the verb to be</p>	<p><i>The topic of this thesis is...</i></p> <p><i>The most significant conclusion (...) is that the knowledge of the English speaking countries (...) is still poor.</i></p> <p><i>The research objective was not only the vocabulary (...) but also...</i></p>	<p><i>Tematem niniejszej pracy jest: 'Trudności w nauce języka angielskiego...'</i></p> <p><i>Najistotniejszym wnioskiem (...) jest, że ciągle jeszcze znajomość realiów krajów anglojęzycznych (...), jest słaba.</i></p> <p><i>Przedmiotem badania było nie tylko słownictwo (...) ale również...</i></p>
<p>Passive voice structures with to be + past participle</p>	<p><i>The names (...) were compared to their equivalents [in other languages]...</i></p> <p><i>The last chapter is devoted to drawing final conclusions...</i></p> <p><i>...more time should be spent on learning...</i></p> <p><i>The second chapter of my thesis was devoted to presenting the objective of my study.</i></p>	<p><i>Nazwy (...) zostały porównane do ich odpowiedników [w innych językach]...</i></p> <p><i>Ostatni rozdział pracy poświęcony jest wnioskom...</i></p> <p><i>...więcej czasu powinno być poświęcane na naukę...</i></p> <p><i>Drugi rozdział mojej pracy poświęcony był na przedstawienie obiektu moich badań...</i></p>
<p>Including the agent (usually in the passive voice structures) to indicate who performed the activity.</p>	<p><i>...the content presented by the teachers...</i></p>	<p><i>...material prezentowany przez nauczycieli...</i></p>
<p>Effect on</p>	<p><i>...its effect on participants..</i></p>	<p><i>...jego efektów na uczestnikach...</i></p>
<p>Pose problems</p>	<p><i>...the particular characteristics of the original, which may have posed problems during translating.</i></p>	<p><i>...szczególne cechy oryginału, które mogły przedstawiać problemy podczas tłumaczenia.</i></p>
<p>Facilitate sth</p>	<p><i>[The work] suggests how to facilitate the process of testing at school...</i></p>	<p><i>[Praca] zawiera propozycje, jak ułatwić proces testowania w szkole...</i></p>

Appendix B: Lexical patterns selected from the corpus data

Verbs followed by nouns (Table 15)

DICTIONARY PATTERNS	LEXICAL MISUSES	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
nakładać na kogoś jakiś obowiązek ; ktoś obciąża kogoś czymś: obciążać obowiązkami	... obciążenie nauczycieli języka angielskiego pracą ...	Obciążenie nauczycieli języka angielskiego obowiązkiem ...
Widzieć coś oczami kogoś	Rozdział ten (...) opisuje poczucie własnej wartości człowieka widziane przez Seligman'a.	Rozdział ten opisuje poczucie własnej wartości widziane oczami Seligmana.
Przywiązywać, przykładać do czegoś (not przypisywać czemuś) wagę (not uwagę, znaczenie, rolę, wartość)	... przywiązując zbyt dużą rolę do teoretycznej znajomości gramatyki...	... przywiązując zbyt dużą wagę do znajomości reguł gramatycznych...
Wpajać zainteresowanie czymś	Zadaniem nauczyciela języka obcego jest wpajanie uczniom zainteresowań obcą kulturą (...)	Zadaniem nauczyciela języka obcego jest wpajanie uczniom zainteresowania obcą kulturą (...)

Adjectives followed by nouns (Table 16)

DICTIONARY PATTERNS	LEXICAL MISUSES	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
godny uwagi	<i>Ważnym podkreślenia jest fakt, iż...</i>	<i>Autor podkreśla, że...</i>
kompletny brak czegoś	... <i>przycaczam wady wczesnego startu (...), które są związane głównie z brakiem kompletnej znajomości języka ojczystego.</i>	... <i>przycaczam wady wczesnego startu (...), które są związane głównie z zupełnym/kompletnym brakiem znajomości języka ojczystego.</i>

Lexical loans (Table 17)

LEXICAL LOAN TRANSLATIONS	SOURCE ITEMS	POLISH EQUIVALENTS
<i>Technika elicytacji.</i>	Elicitation technique	Technika uzyskiwania odpowiedzi.
<i>Akwizycja znaczenia.</i>	Acquisition of meaning.	Zyskanie znaczenia
<i>Internalizacja materiału.</i>	Internalization of the material	Przyswojenie materiału.
... <i>zastosowano dwa rodzaje grafów...</i>	...two types of graphs have been used...	...zastosowanie dwóch rodzajów wykresów ...
... <i>eksperyment z incydentalnym doborem próby.</i>	Incidental sample? – the wrong collocation, translated literally into Polish. The author most presumably meant random samplingeksperyment z próbą dobraną w sposób przypadkowy.
<i>W rozdziale czwartym (...) przedstawione zostały szczególne cechy oryginału, które mogłyby przedstawiać problemy podczas tłumaczenia.</i>	pose problems	<i>W rozdziale czwartym (...) przedstawione zostały szczególne cechy oryginału, które mogłyby stwarzać problemy podczas tłumaczenia.</i>

<i>Celem zawartych propozycji była prezentacja podstawowych aktywności...</i>	Activities	<i>Celem zawartych propozycji była prezentacja podstawowych ćwiczeń...</i>
<i>Podkreślone jest znaczenie kreatywności w nauczaniu...</i>	<i>The significance of creativity is underlined...</i>	<i>Szczególną uwagę zwrócono na rolę kreatywności w nauczaniu...</i>

Borrowing translation (Table 18)

BORROWING TRANSLATIONS	LATIN/GREEK ORIGIN	ENGLISH SOURCE ITEMS	POLISH EQUIVALENTS
<i>Szybsza akwizycja słów (...) ma kardynalne znaczenie...</i>	Latin <i>Cardinalis</i>	Quick lexical acquisition is of cardinal importance...	<i>Szybsze przyswojenie słów (...) ma zasadnicze znaczenie...</i>
<i>Generalnie testy wykonane zostały lepiej przez grupę humanistyczną.</i>	Latin <i>Generalissimus</i>	Generally , the tests were solved better by the humanistic group.	<i>Ogólnie, grupa humanistyczna lepiej wykonała testy.</i>
<i>Rozdział stanowi opis rezultatów uzyskanych podczas badań...</i>	Latin <i>Resultatum</i>	The chapter contains the description of the results produced by the study...	<i>Rozdział stanowi opis wyników uzyskanych podczas badań...</i>
<i>...przedstawiono teoretyczną stronę zagadnienia polegającą na wyjaśnieniu rozwoju poglądów dotyczących potencjalnej dychotomii języka ze względu na płeć.</i>	Greek <i>Dichotomia</i>	... dichotomy between the language of males and females.	<i>...w zarysie teoretycznym zagadnienia przedstawiono genezę poglądów dotyczących podziału języka ze względu na płeć.</i>
<i>...z uwzględnieniem zagadnień dyskursu, interakcji...</i>	Latin <i>Discursus</i>	...considering discourse, interaction ...	<i>...z uwzględnieniem zagadnień debaty i rozmowy.</i>
<i>...autorka zajmuje się pojęciami: percepcji...</i>	Latin <i>Perceptio</i>	...the author focuses on the notions of perception ...	<i>...autorka zajmuje się pojęciami: postrzegania...</i>
<i>Ostatni rozdział (...) podaje sugestie dla nauczycieli...</i>	Latin <i>suggestio</i>	The last chapter contains suggestions for teachers...	<i>Ostatni rozdział (...) prezentuje propozycje dla nauczycieli...</i>
<i>Selekcji materiałów...</i>	Latin <i>selectio</i>	Selection of materials...	<i>Wyboru materiałów...</i>
<i>Determinować...</i>	Latin <i>determinatio</i>	Determine ...	<i>Określać...</i>
<i>Celem badań była identyfikacja i opis tych procesów występujących we współczesnej edukacji...</i>	Latin <i>identicus, idem</i>	The aim of the study was the identification and description of these processes in modern education...	<i>Celem badań było wyszczególnienie i opis tych procesów występujących we współczesnej edukacji...</i>
<i>...bada ich [zdolności językowych] efektywność w tekstach.</i>	Latin <i>effectivus</i>	...it tests their effectiveness in texts.	<i>...bada ich skuteczność w tekstach.</i>

<i>implikacje</i> blp, następstwa czegoś; to, co coś spowoduje implikacje czegoś	Latin <i>implicare</i>	Rozdział IV koncentruje się na implikacjach badania.	Rozdział IV koncentruje się na skutkach badania.
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Code switching (Table 19)

