Robertus de Louw

Language awareness and language attitudes towards Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch among Polish students of Dutch

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Imię i nazwisko ROBERTUS DE LOUW
Kierunek i specjalność FILOLOGIA
Wydział ANGLISTYKI
Promotor DR HAB. ANNA EWERT

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Introduction

(1) *Teacher:* *Wat doe je in je vrije tijd?* 'What do you do in your free time?'
Student: *Ik drink een pintje.* 'I drink a pint.'
Teacher: *En met wie drink je dat pilsje?* 'And who do you drink that beer with?'
Student: *Pilsje? Nee, pintje.* 'Beer? No, a pint.'[1]

This is how first-year students of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University first become acquainted with the lexical differences between two varieties of the Dutch language, namely Belgian and Netherlandic. An explanation may be provided by the fact that very early on in their Practical Dutch course they learn the Belgian Dutch word *pintje* 'beer' or 'a pint' in a class taught by a Flemish woman, Ms Saeys. They then use this word quite freely and willingly in a more speaking-focused Practical Dutch class taught by a native speaker of Netherlandic Dutch until they are confronted with the Netherlandic Dutch equivalent, *pilsje*[2], as in the example above. Once they know both words, using *pintje* still seems more natural to them as it is the first word they often want to use when talking about drinking beer on a night out with friends, even in the aforementioned speaking-focused Practical Dutch class. However, because they feel, or even believe, it is inappropriate to use a Flemish word when speaking to a Dutchman, they gradually replace it with *pilsje*. In fact, having uttered a sentence with the Flemish word, they will

[1] The translation is mine, RdL All subsequent translations, from any language, are also mine, RdL.
[2] Both in Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch the diminutive form of the noun is used. Diminutive forms are very common in Standard (Belgian and Netherlandic) Dutch (for this and an outline of lexical, phonetic and grammatical differences see Chapter 3). The Belgian Dutch, or Flemish, word 'pintje', meaning 'beer', looks like the English word 'pint' but the pronunciation differs in that the stem rhymes with 'hint'. The Netherlandic Dutch word 'pilsje' is the diminutive form of 'pils', which means 'beer' or 'lager'.

sometimes quickly change it into the Netherlandic Dutch equivalent, as if self-correcting a mistake. At the same time, when asked directly which variety they prefer, at least in the first semester, quite a few students still seem to favor Belgian Dutch.

Since these choices and seemingly conscious changes may well be early signs of the students' (language) awareness on one hand ('I'll use *pilsje* when in my Practical Dutch class taught by Mr. de Louw but *pintje* in my class taught by Ms. Saeys') or their (language) attitudes on the other ('I like the sound of *pintje*, 'The word *pintje* makes me laugh' and 'I have more classes with Ms. Saeys, so for now I prefer the variety she uses'), the main motivation for the present study was to examine both how aware Polish students of Dutch really are of the differences between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch and what their attitudes towards these two varieties are. And it is these two fields of study, language awareness and language attitudes, that therefore underlie the experimental part of the study presented in this dissertation.

The notion of language awareness (LA), defined by the Association for Language Awareness as "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (ALA 2012), dates back to the early 1970s, when Eric W. Hawkins first argued in favor of introducing a new subject called 'language' into the curriculum in the United Kingdom. The aim was to link different aspects of language education by breaking down the barriers between them (Hawkins 1999). His efforts were rewarded in the 1980s when a movement in the United Kingdom sought to stimulate curiosity about language (Richards and Schmidt 2010) leading to the development of Language Awareness as a field of study.

Today much of Language Awareness research, for which mainly verbal reports and to a lesser extent recognition tasks are used, is focused on assessing learners' metalinguistic awareness, that is knowledge of explicit and implicit rules. However, awareness can also be taken to mean 'being aware', making it, in fact, a much broader notion because it may incorporate other aspects of language and the learners' consciousness thereof as well, such as elements that are relevant to awareness of differences and similarities between two, or more, varieties of the same language.

Van Lier asserts:

> Take as broad a view as possible of consciousness, all the way from merely being alive to deliberate and purposeful action, partly to counterbalance the common practice of associating consciousness with explicit knowledge of grammatical rules and formal

> analyses, and partly to enable a more fine-grained understanding of the notion of awareness (van Lier 1998: 128-129).

An awareness of the differences and similarities between two varieties, for example, may therefore include not only awareness of their grammar, lexis and pronunciation but also awareness of prestige, level of formality, standardization and dialects. Interestingly, these are all exactly the same aspects (of language) people may also hold attitudes towards.

Language attitudes, which constitute the second linguistic field underlying the present study, may be defined as:

> the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other's languages or to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language. Language attitudes may have an effect on second language or foreign language learning. The measurement of language attitudes provides information which is useful in language teaching and language planning (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 314).

Such an approach to language attitudes substantiates a common view of attitudes in fact being tantamount to feelings. Nevertheless, there are other related notions, such as beliefs, for instance. These as well as other terms need to be differentiated, as will be explained in Chapter 2.

Also, if language attitudes may affect second or foreign language learning, as stated in the aforementioned definition, there is obvious interplay between these attitudes and behavior. Before the nature of this relationship can be examined, language attitudes must be researched.

Measurement of language attitudes is typically performed in one of three ways: by using direct methods (e.g. interviews), indirect procedures (e.g. the matched guise technique) (Ó Riagáin 2008) or content analysis (Garrett 2010). These methods can be used in isolation, meaning that only one particular approach may be used in a given study, but, since no method is exhaustive and "many language attitudes studies are relatively small-scale 'one-off' studies" (Garrett 2010: 201), Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) and Garrett (2001, 2010) call for a multiple-method approach to studying language attitudes to show how methods can complement each other.

Such an approach was also adopted for the present study. The participants were namely asked to complete 3 ratings, one in each part of the study. In the first session, a questionnaire, the participants rated Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch on a scale from 1 to 5, with opposite characteristics on each end of the scale. In sessions two and three of the study, both extended versions of a verbal guise task, the participants first rated the manner in which speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch read or spoke and then they rated the Dutch and Flemish speakers on a set of 18 opposite adjectives, again on a scale from 1 to 5. The attitudes expressed through both ratings were then taken as indicative of and hence reflecting how the respondents felt about the corresponding language variety (for details on the verbal guise approach to measuring attitudes see Section 2.3.4).

Language awareness, on the other hand, was measured by asking the participants to (try to) recognize speakers of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch in the same two extended versions of verbal guise tasks, one in which they listened to 6 female and 6 male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch as well as 6 female and 6 male speakers of Belgian Dutch reading the exact same text and one, an innovative alternative, in which they listened to 3 female and 3 male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch as well as 3 female and 3 male speakers of Belgian Dutch, all of whom were actors playing in Dutch and Flemish versions of the same 2 films. The rationale behind such an approach is that participants may draw on their (implicit or explicit) knowledge of the phonetic, grammatical and lexical differences between the two varieties to identify which variety is used.

Of importance, terminology pertaining to the language in question needs to be explained. The language spoken in the Netherlands and the northern part of Belgium, Flanders, is Dutch. This is the umbrella term. There are several varieties of Dutch, the two of which that are discussed in this dissertation are often referred to as Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch in literature. However, on a day-to-day basis, these varieties are called Dutch and Flemish respectively. Especially the first term, that is Dutch, may therefore lead to confusion as it can refer both to the umbrella term and to the variant spoken in the Netherlands. To complicate matters even further, De Caluwe (2013) uses the term Dutch Dutch to refer to Netherlandic Dutch. In this dissertation, however, unless it is stated otherwise, the variant spoken in the Netherlands is referred to as either Dutch or Netherlandic Dutch and the one spoken in Flanders as Flemish or Belgian Dutch.

To recapitulate, this dissertation reports on a multiple-method study of awareness and attitudes relating to two varieties of Dutch, namely Belgian, also referred to as Flemish, and Netherlandic, also referred to as Dutch. It consists of an introduction, followed by 5 main chapters and a chapter with conclusions. There are also 5 appendices.

In addition to presenting the notion of language awareness, including its definitions, scope and aims, Chapter 1 provides a historical overview of how research in the field developed. It also discusses explicit and implicit knowledge as well as the importance of consciousness.

Chapter 2 focuses on attitudes in general and language attitudes in particular, including their structure, characteristics and determinants as well as methods by which they can be measured.