ORIGINAL SENTENCE	POLISH EQUIVALENTS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Znajomość angielskich czasowników typu phrasal verbs... ➤ Praca niniejsza zawiera również appendix... ➤ Nadmieniono również o istotnym znaczeniu zjawisk 'backwash effect' oraz 'feedback'... ➤ ... 'Learner Training' odgrywa istotną rolę w przygotowaniu do egzaminu. ➤ ...sprawdzenie (...) dwóch standardów języka angielskiego: Received Pronunciation oraz General American (...). ➤ Badania zostały zawężone do dwóch struktur – the past simple i the present perfect... 	<p>Znajomość angielskich czasowników frazalnych...</p> <p>Praca niniejsza zawiera również załącznik...</p> <p>Nadmieniono również o istotnym znaczeniu zjawisk sprzężenia zwrotnego oraz informacji zwrotnej...</p> <p>...ćwiczenia odgrywają istotną rolę w przygotowaniu do egzaminu.</p> <p>...sprawdzenie (...) dwóch standardowych wersji wymowy języka angielskiego: brytyjskiej oraz amerykańskiej (...).</p> <p>Badania zostały zawężone do dwóch struktur – przeszłej i teraźniejszej dokonanej...</p>

Approximation (Table 20)

DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS	LEXICAL MISUSES	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
➤ Pod kątem czegoś (nie: kogoś) ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem czegoś, ze	Spora część uczniów postrzega kulturę docelową pod kątem pewnych stereotypów...	Spora część uczniów postrzega kulturę docelową przez pryzmat stereotypów...
➤ godnym uwagi jest fakt... / należy podkreślić, że... (akcentować, uwydatniać)	Ważnym podkreślenia jest fakt, iż eksperyment przebiegał w dwóch fazach.	Należy podkreślić , że eksperyment przebiegał w dwóch fazach.
➤ 2. Im własności to, co charakterystyczne dla kogoś lub czegoś, lepiej: właściwości , fizyczne, chemiczne ciała.	Tę własność [miarę dyspersji] wykorzystuje się czasem do wyodrębnienia w próbie podgrup...	Tę właściwość wykorzystuje się czasem do wyodrębnienia podgrup próby...
profil 1. twarz widziana z boku 2. zakres, charakter czegoś • Nadużywane w stylu publicystycznym.	Celem niniejszej pracy było znalezienie odpowiedzi na pytanie jaki profil reprezentują studenci uczący się języka metodą Berlitz....	Celem niniejszej pracy było znalezienie odpowiedzi na pytanie jakimi cechami odznaczają się uczniowie szkoły Berlitz....
nadzwyczajne, wybitne, wszechstronne, zdolności; mieć, rozwijać zdolności	...można zaobserwować wysoki poziom motywacji w zdobywaniu (...) większych zdolności i kompetencji językowych.	...można zaobserwować wysoki poziom motywacji w rozwijaniu zdolności i kompetencji językowych.
opanowywać opanowuję (nie: opanowuję, nie: opanowynam).	...uczeń opanowuje nowy system komunikowania się...	...uczeń opanowuje nowy system komunikowania się...
wkład w coś	Praca uczniów w wypełnieniu kwestionariuszy była anonimowa.	Wkład uczniów w badanie kwestionariuszowe był anonimowy.
naczelne - wysoko rozwinięte ssaki	Dowiodło ono [badanie], iż transfer najczęściej pojawia się przy rzeczownikach nazywających zwierzęta wyższe .	Dowiodło ono, iż transfer najczęściej pojawia się w nazewnictwie ssaków naczelnych .

działać 1. robić coś, pracować, być czynnym 2. tylko w 3. os. o mechanizmach funkcjonować 3. wywierać wpływ, oddziaływać	...sytuacja w szkole, której działanie oparte jest na zastosowaniu metody dualnej w nauczaniu j. angielskiego.	...sytuacja w szkole, której działalność/strategia opiera się na metodzie dualnej w nauczaniu j. angielskiego.
Podnieść podkreślić	Podnieść należy, że narzędzia badawcze skonstruowano w ten sposób aby...	Należy podkreślić , że...
zjawisko 1. to, co się wydarzyło 2. coś niezwykłego lub ktoś zadziwiający, wyjątkowy 3. nierealne, piękne widzenie senne lub urojenie	Zjawisko strategii	Pojęcie strategii
funkcja 1. działanie, rola 2. praca, obowiązki, stanowisko, funkcja mediów, telefonu, lekarza pierwszego kontaktu	...omówiono szereg czynników wpływających na funkcje spełniane przez uczniów jak również nauczycieli...	...omówiono szereg czynników wpływających na role spełniane przez uczniów jak również nauczycieli...
elastyczny 1. Rozciągliwy 2. łatwo przystosowujący się do nowych warunków	...wiąże się to z większą elastycznością mózgu...	...wiąże się to z większą plastycznością mózgu...
uzyskać dostawać coś, co było obiektem starań; otrzymywać, zwykle coś pożądanego; zdobywać	Przeprowadzenie badania umożliwiło uzyskanie najistotniejszych kryteriów doboru podręcznika...	Przeprowadzenie badania umożliwiło wyszczególnienie najistotniejszych kryteriów doboru podręcznika...
zdolność czego, do czegoś	Na każdej lekcji zwracałam szczególną uwagę na zdolność do wykonywania poszczególnych ćwiczeń.	Na każdej lekcji zwracałam szczególną uwagę na zdolność wykonywania poszczególnych ćwiczeń.
Prawdziwy talent	...pewne osoby posiadają najprawdziwszy talent do nauki języków obcych.	...pewne osoby mają talent do nauki języków obcych.
przeze forma przyimka: przez, używana tylko w połączeniu: przeze mnie	...źródła te zostały wykorzystane przez mnieźródła te zostały wykorzystane przeze mnie ...
użycie - stosowanie czegoś, posługiwanie się czymś. Robić coś przy pomocy kogoś, z czyją pomocą. Ale nie: przy pomocy czegoś, <i>poprawnie</i> : za pomocą czegoś. przy 2. tworzy wyrażenia określające, że coś dzieje się w obecności, w towarzystwie lub sąsiedztwie osoby lub rzeczy, którą nazywa przyłączany rzeczownik	<i>W niniejszej pracy dokonuję porównania tradycyjnych metod stosowanych w uczeniu się gramatyki języka angielskiego oraz przy użyciu komputera.</i> <i>Praca niniejsza (...) stanowi próbę omówienia (...) przewagi nauczania słownictwa (...) przy użyciu obrazków (...).</i> <i>W tym rozdziale zawarty został również opis strategii używanych przy nauce języka obcego...</i>	<i>W niniejszej pracy dokonuję porównania tradycyjnych metod stosowanych w uczeniu się gramatyki języka angielskiego oraz z wykorzystaniem komputera.</i> <i>Praca niniejsza (...) stanowi próbę omówienia (...) przewagi nauczania słownictwa (...) z wykorzystaniem obrazków (...).</i> <i>W tym rozdziale zawarty został również opis strategii wykorzystywanych w nauce języka obcego...</i>

oficj. propozycja, wniosek; Sugestie co do czegoś. Nadużywane. Np.: Wysunąć, przyjąć jakąś sugestię, <i>lepiej</i> : propozycję.	Ostatni rozdział (...) podaje sugestie dla nauczycieli języków obcych (...).	Ostatni rozdział (...) wysuwa propozycje dla nauczycieli języków obcych (...).
Perspektywa 4. książk. odległość w czasie umożliwiającą lepszą ocenę czegoś, kogoś; z perspektywy czegoś Błędne w zn. 'przyszłość'. Np.: W perspektywie, <i>poprawnie</i> : w przyszłości	Omówiono w nim [rozdziale] sposoby rozwiązywania problemów (...), wskazując na ich zalety i wady w perspektywie efektywności kształcenia .	Omówiono w nim sposoby rozwiązywania problemów (...), wskazując na ich skuteczność w przyszłości .
badania na – prace zmierzające do poznania czegoś za pomocą analizy naukowej, badania na zwierzętach, badania na jakimś terenie, badania na temat...	Przeprowadzone badania na uczniach klasy maturalnej.../ Badania przeprowadzono na nauczycielach uczących w szkołach ponadpodstawowych.	Przeprowadzone badania wśród uczniów klasy maturalnej.../ Badania przeprowadzono wśród nauczycieli uczących w szkołach ponadpodstawowych.
Autonomiczność czegoś: Wyraz nadużywany, lepiej: niezależność, twórcy.	(...) ostatni rozdział pracy poświęcony został (...) charakterystyce autonomicznego ucznia języka angielskiego... Celem tej pracy jest przedstawienie dwóch (...) technik prezentacji słownictwa (...) oraz zbadanie ich efektywności u uczniów w dwóch różnych grupach wiekowych	(...) ostatni rozdział pracy poświęcono charakterystyce samodzielnego ucznia języka angielskiego... Celem pracy jest przedstawienie dwóch (...) technik prezentacji słownictwa (...) oraz zbadanie ich efektywności wśród uczniów dwóch różnych grup wiekowych.

Change of lexical meaning (Table 21)

DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED ALTERATIONS
Nauka 1. dyscyplina badawcza 2. <i>blm</i> system poglądów, będących częścią składową określonej dyscypliny Nauka o czymś: Nauka o człowieku. 3. [wym. tylko: na-u-ka]: uczenie się, kształcenie się; nauczanie, lekcja, studia.	Wśród innych zalet TBL wymieniane są: (...), osadzenie nauki o formach gramatycznych w kontekście (...).	Wśród innych zalet TBL wymieniane są: (...), osadzenie uczenia się form gramatycznych w kontekście (...).
nosić 5. doznawać czegoś, odczuwać coś przez pewien czas; przechowywać coś w pamięci: ktoś nosi coś	Uczniowie (...) niosą w sobie wszelkie typy motywacji...	Uczniowie (...) mają różne rodzaje motywacji...
wyposażyć 1. oficj. zaopatrywać w coś, dostarczać komuś coś potrzebnego: w tym zn. wyraz nadużywany	Rodzaje motywacji w które wyposażeni są uczniowie do nauki języka obcego...	Rodzaje motywacji, którymi uczniowie kierują się w nauce języka obcego...
wreszcie 1. «partykuła ekspresywna, wskazująca, że coś powinno trwać krócej niż trwa» 2. «partykuła ekspresywna wyrażająca zniecierpliwienie, tutaj lepiej i/ oraz	...zaprezentowano cele i założenia pracy, grupy uczniów uczestniczących w badaniach, wreszcie metody badawcze.	...zaprezentowano cele i założenia pracy, grupy uczniów uczestniczących w badaniach oraz metody badawcze.

Sentence structure (Table 22)

CORPUS SENTENCE	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
...wiedzę pedagogiczną można wykorzystać w procesie nauczania języka obcego dzieci przedszkolnych.	...wiedzę pedagogiczną można wykorzystać w nauczaniu dzieci przedszkolnych języka angielskiego.
...warunku koniecznego dla dostatecznego stopnia osiągnięcia kompetencji językowej...	...warunku koniecznego osiągnięcia dostatecznego stopnia kompetencji językowej...
...w toku procesu dydaktycznego nauczania języka.	...w toku dydaktycznego procesu nauczania języka.
...przywiązując zbyt dużą rolę do teoretycznej znajomości gramatyki...	...przywiązując zbyt dużą rolę do znajomości teorii gramatyki...
Generalnie testy wykonane zostały lepiej przez grupę humanistyczną.	Ogólnie , testy lepiej zostały wykonane przez grupę humanistyczną.
... w pewnej dziedzinie (...) okazała się być lepsza grupa ogólna.	...w pewnej dziedzinie (...) grupa ogólna okazała się lepsza.
Szczegółowo opisane zostały także w tym miejscu zastosowane metody badawcze.	Także w tym miejscu, szczegółowo zostały opisane/opisano zastosowane metody badawcze.
Komputery stały się w ostatniej dekadzie, dla człowieka instrumentem nieodzownym.	W ostatniej dekadzie, komputery stały się dla człowieka instrumentem nieodzownym.
...dostarczając zarówno uczniom, jak i nauczycielom satysfakcji.	...dostarczając satysfakcji zarówno uczniom, jak i nauczycielom.
Omówione zostały również szczegółowo cele i zadania...	Cele i zadania zostały również szczegółowo omówione.../ Równie szczegółowo omówiono cele i zadania...
...omawiam w skrócie komunikacyjne cele...	...w skrócie omawiam cele komunikacyjne...
W dalszej części omówiono oraz przedstawiono jako ważny problem w testowaniu komunikatywności językowej kontrowersję pomiędzy testowaniem elementów języka a testowaniem zintegrowanych sprawności.	W dalszej części omówiono oraz przedstawiono kontrowersję pomiędzy testowaniem elementów języka a testowaniem zintegrowanych sprawności jako ważny problem w testowaniu komunikatywności językowej.
...proces palatalizacji przedstawiony jest z punktu widzenia fonetycznego...	...proces palatalizacji przedstawiono w oparciu o wiedzę z zakresu fonetyki...
Rozdział pierwszy (...) teoretycznie określa ogólne założenia metodyczne...	Rozdział pierwszy (...) określa ogólne, teoretyczne założenia metodyczne...
Rozdział drugi prezentuje, jakie konsekwencje przynosi w praktyce adaptacja testów językowych.	Rozdział drugi prezentuje konsekwencje, jakie przynosi adaptacja testów językowych w praktyce.
Rozdział (...) zawiera rady dotyczące praktycznego wykorzystania ich przez nauczyciela na zajęciach języka angielskiego.	Rozdział (...) zawiera praktyczne rady do wykorzystania przez nauczycieli na lekcjach języka angielskiego.
Celem (...) była prezentacja dwóch istotnych zjawisk w nauce języka obcego...	Celem (...) była prezentacja dwóch – istotnych w nauce języka obcego – zjawisk...
...wpływ użytych strategii, będących zarazem podstawowym źródłem błędów, nawet rażących, popełnionych przez uczniów.	...wpływ zastosowanych strategii, stanowiących podstawowe źródło rażących błędów, jakie popełniali uczniowie.

<p>...zostało zbadane językowe zjawisko zmiany kodu...</p> <p>...praca traktuje o sposobach postępowania ze slabym uczniem w nauce języka obcego.</p> <p>Inne natomiast, decyzje takie pozostawiają organowi nadzorującemu pracę nauczycieli, ograniczając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do osoby, która wyłącznie wykonuje powierzone jej obowiązki.</p> <p>...sposoby rozwiązywania organizacyjnych problemów...</p> <p>Naukowcy większą rolę w nauce przypisują innym czynnikom (...).</p>	<p>...zbadano zjawisko językowej zmiany kodu...</p> <p>...praca traktuje o sposobach postępowania z uczniem słabym w nauce języka obcego.</p> <p>Natomiast inne, pozostawiają takie decyzje organowi nadzorującemu pracę nauczycieli, sprowadzając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do wykonywania wyłącznie powierzonych jej obowiązków.</p> <p>...sposoby rozwiązywania problemów organizacyjnych...</p> <p>Większą rolę w nauce, naukowcy przypisują innym czynnikom...</p>
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Language overproduction and underproduction (Table 23)

LANGUAGE UNDERPRODUCTION	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>Ostatnie rozdziały poświęciłam głównie analizie wyników z testów...</p> <p>Celem części jakościowej badań jest przedstawienie i analiza efektywnej pracy nauczycieli w szkołach państwowych i prywatnych.</p> <p>Celem pracy jest odpowiedź na pytania: Czy i w jaki sposób nauczyciele tego [danego] przedmiotu planują testy?...</p> <p>Pierwszą z metod były kwestionariusze [zarówno] dla nauczycieli, których celem było poznanie ogólnego(2) ich(1) podejścia do nauczania słownictwa i stosowanych technik oraz [jak i] dla uczniów, którzy mogli wypowiedzieć się na temat problemów związanych z uczeniem się słownictwa, ale [a] także o sposobach wspomagających tę naukę.</p> <p>Sytuacji, w jakiej obecnie znajdują uczący się dyslektycy...</p> <p>Uczenie związków frazeologicznych w klasach zróżnicowanych (title)</p> <p>W rozdziale (...) zawarto (...) implikacje wyników eksperymentu.</p> <p>W pierwszej części przedstawione zostały dane dotyczące (...) strategii stosowanych zarówno przez nauczycieli i uczniów (...).</p> <p>Wnioski związane zarówno z efektywnym i nieefektywnym zarządzaniem klasą...</p> <p>...najczęściej stosowaną strategią u średniozaawansowanych uczniów jest strategia oparta na ich języku ojczystym (...), a więc wszelkiego rodzaju</p>	<p>Ostatnie rozdziały poświęciłam głównie analizie wyników uzyskanych z testów...</p> <p>Celem części pracy, opisującej badania jakościowe, jest przedstawienie i analiza efektywnej pracy nauczycieli w szkołach państwowych i prywatnych.</p> <p>Celem pracy jest znalezienie odpowiedzi na następująco sformułowane pytania: Czy, i w jaki sposób, nauczyciele danego przedmiotu planują testy? ...</p> <p>Pierwszą z metod były kwestionariusze zarówno dla nauczycieli, których zapytano o podejście do nauczania słownictwa i techniki nauczania słownictwa, jak i dla uczniów, których zapytano o problemy związane z uczeniem się słownictwa oraz o sposoby wspomagające jego opanowanie.</p> <p>W obecnej sytuacji, w jakiej znajdują się dyslektycy...</p> <p>Nauczanie związków frazeologicznych w klasach zróżnicowanych</p> <p>W rozdziale zawarto wnioski, jakie można wysnuć na podstawie wyników eksperymentu.</p> <p>W pierwszej części przedstawione zostały dane dotyczące (...) strategii stosowanych zarówno przez nauczycieli jak i uczniów (...).</p> <p>Wnioski związane zarówno z efektywnym, jak i nieefektywnym zarządzaniem klasą...</p> <p>...najczęściej stosowaną strategią u średniozaawansowanych uczniów jest strategia polegania na języku ojczystym (...), a więc</p>