Chapter 3 looks at two varieties of the Dutch language, Belgian and Netherlandic, by giving a historical overview and outlining their main grammatical, lexical and phonological differences. A short description of Dutch Studies at Adam Mickiewicz University is also included.

Chapter 4 presents the research questions and methodology used in this study. Apart from providing information on the participants and the sampling procedures, it gives a detailed description of the three sessions of the study – a questionnaire and two extended verbal guise tasks.

Chapter 5 gives a comprehensive account of the results of this extensive investigation into language awareness and attitudes. It is followed by a discussion of these results, pedagogical implications, which refer both to teaching/learning in general and to the context of Dutch Studies at Adam Mickiewicz University in particular, limitations of the study and recommendations for further research.

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- the Deans at the Faculty of English at Adam Mickiewicz University for their support.

Last but surely not least, special thanks to Bożena for saying "Come on, get it done and over with". You are missed. Rest in peace.

This dissertation is dedicated to Bruno.

Chapter 1: Language awareness

1.1. Introduction

According to most sources, the notion of language awareness, in literature often capitalized (Language Awareness) and referred to by its abbreviation LA, dates back to at least 1973, when Eric W. Hawkins called for "a new subject, 'language', to be taught as a 'bridging subject', linking English and the foreign language in the curriculum" (Hawkins 1999: 124). The aim was to link different aspects of language education, including English as a native tongue, English as a foreign or second language, other foreign languages and minority mother tongues, by breaking down the barriers between them (Hawkins 1984, 1999). This came at a time when, as a reaction to Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device hypothesis, there was "a taboo […] on formal language instruction and talk about language" (Hawkins 1999: 124) .

However, both van Essen (2008) and Jessner (2008), who in her article "Language awareness in multilinguals: Theoretical trends" draws on van Essen's work, mention scholars from the beginning of the twentieth century and even single out one, Wilhelm von Humboldt, from as early as the beginning of the 19th century to argue for a much prompter onset of studies on language awareness.

In addition to elaborating on how research on (language) awareness developed (see the historical overview in Section 1.3), this chapter expounds on the notion of language awareness by presenting different definitions, outlining its scope and showing how language awareness is linked with explicit versus implicit knowledge on the one hand and with consciousness on the other. Finally, the aims and goals of LA are summarized.

1.2. Definitions and terminology

The term Language Awareness has proven difficult to define. One of the main underlying reasons for this is that work on LA is rooted in a wide array of fields of study, including linguistics, psychology, and education, to name but a few (Pinto et al. 1999). Various attempts have been made, however.

When defining Language Awareness as "a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life" (1991: 4), James and Garrett in fact cite the definition that was proposed in the early 1980s by UK's National Council for Language in Education (NCLE).

Due to its broad nature, however, this definition has often been criticized (see, for instance, Thornbury 1997) for allowing for a large number of possible interpretations. Therefore, attempts have been made at narrowing down the scope by, among others, approaching LA from the point of view of teaching and teachers as well as learning and learners (van Essen 2008). For instance, in the article "Ten questions about language awareness", in which various authors answer these 10 questions, Brian Tomlinson offers the following definition of language awareness:

> Language Awareness is a mental attribute which develops through paying motivated attention to language in use, and which enables language learners to gradually gain insights into how languages work. It is also a pedagogic approach that aims to help learners to gain such control (Bolitho et al. 2003: 251).

Similarly, L. Andrews (1998) introduces a Language Exploration and Awareness (LEA) approach to language teaching and learning through which he encourages examination of language "as language" rather than a school subject and, as a result, development of reflective or metalinguistic awareness among learners. In addition, he explains which criteria need to be fulfilled for activities to enable practical application of the approach. These activities should:

- stress meaning,
- make use of authentic language in real social circumstances,
- make a developmental view possible,
- "develop awareness of several aspects of language" (1998: 15),
- be focused on the students and encourage the asking of questions,
- prepare learners for reflection.

Perhaps more importantly, especially within the scope of this dissertation, he stresses that the LEA approach gives a larger perspective, one of the main reasons being that "students become aware when they have opportunities to explore the distinctions among regional and social varieties (dialects)" (L. Andrews 1998: 6).

While L. Andrews (1998) mentions metalinguistic awareness only as a component of language awareness, other researchers further complicate any attempts at defining this notion by using these two terms, along with 'linguistic awareness', interchangeably.

Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987), on the other hand, adds metacognitive and metacommunicative awareness to the aforementioned metalinguistic awareness to constitute three aspects that make up language awareness. To contextualize this, meta-language can be defined as "the language used to analyze or describe a language" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 361), metacognitive awareness refers to "knowledge of the mental processes which are involved in different kinds of learning" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 361), that is students knowing how they think and learn and thus becoming more effective and autonomous, while metacommunicative awareness concerns the awareness of contextual clues present in an interaction (Scollon and Scollon 2001).

To fully understand and appreciate the breadth of coverage of Language Awareness, it is enough to glance at the definition Ronald Carter presented at the 1994 International Language in Education Conference in Hong Kong, as cited in S. Andrews (2007: 12):

> A general language awareness involves at least:
> (a) awareness of some of the properties of language; creativity and playfulness; its double meanings.
> (b) awareness of the embedding of language within culture. Learning to read the language is learning about the cultural properties of the language. Idioms and metaphors, in particular, reveal a lot about the culture.
> (c) a greater self-consciousness about the forms of the language we use. We need to recognise that the relations between the forms and meanings of a language are sometimes arbitrary, but that language is a system and that it is for the most part systematically patterned.
> (d) awareness of the close relationship between language and ideology. It involves 'seeing through language' in other words.

As far as dictionaries are concerned, whereas the 1992 edition of Longman's *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* fails to provide any definition

of Language Awareness (Richards et al. 1992), the 2010 edition, interestingly, does give a description of the term (Richards and Schmidt 2010):

> Language Awareness is "a movement that developed in Britain in the 1980s which sought to stimulate curiosity about language and to provide links among the different kinds of language experiences children typically encountered in school, e.g. in science, in literature, and in foreign language classes. Language awareness courses seek to develop knowledge about language and languages as an important element in the education of all children" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 314-315).

This change, yet again, shows how much the notion has developed and gained in currency in recent years.

1.3. Historical background

The beginnings of this development, in fact, date back to the works of Wilhelm von Humboldt (van Essen 2008). This German philosopher, politician, anthropologist and linguist, who lived at the turn of the eighteenth and nineteenth century (1767–1835), stressed the importance of "conscious reflection on language form and use" (Jessner 2008: 357) as something benefitting the language learning process. Jespersen (1860–1943), another early advocate of LA, held a similar view (Jessner 2008, van Essen 2008). Van Essen (2008) mentions two more early proponents, namely Georg von der Gabelentz (1840–1893), who distinguished between unconscious acquisition and conscious learning as well as language awareness when the teaching concerns the native or another language, and Harold Palmer (1877–1949), who made a distinction between the unconscious acquisition of the mother tongue and subsequently learned foreign languages and the conscious strategies employed by learners when doing artificial learning tasks.

The start of the twentieth century also saw the evolvement of a language awareness movement in the Netherlands (van Essen 2008), most notably in the work of Jan Hendrik van den Bosch (1862–1941), who noted:

> When I […] teach well, I achieve two things: I teach this youngster to observe, I train him in comparing and contrasting, I teach him to find things out for himself, and this way he becomes aware of the power of his mind, he learns to use his intellectual power, self-confidence develops […] The second thing is: my pupil will start to become aware of this reality, by himself he will, using my guidance, acquire a number of correct notions (van den Bosch 1903: 145).

In other words, the learner was to take control of the learning process and the teacher's role was to be a guide. The teacher also had a social responsibility to educate their pupils about, for example, "particular language varieties appropriate or inappropriate for particular contexts and purposes" (van Essen 2008: 6).

Other notable linguists in Germany and the Netherlands in the first half of the twentieth century, including Drach, Langeveld, Schneiders, Royen and Stuttenheim (van Essen 2008), all stressed the relationship between language awareness and linguistic competence and performance.

Van Essen does not fail to refer to scholars from the former Soviet Union when trying to outline the history of LA, acknowledging the efforts and theories of Vygotsky, Belyayev and Galperin (van Essen 2008).

Two very conflicting conclusions can be drawn from the historical overview presented so far. One is that language awareness was present in linguistics long before Eric Hawkins, the alleged father of the LA movement, called for "language across the curriculum" (Hawkins 1984: 26). The other one is that the aforementioned scholars and their theories laid solid foundations for the actual development of LA.