<p>kalki, dosłowne tłumaczenia słów i struktur...</p> <p>...obiektywny obraz edukacji języków obcych.</p> <p>Porusza też problemy autonomii ucznia w nauczaniu...</p> <p>Stosowanie ich [strategii] umożliwia uczniom planowanie, kontrolę przebiegu nauki (...), oraz na lepsze spożytkowanie czasu.</p> <p>...uczeń chcący stać się kompetentnym użytkownikiem języka obcego...</p> <p>Później uczeń pisał test niezaadaptowany.</p> <p>...skoncentrowano się na zmianach psychologicznych, jakie mają miejsce w okresie dojrzewania, m.in. poszukiwanie ego, fenomen okresu buntu oraz relacje z grupą rówieśniczą.</p> <p>Celem tej pracy jest przedstawienie dwóch (...) technik prezentacji słownictwa (...) oraz zbadanie ich efektywności u uczniów w dwóch różnych grupach wiekowych.</p> <p>...w określonym czasookresie...</p> <p>Badania miały także na celu ukazać czy jakieś negatywne zmiany zaszły bądź zachodzą jeżeli chodzi o ich ogólną kompetencję językową (competence) oraz wykonanie (performance)...</p> <p>Techniki te badane były zarówno pod kątem efektywności (...), jak i pod kątem preferencji uczniów na podstawie kwestionariusza.</p>	<p>obejmująca wszelkiego rodzaju kalki, dosłowne tłumaczenia słów i struktur...</p> <p>...obiektywny obraz edukacji z języków obcych.</p> <p>Porusza także kwestię samodzielności ucznia w procesie uczenia się...</p> <p>Stosowanie ich ułatwia uczniom lepsze planowanie, lepszą kontrolę procesu uczenia się (...) oraz pozwala na wydajniejsze dysponowanie czasem.</p> <p>...uczeń, który dąży do tego, by stać się kompetentnym użytkownikiem języka obcego...</p> <p>W następnej kolejności uczeń pisał standardowy test.</p> <p>...skoncentrowano się na zmianach psychologicznych, które towarzyszą dojrzewaniu, a które wynikają m.in. z poszukiwania własnej tożsamości, przeżywania okresu buntu oraz relacji z grupą rówieśniczą.</p> <p>Celem pracy jest przedstawienie dwóch (...) technik prezentacji słownictwa (...) oraz zbadanie ich efektywności wśród uczniów w dwóch różnych grupach wiekowych.</p> <p>W określonym czasie/okresie.</p> <p>Celem badań było także ukazanie czy w obrębie kompetencji językowej oraz użycia języka zaszły lub zachodzą jakieś negatywne zmiany.</p> <p>Techniki te zbadano ze względu na ich efektywność i preferencje uczniów, za pomocą kwestionariusza.</p>
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Coherence (Table 24)

CORPUS SENTENCE	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>Podsumowanie stwierdza, że ...</p> <p>Przy wyborze grupy autorka oparła się na swoim doświadczeniu w pracy zawodowej, gdyż z jej obserwacji wynikało, iż uczniowie gimnazjum są jedną z najciekawszych, a zarazem najtrudniejszych grup wiekowych dla nauczyciela.</p> <p>...na nauczycielu spoczywa odpowiedzialność za sposób, w jaki uczy, role, jakie pełni on w klasie często wzajemnie się wykluczają.</p> <p>Analiza (...) dała wyraźny obraz charakteru obu metod...</p> <p>Termin 'nastawienie' jest tu użyty w szerokim znaczeniu, obejmuje on, bowiem to, czym jest kultura dla uczniów i jaka jest jej rola w nauce języka obcego,</p>	<p>W podsumowaniu autor stwierdza, że...</p> <p>Przy wyborze grupy, autorka kierowała się swoim doświadczeniem pedagogicznym, z którego wynikało, iż gimnazjaliści są najciekawszą i zarazem najbardziej wymagającą grupą wiekową.</p> <p>...na nauczycielu spoczywa odpowiedzialność za sposób nauczania i pełnione role, które często wzajemnie się wykluczają.</p> <p>Analiza umożliwiła dokładną charakterystykę obu metod...</p> <p>Termin 'nastawienie' jest tu użyty w szerokim znaczeniu i obejmuje znajomość kultury brytyjskiej i amerykańskiej oraz odczucia, opinie i oczekiwania</p>

<p>znajomość kultury brytyjskiej i amerykańskiej, uczucia i opinie na temat tej kultury, oczekiwania związane z jej nauką, tendencję do stereotypizacji jej przedstawicieli i opinie na temat treści kulturowych podręcznika do nauki języka angielskiego.</p> <p>Kwestionariusz został wybrany jako najbardziej odpowiednia metoda badawcza. Pomogło to przeprowadzić ilościowe i jakościowe badania...</p> <p>Jest on [rozdział pracy] głównie skierowany do nauczycieli i może być traktowany przez nich jako narzędzie do polepszenia atmosfery w klasie.</p> <p>Przedyskutowana została również użyteczność słowników, zarówno dwujęzycznych, jak i jednojęzycznych, z uwzględnieniem osobistych notatek z nowo poznаныmi wyrazami i wyrażeniami, prowadzonych przez uczniów, w procesie uczenia się i nauczania.</p> <p>...istnieje zainteresowanie nauczycieli potrzebami swoich uczniów oraz, że sprecyzowane potrzeby studentów na początku oraz w trakcie kursu mają istotny wpływ na fakt czy nauczyciel ocenia swój sposób wiedzy oraz organizowania zajęć jako kreatywny lub nie.</p> <p>W rozdziale III przedstawiono odpowiedzi badanych (...), jak również przeanalizowane zostały notatki uczniów z pamiętników prowadzonych przez nich podczas trwania badań.</p>	<p>związane z nauką o kulturze a zawartością podręcznika do języka angielskiego.</p> <p>Za najbardziej odpowiednią metodę badawczą uznano kwestionariusz, który pozwolił na interpretację ilościową i jakościową zebranych danych.</p> <p>Jest on skierowany głównie do nauczycieli i zawiera praktyczne porady odnośnie tworzenia pozytywnej atmosfery w klasie.</p> <p>Przedyskutowano praktyczność słowników zarówno jednojęzycznych, jak i dwujęzycznych, a także wydajność słowniczek prowadzonych przez samych uczniów.</p> <p>...nauczyciele interesują się potrzebami swoich uczniów w czasie trwania całego kursu, co ma swój wydzźwięk w kreatywności prowadzonych zajęć.</p> <p>W rozdziale III przedstawiono odpowiedzi badanych (...), jak również przeanalizowano notatki uczniów z pamiętników, prowadzonych przez nich w czasie badań.</p>
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Degree of text formality (Table 25)

CORPUS SENTENCE	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>Uczniowie mają problemy z wyrażeniem tego, co chcą powiedzieć, a jako pierwsi przystępują do nowej, zreformowanej matury...</p> <p>...świadomy problemu nauczyciel może umożliwić znaczne rozwinięcie kompetencji leksykalnej...</p> <p>Celem pracy jest przedstawienie dodatkowych trudności z jakimi boryka się tłumacz literatury pisanej...</p> <p>Informacje te pomogły zweryfikować to, w jaki sposób teoria ma się do praktyki.</p> <p>Jednakże, nie było by to tak proste jak mogłoby się wydawać, ponieważ wciąż istnieje mnóstwo niedopowiedzianych lub nie zbadanych do końca kwestii...</p> <p>Kryteria, jakie zadanie tego typu musi spełniać to m.in. nacisk na to, co chcemy powiedzieć, a nie na to, za pomocą jakich środków językowych to robimy...</p>	<p>Uczniowie ci jako pierwsi przystąpią do nowej, zreformowanej matury, mimo że nie uzyskali adekwatnego przygotowania...</p> <p>...świadomy problemu nauczyciel może znacznie wpłynąć na rozwój kompetencji leksykalnej...</p> <p>Celem pracy jest przedstawienie dodatkowych trudności napotykaných przez tłumacza literatury...</p> <p>Informacje te pomogły ocenić zastosowanie teorii w praktyce.</p> <p>Jednak, wbrew pozorom, pewne rozwiązania komplikują niewyjaśnione lub niezbadane kwestie.</p> <p>W zadaniu tego typu powinno się kłaść nacisk na komunikatywność przekazu, a nie jego formę...</p>

Language overuse and repetition (Table 26)

REPEATED/OVERUSED WORDS AND STRUCTURES	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>...zarysowano teorię strukturalizmu, czyli teorię języka i behawioryzmu, czyli teorię psychologii procesu uczenia się...</p> <p>...wykazanie różnic w uczeniu się języka obcego przez dzieci i dorosłych, z uwzględnieniem różnic w przyswajaniu obcojęzycznego słownictwa.</p> <p>Dotyczący, dotyczyć: ...problemy dotyczące kreatywnego pisania... W pracy podane są sugestie dotyczące wprowadzania nauki...</p> <p>...w celu uzyskania informacji dotyczących świadomości respondentów...</p> <p>Używać: ...kobiety będą używały wyłącznie stylu typowo kobiecego... ...używając komputera w procesie uczenia się... Używamy ich [komputerów] zarówno do pracy jak i do zabawy... ...konsekwentnie używano czterech słów tabu...</p> <p>Nauka: ...lekcje poświęcone nauce kolokacji... ...trudności w nauce języka angielskiego... ...opis strategii używanych przy nauce języka obcego...</p> <p>Ewaluacja Źródło ewaluacji.../ Proces ewaluacji materiałów nauczania...</p> <p>Sposoby ewaluacji efektywności...</p> <p>Efekt ...wprowadzona reforma (...) zmieniła system kontroli efektów tego procesu.</p> <p>Implikacja ...czwarty rozdział poświęcony jest (...) jego implikacjom zarówno dla uczniów jak i nauczycieli.</p> <p>English passive voice structures: Cała analiza tematu została oparta na ankiecie...</p>	<p>...zarysowano teorię psychologii uczenia się, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem strukturalizmu i behawioryzmu...</p> <p>...wykazanie różnic w przyswajaniu słownictwa obcojęzycznego przez dzieci i dorosłych.</p> <p>...problemy związane z kreatywnym pisaniem...</p> <p>W pracy podane są sugestie odnośnie wprowadzania nauki...</p> <p>...w celu uzyskania informacji na temat świadomości respondentów...</p> <p>...kobiety będą posługiwały się wyłącznie typowo kobiecym stylem... ...wykorzystując komputer w procesie uczenia się... Korzystamy z nich [komputerów] zarówno do pracy jak i do zabawy... ...konsekwentnie stosowano cztery słowa tabu...</p> <p>...lekcje poświęcone nauczaniu kolokacji... ...trudności w uczeniu się języka angielskiego... ...opis strategii stosowanych w opanowywaniu języka obcego...</p> <p>Źródło oceny.../ Sposób oceny materiałów do nauczania...</p> <p>Sposoby oceny skuteczności...</p> <p>...wprowadzona reforma (...) zmieniła system kontroli wyników tego procesu.</p> <p>...czwarty rozdział zawiera (...) propozycje zarówno dla uczniów, jak i dla nauczycieli.</p> <p>Całą analizę tematu oparto na ankiecie...</p>

Awkward phrases (Table 27)

DICTIONARY DEFINITION	CORPUS DATA	SUGGESTED CORRECTION
<p>Podejście <i>pot. sposób traktowania kogoś, czegoś, ujmowania czegoś; Podejście do kogoś, do czegoś: Mieć właściwe, niewłaściwe, krytyczne podejście, lepiej: właściwy, niewłaściwy, krytyczny stosunek, do nauki, do (jakiejś) sprawy</i></p>	<p>...przedstawiłam plan badań poświęconych podejściu uczniów do nauki języka wspomaganej komputerowo...</p> <p>...podejście uczniów do użycia komputera w uczeniu się języka angielskiego.</p>	<p>...przedstawiłam plan badań, które posłużyły poznaniu opinii uczniów o pomysłe wykorzystania technologii komputerowej w uczeniu się języka.</p> <p>...nastawienie uczniów do wykorzystania komputerów na lekcjach języka angielskiego.</p>
<p>Niemожność 1. brak sprzyjających warunków do zrealizowania czegoś 2. niezdolność do czynu</p>	<p>Uzyskane rezultaty (...) potwierdzają niemożność znalezienia tzw. metody idealnej.</p>	<p>Uzyskane wyniki potwierdzają, że idealna metoda nie istnieje/że nie można znaleźć idealnego rozwiązania.</p>
<p>Generalnie <i>nadużywane, lepiej: ogólnie, powszechnie, całkowicie, zasadniczo, w zupełności, zupełnie</i></p>	<p>...dane (...) pogrupowane zgodnie z aspektami (...) takimi jak:(...), wykorzystanie komputera w procesie uczenia się języka angielskiego generalnie oraz w szkole, jak również podejście uczniów do użycia komputera w procesie uczenia się...</p>	<p>...dane (...) pogrupowane zgodnie z aspektami (...) takimi jak: (...) stosunek do i wykorzystanie komputera w uczeniu się języka angielskiego w domu i w szkole..</p>
<p>Postawa <i>zachowanie, postępowanie, stosunek człowieka do życia lub pewnej wyróżnianej sfery zjawisk, zachowanie, postępowanie; postawa wobec kogoś/czegoś</i></p>	<p>...przedstawiłam czynniki jakie mogą mieć wpływ na kształtowanie się postawy uczących się wobec komputera jako pomocy naukowej...</p>	<p>...przedstawiłam czynniki jakie mogą mieć wpływ na kształtowanie się postawy uczących się wobec rozwijania kompetencji językowej z pomocą komputera...</p>
<p>Tenże – <i>ten sam</i></p>	<p>Omawia wyniki egzaminu maturalnego (...) oraz opisuje sylwetki tychże, jak i metody i procedury...</p>	<p>Omawia wyniki egzaminu maturalnego (...) oraz opisuje sylwetki maturzystów, jak i metody i procedury...</p>
<p>Mieć <i>być właścicielem albo użytkownikiem czegoś; odznaczać się, charakteryzować się czymś</i></p>	<p>Autorka proponuje innowacyjne podejście do problemu dysleksji, w którym uczeń mający te specyficzne trudności językowe, nie jest postrzegany przez pryzmat swych zaburzeń...</p>	<p>Autorka proponuje innowacyjne podejście do problemu dysleksji, według którego uczeń, który posiada specyficzne trudności językowe, nie jest postrzegany przez pryzmat swych zaburzeń...</p>

Appendix C: Questionnaire on foreign language learning

QUESTIONNAIRE ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

1. I am female male
2. I am Full time Part time university student of English.
3. I am years old.
4. The current academic year is the year of my studies.
5. I started learning English when I was years old.
6. I completed secondary higher vocational university education.
7. Apart from English and Polish, do you speak any other languages? What level?
 No
 Yes, (1)..... level
(2) level
(3)..... level
8. In what contexts and how often do you speak both languages? Please specify using the **percentage scale: 0 – 100%**.

CONTEXT	ENGLISH %	POLISH %
At work		
At university		
With family		
With friends		
With pets		
Talking to myself		
Other,		
.....		

9. Do you prefer to read or write **in Polish**?
 to read to write neither read nor write both, read and write
10. Do you prefer to read or write **in English**?
 to read to write neither read nor write both, read and write
11. Generally speaking, which language, Polish or English, do you use more often?
 Polish English Both, equally often I don't know

12. How would you rate your present **English** language proficiency?
 Very bad **bad** **sufficient** **good** **very good** **I don't know**

13. How would you rate your present **Polish** language proficiency?
 Very bad **bad** **sufficient** **good** **very good** **I don't know**

14. In your opinion, what does it mean to be a fully competent user of a language?

15. In which language do you consider yourself a fully competent user? Please comment.
 Polish
 English
 Both Polish and English
 neither Polish nor English
 I don't know

16. Do you think that your **Polish** language competence has changed under the influence of English? Please comment.
 yes, for worse
 yes, for better
 no
 I don't know

17. Do you consider it important in your case to maintain a good level of your Polish language skills?
 Unimportant **not very important** **I don't know**
 important **very important**

Comment

Below are twelve situations in which you might need to communicate. People's abilities to communicate effectively vary a lot, and sometimes the same person is more competent to communicate in one situation/language than in another. Please indicate how competent you believe you are to communicate in each of the situations and in languages described below. Indicate in each column your estimate of your competence.

Presume 0 = completely incompetent and 100 = competent.

SITUATIONS	ENGLISH LANGUAGE	POLISH LANGUAGE
1. Talk with a friend.		
2. Talk in a large meeting of friends.		
3. Talk with a stranger.		
4. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.		

Adapted from McCroskey 1988 at http://www.jamescmcroskey.com/measures/communication_competence.htm

18. Why do you learn English?

19. Have you come across the term *language attrition*? If yes, please explain its meaning.

Yes,

No

Thank you!

Appendix D: C-test task

Text 1

Odkryto kopię Układu Słonecznego

Układ słoneczny taki jak nasz, tylko proporcjonalnie pomniejszony odkryli astronomowie. Znajduje (1) **się** on (2) **zaledwie** 5 tys. (3) **lat** świetlnych (4) **od** Ziemi w (5) gwiazdoz**biorze** Skorpiona. Na (6) **razie** wiemy, (7) **że** jest (8) **tam** gwiazda o (9) **połowę** mniejsza, (10) **ciemniejsza** i chłodniejsza od (11) **Słońca** i dwie (12) **planety**. Jedna (13) **podobna** do (14) **Jowisza**, a (15) **druga** do (16) **Saturna**. Naukowcy (17) **podejrzewają**, że (18) **między** nimi a ich (19) **gwiazdą** mogą (20) **być** skaliste obiekty przypominające Ziemię, Marsa, Merkurego, Urana i Neptuna. Jest tam wystarczająco dużo miejsca i panują odpowiednie dla takich planet warunki.