One linguist who would recognize the contribution of Hawkins' 'forefathers' is Claus Gnutzmann, who observes that "the major ideas of present-day LA have been around for some time, e.g. under such labels as *conscience métalinguistique* [metalinguistic awareness], *Reflexion über Sprache* [reflection about language], *Sprachbewußtsein* [language awareness], *taalverkenning* [language exploration] and *taalgevoel* [linguistic feeling]" (Gnutzmann 1997: 65). These terms are not necessarily all synonyms and may, in fact, refer or have referred to slightly different aspects within or around language awareness. Such discrepancies in multilingual terminology have also been discussed by, for instance, van Essen (see van Essen 2008).

There are, however, many who argue that the 1970s and 1980s in fact marked the *real* beginning of research into language awareness (James and Garrett 1991, Baker and Prys Jones 1998; Hawkins 1999; S. Andrews 2007; and many others). All these authors, including Hawkins himself, refer to Hawkins' pioneering work. In his 1984 book entitled *Awareness of language: An introduction*, he wrote:

> Our aim is to offer an approach to language teaching that will bring teachers together across disciplines and school frontiers to plan and teach it ['it' here refers to a school program in which there is a place for language awareness], while helping all pupils, but

> especially the slower learners, to make sense of what is too often a fragmented and haphazard linguistic apprenticeship (Hawkins 1984: 4).

This statement, indicative of the general attitude of different scholars at the time, especially in Great Britain, formed the underlying motive for a call for a revolution in the British educational system. This so-called 'British Language Awareness Movement' (see, for example, Fairclough 1996) was a result of growing dissatisfaction with "the notoriously dismal achievements in two areas of British education: foreign language learning and school leavers' illiteracy" (James and Garrett 1991: 3). It is clear, therefore, that the concern pertained to the teaching of foreign languages and, perhaps even more so, the mother tongue.

A series of reports by various institutions and assemblies followed, starting from the aforementioned National Congress on Languages in Education (NCLE) Assembly, which took place in York, England, in July 1984, coincidentally the same year in which Eric Hawkins' book *Awareness of language: An introduction*, was published. Their report "sees LA programmes developing such sensitivity[3] and awareness within the following three broad parameters: a cognitive parameter (e.g. developing awareness of pattern in language), an affective parameter (e.g. forming attitudes) and a social parameter (e.g. improving pupils' effectiveness as citizens or consumers)" (Donmal 1985: 7, as cited in James and Garrett 1991: 4).

Some other notable reports include the Kingman Report (DES 1988), the Cox Report (DES 1989) and the Martin Harris Report (1990), all of which second the ideas expressed by, among others, Hawkins and NCLE by emphasizing the importance of teaching about language (Hawkins 1992).

To present the full picture, however, there are two reports from before the British Language Awareness Movement that need to be mentioned here as well. Those are a provocative document entitled "A language policy across the curriculum" issued in the late 1960s by Rosen on behalf of the London Association for the Teaching of English, and the Bullock Report of 1975, which "disastrously side-tracked discussion by going only part way across the curriculum, and making no mention anywhere in all its 500 pages of any contribution that foreign language study might make to the pupils' 'language for life'" (Hawkins 1999: 126).

[3] Here 'such' refers to the sensitivity mentioned in the definition of LA provided earlier, that is a "person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life" (James and Garrett 1991: 4).

"The next important landmark in the history of recent LA was the appearance of Ronald Carter's reader *Knowledge about language and the curriculum*" (van Essen 2008: 8). A collection of 16 essays, it concerns Knowledge About Language (KAL), which is what Language Awareness is often referred to in Great Britain (S. Andrews 2007), among both learners, whose KAL and related issues are discussed in the first part of the book, and teachers, who are the focal point in part two.

In 1992, the first international LA conference took place in Bangor (Byram 2000). "It was on this occasion that the Association for Language Awareness was founded and when also the first issue of the journal *Language Awareness* was launched" (Gnutzmann 1997: 65; see also Svalberg 2007)[4]. The role these three events have played in the development and spreading of language awareness as both a term and a notion is undoubtedly of paramount importance. Let the Association's mission statement be indicative hereof:

> The Association for Language Awareness aims at supporting and promoting activities across the whole breadth of Language Awareness. These are conducted in different fields of Language Awareness (e.g. mother tongue learning, foreign language learning, teacher education, language use in professional settings), at a variety of levels (e.g. primary, secondary and tertiary education, professional training and practice), and with objectives in a range of domains (e.g. effects on language performance, on attitudes to language etc) (ALA 2012).

The year 1992 can therefore be taken as the starting point of current research on language awareness. This research has seen, among others, the appearance of such books as van Lier's *Introducing Language Awareness* (1995) and Fairclough's *Critical Language Awareness* (1996), as well as further publications by James, Ellis and Hawkins, to name but a few of the many scholars interested in the field of LA.

1.4. The scope of Language Awareness

1.4.1. The domains of LA

Language Awareness is a holistic concept, within which James and Garrett (1991: 12-20) identified 5 domains that determine the learner's language competence and

[4] Interestingly, even though literature provides the date 1992, on the ALA website it says that "[t]he Association for Language Awareness (ALA) was founded on 12th April 1994 by the following people: Mike Scott, Sabine Jones, Peter Garrett, Joyce M. Angio, Leo van Lier" (ALA 2012).

understanding. These are: the affective domain, the social domain, the 'power' domain, the cognitive domain and the performance domain (see also Baker and Prys Jones 1998).

The affective domain relates to the awakening and/or development of attitudes, attention, sensitivity, curiosity and interest.

The aim of the social domain is to develop tolerance for other languages and all ethnic groups. In a globalized society, problems may be a result of ethnic multiformity and therefore "[l]anguage awareness is seen as an instrument for social harmonization through an understanding of language diversity in the world" (Baker and Prys Jones 1998: 632).

The 'power' domain pertains to students' understanding of how language can be used as a tool to influence, persuade and manipulate others (see also the description of CLA in the next section) as well as making them aware of "hidden meanings, tacit assumptions and rhetorical traps" (James and Garrett 1991: 14).

The cognitive domain is about developing among students an awareness of language patterns, contrasts, categories, rules and systems in addition to the ability to reflect upon language. The students also need to become sensitive to their own way of communicating and learning.

The performance domain aims at improving a student's linguistic competence both in terms of efficiency and proficiency. To achieve this, students need to learn about language processing and learning.

James and Garrett stress that they do not see these five domains as "mutually exclusive, operating in isolation from one another" (1991: 20). On the contrary, they intermingle with each other providing a way to clarify the meaning of the concept of language awareness irrespective of its point of reference.

1.4.2. Alternative names for or approaches to language awareness

As, for example, suggested by the title of Fairclough's book *Critical Language Awareness* (1996), this point of reference as well as the scope of interest in language awareness has been extended to take on other forms, including a critical approach, but also one with focus on the teacher or the seemingly synonymous Knowledge About Language.

1.4.2.1. Critical Language Awareness (CLA)

Fairclough states that CLA "presupposes and builds upon what is variously called 'critical language study', 'critical linguistics', or 'critical discourse analysis'" (1996: 2). It is important to note that in this context the word 'critical' means 'careful' or 'thoughtful' and hence refers to the language user's ability to thoroughly approach and analyze language, its use and usage, as well as its role.

If 'critical linguistics' is defined as "an approach to the analysis of language and of language use that focuses on the role that language plays in assigning power to particular groups within society" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 145), it is hardly surprising that CLA stresses the importance of language within social changes (Fairclough 1996). These may include changes in the execution of power and social control as well as in the way language is practiced or used in different relationships or contexts.

As has been previously indicated, in this sense CLA resembles the 'power' domain introduced and described by James and Garrett (see previous section as well as James and Garrett 1991). In other words, CLA, by recognizing the communicative role of language, acknowledges intent in any message. When communicating, people make purposeful choices in terms of the grammatical structures, lexis, register and type of discourse they use. The aim of these choices may be, for instance, to encourage, manipulate, control or praise.

The main difference between CLA and LA lies in the assumptions about what language awareness can do for problems related to social aspects of educational failure, parents' lack of understanding of language, and the treatment of minority languages and non-standard varieties (Fairclough 1995). In practice this means that within LA these aforementioned problems are resolved in schools, whereas proponents of CLA argue in favor of a more multifaceted approach. Fairclough (1995: 223) posits that the Language Awareness approach can "have unforeseen detrimental social consequences" for a variety of reasons. Among them are:

- the capacity of schools for social engineering may be overestimated,
- class systems are reproduced not only in education,
- LA calls for differentiating between varieties of a language in terms of appropriateness, which may reinforce feelings of inequality and thus be counterproductive, and

- "elevating the standard means demoting other varieties" (Fairclough 1995: 225).