Angora nr 8, Rok XIX, 24 lutego 2008r.

Text 2

Baw się dobrze... klockami

Trudno byłoby znaleźć osobę, która nie bawiła się kiedyś klockami lego. Sama (21) **albo** ze (22) **swoim** dzieckiem... (23) **Klockom** stuknie w (24) **tym** roku sześćdziesiątka! Z (25) **tej** okazji (26) **przygotowano** w (27) **parku** rozrywki (28) **wiele** atrakcji (29) **dla** najmłodszych. (30) **Takich**, np., (31) **jak** przejażdżka (32) **kolejką** do (33) **krainy** Indian i (34) **kowbojów** albo (35) **rejs** po (36) **rzece** indiańskim kanu. (37) **Na** pasażerów (38) **łodzi** łypią z (39) **brzegu** tygrysy i kobry, pумы (40) **szczerczą** zębami... Ale bez obaw. Zarówno zwierzęta, jak i kowboje oraz Indianie są z klocków.

Tina, nr 19, 06.05.2008r.

Text 3

O kulturze

Jest wielu, bardzo wielu ludzi, którzy chętnie by dawali i wspierali kulturę. Przecież nawet ja bym dawał chętnie, gdyby tylko była taka możliwość i żeby była ona (41) **prosta**, nie wymagała (42) **wczytywania** się w (43) **dziesiątki** zawitych (44) **przepisów**. Ale u (45) **nas** w (46) **ogóle** nie ma (47) **takiej** możliwości. W (48) **związku** z tym (49) **ogromne** sumy, (50) **które** mogły by (51) **łatwo** wesprzeć (52) **kulturę** są (53) **marnowane**. Wszystko (54) **dlatego**, że nie ma (55) **przepisów**, które by (56) **umożliwiały** budowanie (57) **funduszy**, utrzymywanie (58) **orkiestr** symfonicznych, (59) **fundowanie** muzeów i (60) **galerii**. Przecież muzyka w Stanach jest utrzymywana przez pojedynczych miliarderów. U nas nie ma takiej możliwości.

Bereś W., Brunetko, K. (2007). Kapuściński: nie ogarniam świata.

Text 4

Testy inteligencji

Przeprowadzono wiele badań, aby ustalić, czy wyniki testów inteligencji, wykorzystywane jako wskaźniki rozwoju poznawczego, pozostają bez zmiany w ciągu lat. Z (61) **reguły** dochodzi (62) **się** do (63) **wniosku**, że (64) **zazwyczaj** pozostają one w (65) **zasadzie** stałe (66) **wtedy**, kiedy (67) **warunki** pozostają bez (68) **zmian** – to (69) **znaczy** wtedy, (70) **gdy** zdrowie, (71) **wykształcenie** i (72) **sytuacja** domowa nie (73) **ulegają** znacznym (74) **zmianom**. Jedynym (75) **godnym** uwagi (76) **wyjątkiem** są (77) **bardzo** małe (78) **dzieci**, których (79) **możliwości** być (80) **może** są bardziej zmienne; ponadto opracowanie dla nich testów i stosowanie ich nastęrcz szczególne trudności: na przykład, uwaga małych dzieci może być chwiejna, albo też ich słaba koordynacja ruchowa może utrudniać dokładną ocenę.

Zimbardo, P.G., Ruch, F.L. (1988). Psychologia i życie. [przel. J. Radzicki]. Warszawa: PWN

Text 5

Rejestr zawodów zapomnianych

Kiedyś, gdy jakiś nicpoń strzałem z procy rozwalił szybę lub, kiedy trafiła w nią piłka, do domu przychodził Szklarz. Najprawdziwszy szklarz, który na (81) plecach, w (82) drewnianych ramach (83) dźwigał tafle (84) okiennego szkła. Szklarz (85) miał diament, (86) narzędzie, wzbudzające (87) swą nazwą (88) dreszcze, zawsze (89) towarzyszące egzotyce. (90) Diamenty należały do (91) innego świata – (92) awanturniczych powieści. (93) Czekwały na (94) swoich odkrywców, (95) czyli nas, (96) smarkaczy rozczytanych w (97) przedwojennych powieściach dla (98) młodych, pod (99) czarną pierzyną (100) afrykańskiej ziemi. Błyszczały na szyjach i dłoniach pięknych markiz, dla których kawalerowie w kapeluszach ze strusimi piórami ryzykowali życie. Patrzyliśmy z zachwytem jak diamentowa okruszyna zostawiała rysę na lodowej gładzi szkła. Później wystarczało delikatne stuknięcie – i od tafli odpadał zbędny kawałek.

Koziół, A. (2008). 'Rejestr zawodów zapomnianych'. W: *Dziennik Polski* nr 22 (26.I.)

Appendix E: C-test results

C-Test results

The number gap and word form	The percentage of correct and acceptable answers per group			
	GROUP A	GROUP B	GROUP C	GROUP D
1 się	100	100	100	100
2 zaledwie	100	100	100	100
3 lat	100	100	100	100
4 od	100	100	100	100
5 gwiazdozbiórze	100	100	100	100
6 razie	100	100	100	100
7 że	100	100	100	100
8 tam	0	20	6	23
9 połowę	100	100	100	100
10 ciemniejsza	84	100	94	73
11 Słońca	100	100	100	100
12 planety	100	100	100	86
13 podobna	68	100	94	95
14 Jowisza	89	100	100	100
15 druga	100	100	100	100
16 Saturna	95	100	100	100
17 podejrzewają	100	100	100	100
18 między	100	100	100	100
19 gwiazdą	26	40	83	46
20 być	95	100	100	100
21 albo	100	80	100	86
22 swoim	100	100	100	100
23 klockom	79	85	88	100
24 tym	100	100	100	100
25 tej	100	100	100	100
26 przygotowano	63	80	94	86
27 parku	100	100	88	95
28 wiele	100	90	100	100
29 dla	100	100	100	100
30 Takich	53	55	71	64

31 jak	58	80	88	64
32 kolejną	89	90	100	100
33 krainy	79	65	59	73
34 kowbojów	100	95	100	95
35 rejs	100	80	88	91
36 rzece	95	90	100	100
37 Na	100	85	100	95
38 łodzi	95	65	100	86
39 brzegu	79	90	100	91
40 szczerzą	89	95	100	91
41 prosta	95	85	83	95
42 wczytywania	95	90	100	100
43 dziesiątki	89	100	100	100
44 przepisów	63	80	77	82
45 nas	100	100	100	100
46 ogóle	84	100	100	86
47 takiej	42	80	83	64
48 związku	95	100	100	100
49 ogromne	68	85	100	64
50 które	74	100	100	100
51 łatwo	100	100	100	95
52 kulturę	100	95	100	100
53 marowane	47	75	64	60
54 dlatego	100	100	100	100
55 przepisów	84	80	83	95
56 umożliwiły	79	100	83	95
57 funduszy	74	85	41	73
58 orkiestr	100	95	94	91
59 fundowanie	79	95	94	100
60 galerii	95	95	100	91
61 reguły	100	95	100	100
62 się	100	100	100	100
63 wniosku	95	95	83	95
64 zazwyczaj	100	85	100	100
65 zasadzie	100	100	100	100
66 wtedy	100	100	100	95
67 warunki	63	90	83	51
68 zmian	100	100	100	100
69 znaczy	100	100	100	100

70 gdy	100	100	100	100
71 wykształcenie	100	95	100	100
72 sytuacja	100	100	100	100
73 ulegają	47	50	94	51
74 zmianom	100	95	94	95
75 godnym	100	95	94	100
76 wyjątkiem	58	85	59	69
77 bardzo	100	100	100	100
78 dzieci	89	100	100	95
79 możliwości	100	95	100	100
80 może	100	100	88	100
81 plecach	89	85	88	91
82 drewnianych	100	95	100	100
83 dźwigał	84	90	94	100
84 okiennego	84	85	100	82
85 miał	100	80	100	100
86 narzędzie	100	80	100	95
87 swą	89	85	100	90
88 dreszcze	68	60	71	69
89 towarzyszące	63	80	88	60
90 Diamenty	79	75	83	90
91 innego	100	95	100	100
92 awanturmiczych	100	85	94	86
93 Czekwały	58	60	71	64
94 swych	100	95	100	100
95 czyli	45	60	65	31
96 smarkaczy	45	25	77	31
97 przedwojennych	100	100	100	100
98 młodzieży	100	100	100	100
99 czarną	95	85	88	86
100 afrykańskiej	100	95	100	100

Appendix F: Appropriateness Judgment Test

Poniższe zdania zostały zaczerpnięte ze streszczeń prac magisterskich studentów Instytutu Języka Angielskiego w Sosnowcu. Proszę ocenić poprawność tych zdań zgodnie z poniższą skalą oraz zaproponować poprawę zdań.