Recapitulating, the underpinning idea behind CLA proposes that language use is ideological in nature and that language learners need to be made aware of both, that is how to use language and the fact that the relation between language form and function is not arbitrary.

1.4.2.2. Knowledge About Language (KAL)

It comes as no surprise that since the Language Awareness Movement was mainly a strong reaction to the poor performance and results of pupils in British schools, further reports[5] were needed. An example of such a report was one on "Knowledge about Language" (the British term for LA) by Rosamond Mitchell, Janet Hooper and Christopher Brumfit. They investigated "the extent of secondary students' knowledge about the nature of language, native and foreign, alongside development of practical language skills" (Mitchell et al. 1994: 1).

The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines Knowledge About Language (KAL) as "any kind of knowledge about language that teachers make use of in their teaching, such as knowledge of grammar, language use, and second language learning" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 308).

In their report, Mitchell et al. (1994) argued that the term KAL, as introduced by members of the British Language Awareness Movement, was "a new title for an old concern: that pupils learning languages in formal settings should acquire some explicit understandings and knowledge of the nature of language" (Mitchell et al. 1994: 2). The report, which "summarizes a British research project […] concerning the extent of secondary students' knowledge about the nature of language, native and foreign, alongside development of practical language skills" (Mitchell et al. 1994: 1), acknowledges the attempts made by teachers of both the mother tongue and foreign languages to introduce elements of KAL, emphasizes the positive contribution KAL-related work can have to learning, but at the same time suggests ways in which this work can be improved.

As much as the term Knowledge About Language seems synonymous with the term Language Awareness, there is confusion as to whether they can and should be used

[5] Earlier reports (among them the Kingman Report and the Cox Report) have already been mentioned.

interchangeably (see van Lier 1996). However, some scholars do seem to treat them as identical (see van Essen 2008).

1.4.2.3. Teacher Language Awareness (TLA)

The development of TLA is a reaction to the initial focus of the Language Awareness Movement on the language awareness of the learners only (S. Andrews 2007), the argument being that teachers, both of the mother tongue and of a foreign language, need to be just as, if not more, aware.

Thornbury (1997: x) defines TLA as "the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively". This presupposes that their awareness of the language they teach, meaning the grammatical, lexical and phonological features as well as how the meaning can change depending on the form used (Hales 1997: 217) will contribute directly to teaching effectiveness (S. Andrews 2007).

In other words, irrespective of whether the focus of teaching is on form, meaning, grammar, lexis, phonology, functions, accuracy, fluency, skills, culture, or any combination of all or some of these aspects of language, it is clear that "TLA is an essential part of any language teacher's knowledge/skills base" (S. Andrews 2007: 34). After all, as Rebecca Hughes points out, "as teachers we have all been in the situation where the learner wants to know 'why' they can/cannot say something" (Bolitho et al. 2003: 256). (T)LA, by inculcating in teachers a broader understanding of language and its possibilities, also gives them the confidence to discuss language with the learner. As a result, they may enter into a dialogue through which the learner can find a way to answer his or her question.

1.5. Explicit knowledge versus implicit knowledge

1.5.1. Definitions and scope

The specific focus of each of the approaches mentioned in the previous section notwithstanding, the notion of language awareness remains at their core. And it is this notion that has received widespread attention and whose concerns are of even greater salience today than in the 1980s. As Agneta M-L. Svalberg, ALA committee member,

puts it, "[t]he increased interest in LA […] has been further enhanced by important developments in the fields of linguistics, applied linguistics and language teaching – particularly in our understanding of the cognitive processes involved in language learning" (2007: 288).

When scrutinizing the definitions and descriptions of language awareness presented so far, it becomes clear that different cognitive terms are used in them. If *cognitive* is taken to refer to "the various mental processes used in thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognizing, classifying" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 90), then these terms include, for example, *conscious awareness, motivated attention, self-consciousness* and *explicit knowledge.*

This last term, *explicit knowledge*, "appears in all three original aims of the journal *Language Awareness*" (S. Andrews 2007: 13) as well as in the definition of Language Awareness to be found on the website of the Association for Language Awareness: "We define Language Awareness as explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (ALA 2012).

This repetitive use of the word 'explicit' is indicative of the assumption that, within the framework of second language acquisition, there is a distinction between conscious and unconscious or, put differently, explicit and implicit knowledge about language. Richards and Schmidt define these two terms as follows:

> implicit knowledge also tacit knowledge, intuitive knowledge, knowledge that people can be shown (by their behaviour, their judgements about grammaticality, and so forth) to possess intuitively, but which they are unable to articulate. Implicit knowledge is contrasted with explicit knowledge, which is verbalizable. For example, native speakers of English intuitively know the regularities of article use (when to use the definite, indefinite, or zero article), but they are usually unable to say what any of those principles are. Foreign language learners of English, on the other hand, may have quite a lot of explicit knowledge about the rules for using English articles, while their unmonitored production may reveal that this explicit knowledge has not been internalized (2010: 274).

In Second Language Acquisition, explicit knowledge is, in other words, "the declarative and often anomalous knowledge of the phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic, and sociocritical features of an L2" (R. Ellis 2004: 244). R. Ellis (2004) adds that it is conscious knowledge that can be learned and verbalized.

In practice this means that this knowledge is resorted to when there is a "linguistic difficulty in the use of the second language" (R. Ellis 2004: 245), or, for instance, that a

learner may be able to correct errors by either describing what is wrong or by using appropriate terminology. The latter is referred to as 'metalingual knowledge', which S. Andrews defines as "knowledge of the technical terminology for labeling those linguistic and socio-critical features" (2007: 13). R. Ellis (2005b: 13) also argues that there is a difference between "explicit knowledge as analysed knowledge and as metalingual explanation". Again, the former means that the learner is consciously aware of a structural feature and how it works, whereas the latter entails the knowledge of terminology and the ability to understand explanations of rules (Paradowski 2008).

Metalingual knowledge is often referred to as metalinguistic knowledge but Jessner (2008: 359) warns that these terms are not always synonyms. Berry (2005) uses 'metalingual' to refer to knowledge/awareness of metalanguage and 'metalinguistic' to denote knowledge/awareness of language in general. He goes on to add that in *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* R. Ellis (1994) only uses the term 'metalingual', while Dakowska, in her 1993 article "Language, metalanguage, and language use: A cognitive psycholinguistic view", uses 'metalinguistic' to mean knowledge/awareness of linguistics and 'metalingual', just like R. Ellis, to describe knowledge/awareness of language. Berry (2005) also shows that in Dakowska's taxonomy there is no separate adjective for knowledge/awareness of metalanguage.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990), in focusing on the distinction between declarative (explicit) knowledge and procedural (implicit) knowledge, offer an alternative description of linguistic awareness in cognitive theory by referring to it as "a new schema constructed to link independent schemata in the L1 and L2 that reference the same domain" (1990: 71). In other words, after becoming aware of the fact that the same concept is expressed in different ways in L1 and L2, a person establishes a new schema "that differentiates applications of each language to identical concepts" (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 72).

Explicit knowledge, however, cannot be fully defined or understood without looking at implicit knowledge.

Implicit knowledge, as R. Ellis posits, "is procedural, is held unconsciously and can only be verbalized if it is made explicit. It is accessed rapidly and easily and thus is available for use in rapid, fluent communication" (2005b: 13).

R. Ellis (1994: 355-356) distinguishes between two types of implicit knowledge: formulaic knowledge, which he calls "ready-made chunks of language", and rule-based

knowledge. The latter "consists of generalized and abstract structures which have been internalized".

Interestingly, as R. Ellis (2004: 142-143) argues, irrespective of how (general) linguistic knowledge is defined, it always encompasses implicit knowledge. Most researchers also seem to agree that when a language user communicates confidently and fluently, it is because of implicit knowledge (see, for example, S. Andrews 2007 and R. Ellis 2005), which, consequently, should "be the ultimate goal of any instructional programme" (R. Ellis 2005b: 13).