0= nie wiem

1= zdanie niepoprawne

2= zdanie nie w pełni poprawne, lecz akceptowalne

3= zdanie poprawne

W przypadku zdań uznanych za błędne, proszę podkreślić część zdania zawierającą błąd i opisać krótko rodzaj błędu. Można korzystać z następujących skrótów:

Fleks. – błąd fleksyjny

Styl. – błąd stylistyczny

Skł. – błąd składniowy

Int. – błąd interpunkcyjny

Fraz. – błąd frazeologiczny

Leks. – błąd leksykalny

Ort. – błąd ortograficzny

1. Czynnikiem powodującym pojawienie się barier komunikacyjnych, zarówno w grupie młodzieży, jak i dorosłych, jest brak słownictwa oraz wiedzy gramatycznej.

0 1 2 3

.....

2. Diagnostyczny charakter pracy, został rozbudowany o badanie i ocenę strategii uczenia się stosowanych do bogacenia słownictwa.

0 1 2 3

.....

3. W pierwszym rozdziale proces palatalizacji przedstawiony jest z punktu widzenia fonetycznego.

0 1 2 3

.....

4. W badaniach udział wzięli nauczyciele języka angielskiego, niemieckiego i francuskiego pracujący w gimnazjach na terenie Śląska.

0 1 2 3

.....

5. Jako pierwsze zostały przedstawione zwroty mające związek z narodowościami, których język stanowi przedmiot naszych badań: Anglików i Amerykanów.

0 1 2 3

.....

6. Ponadto w tejże pracy zbadane jest, która z wyżej wymienionych technik jest preferowana przez uczniów.

0 1 2 3

.....

7. Autorka rozważa także nad funkcjami pedagogiczno-dydaktycznymi nauczyciela.

0 1 2 3

.....

8. Wymieniłam również wskazówki, które mogą być przydatne przy nauczaniu dzieci i nastolatków dotkniętych przez autyzm.

0 1 2 3

.....

9. W rozdziale drugim opisana została ankieta, która stanowi główne źródło informacji.

0 1 2 3

.....

10. Podczas dwóch pierwszych sesji rodzice Arka zostali poproszeni do pracowania wspólnie z synem w domu nad materiałem językowym wprowadzanym na lekcji.

0 1 2 3

.....

11. Autorka pracy uwzględniła i style kierowania klasą, i osobowość nauczyciela.

0 1 2 3

.....

12. Inne natomiast, decyzje takie pozostawiają organowi nadzorującemu pracę nauczycieli, ograniczając tym samym rolę nauczyciela do osoby, która wyłącznie wykonuje powierzone jej obowiązki.

0 1 2 3

.....

13. Dalszą część rozdziału poświęcono zagadnieniom, związanym z teoriami uczenia się języka i ich zastosowaniami w dydaktyce języka obcego.

0 1 2 3

.....

14. Jednak w dziedzinie, wymagającej analizy matematycznej, okazała się być lepsza grupa ogólna.

0 1 2 3

.....

15. Rozdział ten zawiera opis czterech głównych elementów teorii atrybucji, przytacza pojęcie behawioryzmu w ujęciu Skinner'a oraz opisuje poczucie własnej wartości człowieka widziane przez Seligman'a.

0 1 2 3

.....

16. Główne postacie występujące w *Rates of Exchange* to osoby, które posługują się łamanym językiem angielskim, aby móc porozumieć się z brytyjskim wykładowcą przebywającym w ich kraju.

0 1 2 3

.....

17. Respondenci zostali podzieleni na dwie grupy, uczniowie i nauczyciele języków obcych.

0 1 2 3

.....

18. Badania do pracy przeprowadzono dnia 20 lutego 2005r.

0 1 2 3

.....

19. Celem pracy jest przedstawienie dodatkowych trudności z jakimi boryka się tłumacz literatury pisanej w języku niekonwencjonalnym.

0 1 2 3

.....

20. Rozdział drugi i trzeci stanowią opis i analizę odpowiedzi na pytania zawarte w kwestionariuszu przeprowadzonego wśród uczniów liceum ogólnokształcącego.

0 1 2 3

21. Kwestionariusz składał się 31 pytań i został przeprowadzony w dużych i małych miejscowościach pośród 30 nauczycieli języków obcych w szkołach podstawowych.

0 1 2 3

.....

22. W pierwszym rozdziale mojej pracy omawiam w skrócie komunikacyjne cele i teorie leżące u podstaw metody Natural Approach.

0 1 2 3

.....

23. Jednakże, podkreślone jest, iż zalety wynikające z nauki kreatywnego pisania znacznie przewyższają towarzyszące jej trudności.

0 1 2 3

.....

24. W swojej pracy przedstawiłam czynniki, jakie mogą mieć wpływ na kształtowanie postawy uczących się wobec komputera jako pomocy naukowej.

0 1 2 3

.....

25. Reasumpcję teorii związanych z nabywaniem języka drugiego stanowi tabela, umieszczona w rozdziale pierwszym pracy.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

26. Bycie politykiem pociąga za sobą odpowiedzialność wobec narodu za podejmowane decyzje. Wielokrotnie politycy uciekają się w użycie strony biernej, ażeby tej odpowiedzialności uniknąć.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

27. Celem opisanych badań było zgromadzenie danych o sposobie postrzegania ćwiczeń dramatycznych w grupie nastoletnich uczniów.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

28. Praca ta miała na celu przedstawienie procesu kształcenia się motywacji i efektywności uczenia się uczniów.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

29. Rozdział pierwszy teoretycznie określa ogólne założenia metodyczne.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

30. Kolejny rozdział skupia się nad korzyściami metodycznymi płynącymi z tych projektów.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

31. Grupa kontrolna uczestniczyła w tradycyjnych zajęciach, a grupa eksperymentalna – niekonwencjonalnych.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

32. W tym rozdziale zawarty został również opis strategii używanych przy nauce języka obcego.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

33. Wszystkie te elementy okazują się stanowić nieodłączną część wypowiedzi ustnej.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

34. W tej części pracy zostały przedstawione czynniki, które wpływają na zarządzanie klasą pozytywnie i negatywnie.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

35. Powyższa analiza jest uzupełniona oceną dwóch podręczników pod względem ich treści kulturowych.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

36. Z analizy badań wynika iż zaznajomienie uczniów ze strategiami komunikacyjnymi ma pozytywny wpływ na rozwijanie umiejętności mówienia.

0 **1** **2** **3**

.....

37. W badaniach właściwych przeprowadzony został pseudo eksperyment z incydentalnym doborem próby.
0 1 2 3

.....

38. Celem niniejszej pracy magisterskiej było znalezienie odpowiedzi na pytanie, jaki profil reprezentują studenci uczący się języka obcego metodą Berlitz.

0 1 2 3

.....

39. Praca niniejsza zawiera również appendix stanowiący zbiór narzędzi badawczych.

0 1 2 3

.....

40. Studium przypadku zostało przeprowadzone na podstawie dwóch osób dwujęzycznych, których pierwszym językiem jest Rosyjski, a drugim Polski.

0 1 2 3

.....

Appendix G: Appropriateness judgment results

Appropriateness judgment test results in Group A

1		5%	37%	58%	
2		21%	79%		
3		42%	53%	5%	
4		16%	58%	26%	
5		58%	21%	16%	5%
6		42%	58%		
7	5%	79%	11%		5%
8		53%	26%	16%	5%
9		21%	26%	53%	
10		53%	37%		10%
11		32%	63%	5%	
12	5%	95%			
13		26%	37%	26%	11%
14		32%	63%		5%
15			42%	53%	5%
16		32%	63%	5%	
17		74%	16%	5%	5%
18	5%		47%	48%	
19		10%	80%	10%	
20		53%	47%	5%	5%
21		26%	69%	5%	
22	5%	16%	32%	47%	
23	5%	16%	69%	5%	5%
24	16%	58%	16%		10%
25	10%	42%	48%		
26	5%	58%	37%		
27	5%	48%	21%	21%	5%
28		58%	37%		5%
29	10%	48%	32%	5%	5%
30		37%	21%	47%	5%
31	5%	37%	47%	11%	
32	5%	11%	79%		5%
33		11%	26%	58%	5%
34		53%	42%		5%
35	10%	37%	37%	6%	10%
36		16%	68%	11%	5%

37	37%	53%	10%		
38		53%	31%	16%	
39	10%	32%	38%	10%	10%
40	5%	42%	37%	11%	5%
Group A					
	0	1	2	3	No answer
Average	9%	39%	43%	22%	

Appropriateness judgment test results in Group B

1	5%	10%	50%	30%	5%
2	5%	55%	40%		
3	20%	15%	35%	30%	
4		5%	40%	50%	5%
5	5%	40%	30%	25%	
6		15%	50%	35%	
7		80%	15%	5%	
8	10%	15%	45%	25%	5%
9	5%	10%	25%	55%	5%
10		55%	25%	5%	15%
11	5%	30%	25%	30%	10%
12	10%	75%	5%	10%	
13		25%	55%	20%	
14		25%	70%		5%
15	10%	15%	20%	50%	5%
16	5%	15%	30%	45%	5%
17		55%	40%	5%	
18	15%	10%	20%	50%	5%
19	5%	20%	35%	35%	5%
20		60%	25%		15%
21	5%	30%	35%	20%	10%
22	10%	15%	20%	50%	5%
23		10%	40%	50%	
24	20%	25%	35%	15%	5%
25	30%	20%	25%	20%	5%
26		60%	30%		10%
27	15%	25%	35%	20%	5%
28		55%	25%	20%	
29	10%	15%	20%	35%	20%
30	15%	25%	40%	20%	