1.5.2. Distinguishing between explicit and implicit knowledge

To further analyze explicit and implicit knowledge, including the differences between them, it seems relevant to outline the seven ways enumerated by R. Ellis (2005a: 148-151) by means of which a distinction can be made between these two types of knowledge. They include: awareness, type of knowledge, systematicity and certainty of L2 knowledge, accessibility of knowledge, use of L2 knowledge, self-report, and learnability (see Table 1).

Table 1. Distinguishing implicit and explicit knowledge (after R. Ellis 2005a: 151).

Characteristics	Implicit knowledge	Explicit knowledge
Awareness	Intuitive awareness of linguistic norms	Conscious awareness of linguistic norms
Types of knowledge	Procedural knowledge of rules and fragments	Declarative knowledge of grammatical rules and fragments
Systematicity	Variable but systematic knowledge	Anomalous and inconsistent knowledge
Accessibility	Access to knowledge by means of automatic processing	Access to knowledge by means of controlled processing
Use of L2 knowledge	Access to knowledge during fluent performance	Access to knowledge during planning difficulty
Self-report	Nonverbalizable	Verbalizable
Learnability	Potentially only within critical period	Any age

Awareness refers to the ability to either intuitively or consciously recognize sentences as grammatically incorrect (R. Ellis 2005a). Rebuschat and Willliams (2011) call awareness the most commonly used criterion.

There are two types of knowledge – declarative and procedural. While declarative knowledge concerns "consciously known facts, concepts or ideas that can be stored as propositions" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 156), procedural knowledge refers to "knowledge of how to perform an activity, i.e. the "how to" level of knowledge involved in employing a skill" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 460). According to the declarative/procedural model (Ullman 2001), declarative knowledge, which is learned quickly and at least partly available to conscious awareness, is modulated by a variety of factors: molecular factors, variability in the genes for the proteins BDNF (brain derived neurotrophic factor) and APOE (apolipoprotein E), sex, sleep and age (Ullman 2012). On the other hand, procedural knowledge, and skills for that matter, can be processed more rapidly and automatically. Factors that play a role are: the neurotransmitter dopamine, the gene FOXP2 and age (Ullman 2012). As a side note, Ullman's work also shows the neurological differences between declarative and procedural and therefore implicit and explicit knowledge.

Systematicity and the certainty of L2 knowledge pertain to the variability of explicit and implicit knowledge, the latter being more structured than the former (Bowles 2011).

"Implicit knowledge involves automatic processing; explicit knowledge entails controlled processing" (R. Ellis 2005a: 149) but scholars seem to disagree how accessible each type of knowledge is and to what extent explicit knowledge can become fully automatized and therefore equivalent to implicit knowledge.

Use of L2 knowledge relates to the type of knowledge that is accessed depending on the task at hand or the situation a person is in. For instance, learners who have to perform a written error-correction task will draw on analyzed more than on automatic knowledge (Bowles 2011).

Explicit knowledge is verbalizable whereas implicit knowledge is not. In other words, the distinction between these two types of knowledge can be made based on the extent to which a person can (self-)report on the linguistic rules, be it in technical or nontechnical language (R. Ellis 2005a).

Finally, even though R. Ellis states "it can be claimed that explicit knowledge is learnable at any age, whereas implicit knowledge is not" (2005a: 150), he also acknowledges the different stances there are on the extent to which explicit knowledge can be learned.

As much agreement as there is among scholars with reference to the importance of implicit knowledge, there is little, if any, consensus as to how implicit knowledge can be developed (R. Ellis 2004, 2005a) and on the role of explicit knowledge in this process (S. Andrews 2007; R. Ellis 2005a). An indirect outcome of this discrepancy, the relationship between these two types of knowledge seems worth discussing.

1.5.3. The relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge and the role of consciousness

1.5.3.1. The interface hypothesis

The relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge is traditionally discussed in terms of the interface between them. This is often referred to as the 'interface hypothesis' (see, for example, Richards and Schmidt 2010).

R. Ellis (2005a, 2005b) distinguishes three interface positions: the non-interface, strong interface and weak interface position.

As S. Andrews points out (2007), one of the scholars that early on argued in favor of the non-interface position was Stephen Krashen, who used a different taxonomy to describe the two processes involved in developing knowledge of a second language (Krashen 1981). His terms are 'acquisition' (implicit knowledge) and 'learning' (explicit learning). According to Krashen (1981), acquisition is subconscious, resembles the way children learn their first language, calls for meaningful interaction in the target language and focus on the message rather than form. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process and requires error correction and the presentation of rules. Krashen saw no interface between acquisition and learning arguing, for instance, that if learners have explicit knowledge of a rule, meaning that they have learned it and could even quote it, they may not acquire it, that is use it implicitly (Rebuschat and Williams 2012). Krashen's terms are idiosyncratic and may even be seen as inconsistent. After all, acquisition is a process, whereas (implicit) knowledge is usually conceptualized as a state.

The strong interface position assumes that explicit and implicit knowledge can both influence and be converted into each other (Anmar et al. 2010). R. Ellis (2005a: 144) explains that after someone learns a rule and practices applying it, they "can convert it to an implicit representation" without necessarily losing the "original explicit

representation". Advocates of this position, as shown by R. Ellis (2005a) and S. Andrews (2007), include Michael Sharwood Smith (1981), Robert M. DeKeyser (1995) and Keith Johnson (1996).

Finally, according to the weak interface position, as explained by R. Ellis (2005b: 14), "explicit knowledge of a grammatical structure makes it more likely learners will attend to the structure in the input and carry out the cognitive comparison between what they observe in the input and their own output". However, the same author distinguishes between three versions of this position:

- if learners are developmentally ready and practice, they can cause explicit knowledge to convert into implicit knowledge,
- there is an indirect contribution of explicit knowledge to the acquisition of implicit knowledge but only if some of the processes deemed responsible for that are promoted,
- when producing output, learners may use their explicit knowledge. This output then becomes auto-input to "their implicit learning mechanism" (R. Ellis 2005a: 144).

Some of the scholars advocating this position, regardless of its type, have been identified by R. Ellis (2005a) as Rod Ellis himself, Manfred Pienemann (1989) and Nick C. Ellis (1994).

One of the leading scholars excluded from the description so far is psychologist Ellen Bialystok, whose view on the interface between explicit and implicit knowledge has undergone considerable revision as her stance has gone from an interface to a conditioned interface approach (compare Bialystok 1978, 1979 with Bialystok and Sharwood-Smith 1985 and Bialystok 1994). To explain, in her Model of Second Language Learning (Bialystok 1978), explicit and implicit knowledge interface "because formal practising can transfer explicit knowledge which has become automatic into implicit knowledge, and inferencing can transform implicit knowledge into explicit knowledge" (White and Ranta 2002: 263). In her later work and the Analysis/Control framework in particular, however, Bialystok (1994) places explicit and implicit knowledge on a continuum, giving the strong claim that the former type of knowledge cannot be converted into the latter. According to the Analysis/Control model, 'implicit' only refers to the nature of the linguistic representation, which explains why the distinction between linguistic knowledge and the learner's ability to access that knowledge embodies the model (Bialystok and Sharwood-Smith 1985).

Bialystok's claims are reflected in the following definition of explicit/implicit knowledge:

> This is a distinction[6] particularly associated with the work of Bialystok. For Bialystok, when linguistic knowledge is implicit it is unanalysed, i.e. consists of formulas of single words representing whole utterances (see formulaic speech). When linguistic knowledge is explicit, it consists of analysed grammatical and lexical units which can be productively combined to produce novel utterances. However, in Bialystok's approach explicit linguistic knowledge need not be conscious knowledge. The defining characteristic of 'explicit' is that language is represented as analysed components, and these may be stored in areas of the brain not accessible to conscious awareness (Johnson and Johnson 2009a).

Two other authors worth mentioning in the debate on the interface hypothesis are N. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman.

N. Ellis argues that "implicit and explicit knowledge are dissociable but cooperative" (2005: 305). He distinguishes between the mechanisms of conscious and unconscious learning and analyzes how explicit knowledge of form-meaning associations influences implicit language learning, calling the interface dynamic.

N. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006), drawing on work by N. Ellis, conclude that "the search for a structural interface between implicit and explicit language knowledge is as naïve as the search for a single neural locus for consciousness. There is no pineal gland for the interface. Consciousness *is* the interface, and like consciousness, the interface is dynamic: it happens transiently during conscious processing but the influence upon implicit cognition endures thereafter" (2006: 569). In other words, the interface between the implicit and explicit learning occurs through consciousness.

1.5.3.2. Paradis' criticism of N. Ellis, Larsen-Freeman and R. Ellis

Paradis (2004, 2009) takes issue with some of the claims made by N. Ellis, Larsen-Freeman and R. Ellis (see earlier parts of Section 1.5.3).

In discussing what he calls the disintegration of the explicit/implicit interface debate, he summarizes his criticism of N. Ellis and Ellis and Larsen-Freeman as follows:

> Contra the claims of N.C. Ellis (2005) and Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006), […] (1) an interface between explicit metalinguistic knowledge and implicit linguistic competence cannot exist in consciousness (as claimed by these authors); (2) the so-called "dynamic

[6] The distinction between explicit and implicit knowledge.

> interface" is no interface; and (3) an indirect influence, no matter how substantial, is not an interface (Paradis 2009: 61).

Building on his own understanding of the term 'interface'[7], Paradis (2009) sees two possible definitions of the term, one of which allows for a direct interface between two systems, and the other one for an item connecting the two systems to be an interface between them. He concludes, therefore, that neither definition applies to the alleged interface between explicit metalinguistic knowledge and implicit linguistic competence, as they do not share information, exchange data or interact.

In substantiating his claim, Paradis (2009) draws the reader's attention to some of the contradictions made by N. Ellis, who wrote:

- "Explicit knowledge does not become implicit knowledge, nor can it be converted into it" (N. Ellis 2005: 307), which means there is no interface, and
- "However unalike they are, these two types of knowledge interact" (N. Ellis 2005: 307), which calls into question the previous quote.

Also, N. Ellis' transient dynamic interface mentioned earlier seems to refer to "the indirect influence that the resulting knowledge of explicit operations exerts on the development of L2 implicit competence" (Paradis 2009: 67). However, explicit knowledge and implicit competence are used in sequence or in parallel and there is no direct or indirect communication between the two systems, which means they do not interface (Paradis 2009). Furthermore, if a person utilizes metalinguistic knowledge when implicit linguistic competence is unavailable, rather than there being interface, there is simply the use of one system. The exact same argument is used by Paradis (2009) to refute a claim made by N. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006) that if a non-nativelike utterance is produced by a learner, the interlocutor or instructor may draw that learner's attention thereto either by means of one of a wide array of (implicit) error-correction techniques or by means of "explicit instruction, recruiting consciousness to overcome implicit routines that are non-optimal for L2" (N. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman 2006: 571).

Contrary to what N. Ellis claims, consciousness cannot be the interface (Paradis 2009). Since N. Ellis makes the connection to working memory, from which implicit elements are absent, and consciousness cannot be focused on something it cannot 'see',

[7] To Paradis (2009), an interface refers to a point where two systems meet and interact as they affect each other or a link that connects two systems allowing for transmission of information from one system to another.

Paradis (2009) concludes that such information, that is information that cannot be retrieved and reported, is unconscious, making any kind of interface logically impossible. Among many other arguments, or criticisms, concerning both N. Ellis' (2005) and Ellis and Larsen-Freeman's (2006) description of the role of consciousness, Paradis (2009) gives another reason for questioning the validity of the claim that consciousness *is* the interface: if learning is a conscious process, the outcome of which, knowledge, can reach awareness, and acquisition, an unconscious process, whose outcome, competence, is not capable of reaching awareness, then "one of the two members of the interface is excluded from consciousness (Paradis 2009: 75), which means there clearly is no interface.

Finally, Paradis touches upon the issue of an indirect influence being an interface, stating:

> It would be an incongruity to call an indirect influence an interface. If words are to keep their basic meanings, even metaphorically, then an interface must at the very least have a direct connection (2009: 78-79).

Paradis (2004) also criticizes some of the claims made by R. Ellis. For example, Paradis does not agree with R. Ellis' argument that "explicit knowledge can be used automatically and that implicit knowledge can be controlled" (2004: 38), calling it an oxymoron in both cases. It seems important to note that the discussion between Paradis and R. Ellis on the roles of and differences between explicit and implicit knowledge still continues.

Last but not least, by stressing the neurological differences between explicit and implicit knowledge[8], Paradis (2004) clearly calls for a strong non-interface position (see Section 1.5.3.1).

1.5.3.3. Consciousness and consciousness-raising

As discussed in Section 1.5.3.2, Paradis (2004, 2009) emphasizes the role of consciousness in his explanations of how knowledge and competence operate. He argues, among others, that only explicit memories may be accompanied by

[8] Also see a description of Ullman's work and claims in Section 1.5.2.

consciousness and that acquisition "takes place without awareness by an unconscious process of induction that results in implicit competence" (Paradis 2009: 59).

R. Ellis seems to agree with Paradis as he explains that "[u]nderlying the whole question of the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge and how they are internalized is the question of 'consciousness' in language learning" (1994: 361). Various scholars second this view, for instance S. Andrews (2007) and Svalberg (2007).

S. Andrews (2007: 16) quotes R. Ellis as claiming that "whether a person is able to learn a language without consciousness … needs to be considered independently of the kind of knowledge they develop" (R. Ellis 2002: 162), drawing a clear line between explicit versus implicit knowledge and implicit versus explicit learning. Implicit learning is "a process during which participants derive knowledge from a complex, rule-governed stimulus domain without intending to and without becoming aware of the knowledge they have acquired" (Rebuschat and Williams 2012: 829), whereas explicit learning, logically, refers to intentional learning resulting in conscious knowledge.

When analyzing the significance and function of consciousness in second language learning, Schmidt (1990: 131) distinguished three senses of the term: consciousness as awareness, consciousness as intention, and consciousness as knowledge. Another paramount concept in the analysis of any aspect of SLA is that of attention (Schmidt 2001: 3).

Schmidt argues that "in both common usage and theoretical treatments", 'consciousness' is more often than not equal to 'awareness' (1990: 131). He goes on to identify at least three levels of this consciousness as awareness: perception, noticing, and understanding.

'Perception' is important as it "implies mental organization and the ability to create internal representations of external events" (Schmidt 1990: 132). He also stresses that these perceptions may be subliminal rather than conscious.

'Noticing', which Schmidt (1990, 2001) sees as a prerequisite for learning to take place, "does not itself result in acquisition, but it is the essential starting point" (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 44). Richards and Schmidt hence define this noticing hypothesis as "the hypothesis that input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered" (2010: 401).

Much controversy, however, surrounds the significance of noticing both in terms of the extent to which it is necessary for learning (see, for instance, S. Andrews 2007

and R. Ellis 2005a) and regarding the issue whether "learners must be aware that they are 'noticing' something" (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 45).

Nevertheless, Schmidt, operationally defining noticing as "availability for verbal report" (1990: 132), explains that the possible lack of a verbal report may only be seen as indicative of a learner not noticing if it is not gathered during or immediately following the experience. He also stresses there are "conscious experiences that are inherently difficult to describe" (Schmidt 1990: 132).

'Understanding', the third level of consciousness as awareness, "involves conscious analysis and comparison with what has been noticed on previous occasions" (R. Ellis 1994: 361).

The second sense of consciousness is that of consciousness as intention. To explain this, it suffices to illustrate that the practical understanding of a sentence like "I did it consciously" may be "He or she did it intentionally". Ergo, consciousness here carries the meaning of intent.

The notion of attention, described as 'elusive' by Svalberg (2007), is defined as "the ability a person has to concentrate on some things while ignoring others" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 38). Attention is not unitary by nature and consists of different elements, such as alertness, orientation, preconscious awareness, selection, facilitation, and inhibition (Schmidt 2001). Svalberg (2007) points out that despite there being no agreement in literature regarding the meaning of attention, scholars do seem to concur with the idea that attended learning is more productive than learning that takes place when no attention is paid (see also, among others, Schmidt 2001 and S. Andrews 2007). In fact, Leow posits that "cognitive psychology and cognitive science appear to agree that attention to stimuli is needed for long-term memory storage and that little, if any, learning can take place without attention" (2006: 125).

Since more attention leads to more learning, it is axiomatic that the level of consciousness must be raised in order to facilitate this process.

Consciousness raising, also referred to as CR or C-R, is "the drawing of the learner's attention to features of the target language" (Rutherford 1987: 189), which is a more general version of a commonly used definition in which consciousness raising is described as "a deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" (Johnson and Johnson 1999b). In both cases the teacher is responsible for ensuring that consciousness raising, which "is the means to an end, not the end itself" (Rutherford 1987: 104), takes place.