31	10%	20%	45%	15%	10%
32	5%	15%	40%	40%	
33	5%	5%	20%	65%	5%
34		35%	50%	10%	5%
35	10%	20%	35%	30%	5%
36		25%	40%	15%	20%
37	20%	15%	45%	10%	10%
38	10%	25%	35%	30%	
39	25%	30%	45%		
40		35%	30%	30%	5%
Group B					
0	1	2	3	no answer	
11%	28%	34%	29%		

Appropriateness judgment test results in Group C

1	6%	17%	6%	71%	
2		64%	30%	6%	
3		36%	23%	41%	
4		6%	18%	76%	
5	6%	18%	29%	47%	
6		35%	24%	35%	6%
7	6%	88%	6%		
8		47%	12%	41%	
9		12%	6%	82%	
10		88%	12%		
11	6%	29%	47%	18%	
12	6%	70%	6%	6%	12%
13		47%	41%	12%	
14	6%	59%	29%	6%	
15		18%	29%	53%	
16		12%	29%	59%	
17		64%	24%	6%	6%
18		6%	6%	82%	6%
19	12%	6%	53%	29%	
20		88%	6%		6%
21	12%	47%	12%	29%	
22	12%	24%	29%	35%	
23	12%	35%	35%	12%	6%
24	6%	6%	47%	24%	17%

25	24%	53%	6%	17%	
26	6%	82%	12%		
27	17%	24%		59%	
28		64%	18%	18%	
29	24%	41%	12%	23%	
30	6%	29%	18%	47%	
31	12%	41%	29%	18%	
32	6%		12%	82%	
33		6%	6%	88%	
34		41%	41%	12%	6%
35		12%	24%	64%	
36		24%	58%	12%	6%
37	24%	52%	12%	6%	6%
38	6%	12%	24%	58%	
39	6%	64%	18%		12%
40	12%	53%	12%	17%	6%

Group C				
0	1	2	3	No answer
11%	39%	22%	37%	

Appropriateness judgment test results in Group D

1	5%	9%	45%	36%	5%
2	5%	36%	50%	9%	
3	14%	36%	14%	36%	
4	9%		36%	55%	
5	14%	32%	32%	22%	
6		45%	36%	19%	
7	5%	72%	18%	5%	
8	5%	32%	22%	36%	5%
9	19%		9%	63%	9%
10	18%	55%	18%		9%
11	5%	18%	58%	14%	5%
12	18%	54%	14%	5%	9%
13		41%	41%	13%	5%
14	9%	46%	9%	36%	
15	14%	18%	23%	45%	
16	18%	18%	28%	36%	
17	5%	54%	18%	14%	9%
18	23%	9%	23%	45%	

19	14%	27%	23%	36%	
20		58%	23%	14%	5%
21	18%	32%	23%	23%	4%
22	18%	18%	23%	36%	5%
23	18%	32%	32%	18%	
24	18%	32%	32%	18%	
25	23%	32%	27%	14%	4%
26	5%	59%	27%	9%	
27	14%	18%	18%	41%	9%
28	9%	41%	27%	18%	9%
29	18%	36%	23%	9%	14%
30	5%	36%	18%	36%	5%
31	5%	27%	50%	18%	
32	19%	27%	27%	27%	
33	9%	27%	14%	50%	
34	18%	32%	36%	5%	9%
35	27%	9%	19%	45%	
36	5%	32%	45%	18%	
37	41%	36%	18%	5%	
38	45%	36%	14%		5%
39	14%	45%	36%	5%	
40	14%	40%	23%	23%	

Group D				
0	1	2	3	No answer
15%	34%	27%	25%	

Streszczenie

Dynamika rodzimej kompetencji językowej u osób dwujęzycznych – wgląd w kompetencję pisemną

W pracy przedstawiono zagadnienie oddziaływania języka obcego (FL) na kompetencję w języku rodzimym (L1) w przypadku zaawansowanych użytkowników języka obcego. Szczególny nacisk położono na problem *ścierania języka* ojczystego (ang. *language attrition*) i zmian w obrębie języka ojczystego, które są ich konsekwencją.

Praca składa się z dwóch części: teoretycznej i badawczej. W rozdziale pierwszym części teoretycznej poruszono problematykę związaną z rozwijaniem kompetencji językowej. Mianowicie, została omówiona rola aspektów kognitywnych i afektywnych oraz neurokognitywnych towarzyszących rozwijaniu języków. W rozdziale drugim przedstawiono poglądy na zjawisko wywierania wpływu na język pierwszy przez język drugi i zdefiniowano pojęcie *ścierania języka*. Trzeci rozdział stanowi nawiązanie do korpusu językowego opisanego w części badawczej i zawiera omówienie cech streszczenia jako gatunku literackiego oraz porównanie struktur językowych w języku angielskim i polskim.

Część druga pracy, badawcza, składa się z pięciu rozdziałów, w których kolejno przedstawiono: schemat badania, wyniki badania pilotażowego, analizę korpusu językowego oraz wyniki badania kwestionariuszowego, C-testu i testu poprawności językowej oraz wnioski. Korpus językowy użyty w badaniu został stworzony ze streszczeń prac magisterskich studentów Instytutu Języka Angielskiego Uniwersytetu Śląskiego i stanowił źródło struktur leksykalnych i gramatycznych dla testu poprawności językowej. Celem badania kwestionariuszowego było zebranie informacji na temat respondentów i ich doświadczenia wielojęzycznego. C-test stanowił ilościowy pomiar biegłości w języku pierwszym. Natomiast, test językowy badał trafność oceny zdań pod względem ich poprawności.

Zebrane wyniki pozwoliły stwierdzić, iż zaawansowany stopień biegłości w języku obcym wpływa pozytywnie na świadomość językową i świadomość interakcji, jakie zachodzą między językami. W pracy pokazano, że w toku rozwoju dwujęzycznego dynamice podlegają elementy języka pierwszego. Mianowicie, produkcja w języku pierwszym jest nacechowana zapożyczeniami leksykalnymi i strukturalnymi z języka drugiego oraz elementami innowacyjnymi, które negatywnie odbijają się na stylistyce tekstu i zostały określone mianem symptomów *ścierania się języka pierwszego*. Dalsze badania sugerują, iż zjawisko *ścierania się języka* jest przejściowym etapem rozwoju języka pierwszego w ramach kompetencji wielojęzycznej w toku którego różnice językowe pomagają osiągnąć wyższy stopień świadomości i poprawności językowej. Na podstawie wyników badań sformułowano wnioski co do wpływu języka obcego na język pierwszy oraz wzmacniania rozwoju świadomości meta-językowej w kontekście nauczania i uczenia się języka obcego.

Resumé

Dynamizmus domácej jazykovej kompetencie u bilingválnych osôb

Práca predstavuje problém vplyvu cudzieho jazyka na kompetenciu v materinskom jazyku (L1) v prípade pokročilých používateľov cudzieho jazyka. Mimoriadny dôraz bol položený na problém opotrebovania materinského jazyka (language attrition) a zmien v rámci materinského jazyka, ktoré sú jeho výsledkom.

Teoretická časť práce bola venovaná problematike spojenej s rozvojom jazykovej kompetencie a jej podrobnej charakteristike. V tejto časti boli predstavené názory na jav ovplyvňovania prvého jazyka druhým jazykom. Bola porovnaná štruktúra viet v anglickom a poľskom jazyku, a zároveň vyjadrené vlastnosti zhrnutia ako literárneho žánru.

V praktickej časti bola urobená jazyková analýza zhrnutí v poľskom jazyku, tvoriacich jazykový korpus. Boli prezentované výsledky troch výskumov: dotazníka, ktorého cieľom bolo zhromaždenie údajov o respondentoch, C-testu, ktorý slúžil na meranie úrovne plynulosti materinského jazyka, ako aj jazykového testu, ktorý skúmal výstižnosť oceny viet z hľadiska ich správnosti.

Výsledky dovolili zistiť, že ovládanie cudzieho jazyka na pokročilej úrovni môže mať pozitívny vplyv na ďalší rozvoj materinského jazyka. Počas takéhoto rozvoja jazykova kompetencia podlieha premenám, počas ktorých opotrebovuje sa materinský jazyk. Na základe výsledkov výskumu boli formulované závery týkajúce sa upevňovania rozvoja materinského jazyka v rámci vyučovania a učenia sa cudzieho jazyka, ako aj vzájomného ovplyvňovania jazykov.