James (1992: 186), however, by defining consciousness of language as "the ability to locate and identify the discrepancy between one's present state of knowledge and a goal state of knowledge", shifts the responsibility at least partly to the learner. It must be added that such a view is rather narrow as it focuses on putting deficiencies right only (see James 1992: 184).

Irrespective of whether the focus is on the teacher or the learner, consciousness raising may be achieved in a variety of ways, one of them being teacher-led or self-developed discovery techniques, in which learners are supposed to find out for themselves how the language works. It is assumed that having to use their reasoning processes makes them more involved in learning (Harmer 2007).

Some practical examples of discovery, or consciousness raising, techniques are problem-solving, different types of matching tasks, comparing and/or observing differences and/or similarities with focus on both form and use, inductive grammar teaching or learning (that is learners inferring the rule from examples, also called implicit teaching or learning), learners detecting connotations and alternative meanings of words or phrases they already are familiar with, learners discovering fixed phrases, and many more.

What all these activities have in common is that by raising the learner's awareness of various linguistic forms and functions, they directly contribute to the development of Language Awareness. On a more theoretical level, knowledge of the role consciousness plays in language learning may also be conducive to a better understanding of the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge.

1.5.3.4. Examples of studies examining the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge

Different scholars have conducted various research projects to look at the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge. Some of these landmark studies are reported and commented on by, among others, R. Ellis (1994, 2005a), Svalberg (2007), and Rebuschat and Williams (2012), and are presented below. Also, Norris and Ortega's meta-analysis of "findings from experimental and quasi-experimental investigations into the effectiveness of L2 instruction published between 1980 and 1998" (2001: 157) scrutinizes this relationship.

R. Ellis (1994: 359-360) enumerates six studies whose aim it was to examine the relationship between learners' explicit and implicit knowledge, specifically focusing on one, a 1992 study by Green and Hecht. They supplied German students of English with a correction task, the twofold aim being for the students to correct the wide array of errors and to state the rules that had been violated. The students were able to give many more corrections than rules but at the same time scored almost 100% on accurate corrections when giving the appropriate rule. One of Green and Hecht's conclusions was that "the learners relied primarily on implicit knowledge, but that the availability of accurate explicit rules facilitated performance of the correction task" (R. Ellis 1994: 359-360).

R. Ellis (2005a: 145-147), in addition to once again exploring Green and Hecht's study, took a close look at three more studies: a 2000 study by Macrory and Stone, a 2002 study by Hu, and a 1995 one by DeKeyser, the first two being correlational in design, while the third one directly examined the interface position.

Macrory and Stone (2000) investigated how much a group of British students knew about the French perfect tense in terms of formulation, actual knowledge tested through a gap-filling exercise, and practical use in oral and written tasks. With the students performing in descending order (the best in part one, the worst in part three), the two scholars concluded that there was little correlation between explicit and implicit knowledge, explaining this disparity by arguing in favor of a different source for either type of knowledge – "instruction about the rule system and routines practiced in class" (R. Ellis 2005a: 146).

Hu's (2002) intention was to examine "to what extent explicit knowledge was available for use in spontaneous writing" (R. Ellis 2005a: 146) among Chinese learners of English by obliging them to do two writing tasks followed by an error correction and rule-verbalization task with a specific focus on six structures before asking them to do another two writing tasks and an error correction. With the students performing better in the second round, a conclusion could be that they resorted to their metalinguistic knowledge more.

DeKeyser (1995) introduced two kinds of rules, simple categorical and fuzzy prototypical, of an artificial grammar in two different ways – implicitly (inductively) and explicitly (deductively). Those that 'learned' deductively were more accurate and did better than those in the inductive condition possibly suggesting that "production is facilitated when learners are taught explicit knowledge about forms and then practice

them" (R. Ellis 2005a: 147). However, the extent to which explicit knowledge could monitor the production task was not clear.

Svalberg (2007: 290), when reporting on various studies that looked at the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge and learning, draws attention to a 1995 study by Robinson, who concluded that learning was more likely to take place when learners arrived at a rule themselves, a 1994 study by Hulstijn and de Graaf as well as a 2003 study by Gass et al., one of the outcomes of both being that students benefit from explicit learning if the rules are more complex, and a 1994 study by Berry, who argued that learners tend to use a combination of explicit and implicit learning.

Rebuschat and Williams (2012), besides describing the aforementioned 1995 study by Robinson, also report on more recent studies, all of which focused on incidental learning conditions: a 2005 study by Robinson, a 2007 study by Cleary and Langley, and a 2008 study by Williams and Kuribura.

Robinson (2005) examined how adult speakers Japanese performed when trained on L2 syntactic rules by first memorizing a number of Samoan words and then being presented with sentences but without ever receiving formal instruction. Next, the participants were expected to understand the meaning of the sentences and answer comprehension questions, after which they were given grammaticality judgment tasks and a guided production one. As their participants were quite accurate, one possible conclusion was that "adult learners can acquire L2 syntactic knowledge incidentally and while processing sentences for meaning" (Rebuschat and Williams 2011: 834).

Williams and Kuribara (2008) investigated participants working on a semi-artificial language consisting of English words and Japanese syntax. The experimental group, who received training, did better than the control group and thus proving that training facilitates performance.

In their study, Cleary and Langley (2007) presented the participants with meaningless word sequences all of which followed the same syntactic pattern. First the participants were exposed to these sequences and then they received a recognition task with three types of sequences (studied strings, critical lures and new strings) through which they rated the likelihood certain items were there before. With participants ranking not only studied strings but also critical lures much higher than new strings, it was clear that even if new sequences followed the same pattern the participants recognized them as familiar, which may lead to the presumption that "incidental

exposure to new word patterns results in knowledge that is, at least partially, independent of the items utilized in training" (Rebuschat and Williams 2012: 835-836).

Finally, Norris and Ortega (2001) argue in favor of explicit learning, providing evidence from a large sample of relevant studies they meta-analyzed.

From most, if not all, of the abovementioned examples it becomes clear that if no appropriate measuring tools are used and/or if measures of awareness are not included, it cannot be clear whether learning in fact results in unconscious knowledge. What they do substantiate, however, is that there is a relationship of some sort between explicit and implicit knowledge.

1.5.3.5. Measuring explicit and implicit knowledge

To measure whether knowledge is implicit (unconscious) or explicit (conscious), several procedures may be employed.

To begin with, researchers can use verbal reports, whose aim it is to require participants to "verbalize any rules they might have noticed while performing on the experimental tasks" (Rebuschat and Willliams 2011: 5). These are mostly retrospective reports, which, as opposed to concurrent reports, are used after training has taken place. "Knowledge is considered to be unconscious when participants show an effect of training (e.g. above-chance performance on a grammaticality judgment task), despite being unable to describe the knowledge that underlies this performance" (Rebuschat and Willliams 2011: 5). This way of measuring implicit and explicit knowledge is sometimes criticized for being incomplete since the inability to verbalize knowledge does not have to mean that the person is not aware of it.

Subjective measures, including confidence ratings and source attribution during, for example, artificial grammar learning, may be seen as an alternative to or a complement of reports (Dienes 2008). Confidence ratings here refer to participants stating how confident they were in their decision, while source attribution is about them indicating what this decision was based on. Sources could include the knowledge of rules, intuition or a simple guess. "Knowledge can be considered unconscious if participants believe to be guessing when their classification performance is significantly above chance" or if their "confidence is unrelated to their accuracy" (Rebuschat and Willliams 2011: 5).

It is clear, however, that these procedures, that is reports and subjective measures, are mainly, if not solely, used to assess participants' explicit and implicit knowledge of grammar rules (see, for instance, an overview of various studies provided by R. Ellis 2004). They are not necessarily employed when measuring other aspects of language (awareness), like the awareness of linguistic varieties. Instead, recognition tasks may be used, including those of the verbal guise type (see Chapter 2 for ways of measuring language attitudes).

1.6. Aims of LA

Knowing all the ins and outs of the notion of Language Awareness, the distinction between explicit and implicit knowledge and learning, and the role of consciousness in Second Language Acquisition, it is worth re-examining and summarizing the aims and goals of LA. The *Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education* enumerates them as follows:

1. To make explicit a student's implicit knowledge of their first language or languages.
2. To develop skills in studying languages.
3. To develop a perception and understanding of the structure, nature and functions of language.
4. To increase effectiveness in communication in the first, second and/or foreign languages.
5. To give insights into the language learning process and thereby to aid the learning of the first language, second language and foreign languages.
6. To develop an understanding of the richness of language variety within the class, school, community, region, nation and world. This may include discussing the variety of spoken and written forms of, for example, Spanish, Chinese, French, English, German throughout the world. This is to mitigate feelings of inferiority amongst those who speak a variety of a language (e.g. English as a second or third language).
7. To foster better relations between ethnic groups by arousing students' awareness of the origins and characteristics of their own language and its place in the world.
8. To help students overcome any feeling of dislocation between the language of the home, the language of the school, of text books and employment.
9. To impart an understanding of the value of language as a crucial part of human life.
10. To develop an understanding of bilingualism and biculturalism in the world. (Baker and Prys Jones 1998: 628, 632).

From these aims, it seems evident that in the case of foreign languages especially, but not exclusively, awareness is raised when different cognitive strategies are employed (Danilewicz 2011). These include, for example, the much discussed noticing (see, for instance, the previous section on consciousness) as well as testing hypotheses, solving problems and restructuring, making LA a process-oriented approach. Put differently, the

aim is to let learners discover, investigate and understand, the underlying principle being that "most learners learn best whilst affectively engaged" (Bolitho et al. 2003: 252). However, this can also be related to teachers and individuals learning their L1 alike. After all, the initial objective of the LA Movement was to "bridge the gap between the mother tongue and foreign languages" (James and Garrett 1991: 3). Also, as early as in 1988, the Kingman Report made different recommendations concerning teachers of English, foreign languages, and other subjects in Great Britain. They recommended, among others, that "English generally and knowledge about language in particular be included in the list of national priority areas" (DES 1988: 70).

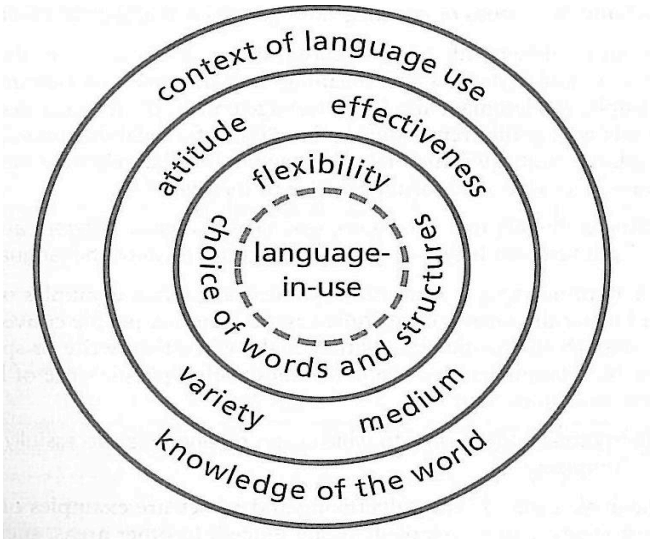

Fig. 1. Basic language awareness features (after Arndt et al. 2000: 19).

To illustrate which particular features of language learners and teachers need to become or be made aware of, Arndt, Harvey and Nuttall (2000: 18-53) introduced a relevant framework (see Fig. 1).

The features presented in this framework are mutually interdependent and may even overlap (Arndt et al. 2000: 19). They explain what it is that determines the choice of language used, the manner the message is conveyed in and the reactions to these choices. To explain, the language one uses first depends on the choice of vocabulary and structures, which, in turn, is governed by how flexible the language is. The variety of forms that are available to a language user along with the medium they choose to use dictate the way a message is put across, a process that is also affected by what kind of attitude this message is to convey. Of importance, the recipient of the message will also

"have an attitude towards, and judge the effectiveness of, the chosen words and structures" (Arndt et al. 2000: 19). Finally, all these choices, reactions and attitudes depend on the context the language is used in and the knowledge of the world the user and recipient possess.

1.7. Conclusion

Developed in the 1980s, Language Awareness, as a movement, was originally introduced in Britain as a bridging subject between English and other subjects, including foreign languages. It has evolved into an approach with the aim to make people sensitive to language, its nature and significance in everyday life. In fact, "language awareness, as an educational goal, holds that it is necessary (or at least useful) at times to focus systematically on language in the […] sense of focal awareness. The two main reasons for this […] are:

- to deal with problems that occur in the language-using process;
- to reach higher levels of understanding and use" (van Lier 1995: 4).

Language awareness, cognitive in nature, has a number of definitions, all of which have the notion of explicit knowledge in common. This knowledge, unlike its unconscious counterpart, that is implicit knowledge, is conscious and verbalizable. Scholars seem to be unsure about the interface between the two. What they do seem to agree on is that explicit and implicit learning play an important role in awareness raising.

Finally, language awareness is sometimes equated with consciousness raising. Though similar in nature, the difference between the two lies in LA being "a learned ability to analyze one's internalized language, be it the L1 or that part of the L2 that one has learned and acquired so far", whereas CR "refers to getting explicit insights into what one does not yet know implicitly of the L2" (Danilewicz 2011: 19).

Chapter 2: Language attitudes

2.1. Introduction

Attitudes have been a focal point of interest of different social sciences, especially social psychology, for nearly a century now. This interest has gone hand in hand with research into how attitudes are formed, maintained, changed but also measured, what their characteristics, applications and implications are, and the relationship between attitudes and behavior.

The result of social experiences, attitudes matter in that they "express our evaluations, influence our perceptions, and guide our behavior" (Crano et al. 2010: 10). By doing so, they may influence what we do and how we feel about people, objects, ideas, events and behaviors. Furthermore, they may also determine our feelings towards language, including language varieties.

Research into language attitudes draws on general attitude theory and research. Like any attitudes, language attitudes pervade our daily lives, can be either overt or unconscious, and may be articulated publicly or not.

To better understand the intricacies of attitudes in general and language attitudes in particular, a close look needs to be taken at the definitions of and other concepts related to these two notions.

This chapter therefore elaborates on some of the aforementioned basic concepts connected with (language) attitudes, such as related terms and definitions, outlines how (language) attitudes can be approached, structured, characterized, and ultimately determined, presents the link between attitudes and behavior, and finally shows how (language) attitudes and attitudes towards language varieties can be measured.

2.2. Basic concepts in research on language attitudes

2.2.1. Definitions

A hypothetical construct "used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour" (Baker 1992: 10), an attitude can be defined as "a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event" (Ajzen 1988: 4) or, in a very similar vein, "a disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to a class of objects" (Garrett et al. 2003: 2-3). By using a pro-con distinction, these definitions highlight the generally accepted evaluative nature of attitudes. Most researchers also seem to agree that even though attitudes cannot be directly observed, they can be measured (see, for instance, Ajzen 1988; Baker 1992; Garrett 2010; and many others).

Some other definitions that support the above claims include two epic ones listed by Garrett (2010), namely one by Allport (1954) – "a learned disposition to think, feel, behave toward a person (or object) in a particular way" – and one by Thurstone (1931: 261) – "affect for or against a psychological object" (Garrett 2010: 19). Also Colin Baker mentions and elaborates on two important working definitions that emphasize the evaluative and measurable nature of attitudes: the aforementioned definition by Ajzen (1988) and one by McGuire (1985), for whom "attitudes locate objects of thought on dimensions of judgement" (Baker 1992: 11).

For Bohner and Wänke, an attitude is "a summary evaluation of an object or thought" (2002: 5), whereby the attitude object, that is what people hold an attitude towards, may refer to anything that can be discriminated or held in mind, and may be concrete or abstract, inanimate or animate, and a person or a group (see, for instance, Maio and Haddock 2010). Similarly, Brehm et al. define an attitude as "a positive, negative, or mixed reaction to a person, object, or idea (2002: 179). Eagly and Chaiken define an attitude as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (1993: 1). Petty et al. (1997) and Garrett et al. (2003) also give testimony to evaluation being at the core of attitudes. All these definitions, although different in terms of semantics and focus, attest to the multilayered nature of attitudes as psychological constructs. What also needs to be stressed is that quite a few of these authors argue for a rather direct relationship between attitude and behavior (Münstermann and van Hout 1988).

However, an important question arises then, especially within the scope of this dissertation: is the notion of attitudes as complex and difficult to define in a language-based context as it is in social psychology?

Richards and Schmidt (2010) define language attitudes as:

> the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other's languages or to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language. Language attitudes may have an effect on second language or foreign language learning. The measurement of language attitudes provides information which is useful in language teaching and language planning (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 314).

While Crystal (1997: 215), similarly to Richards and Schmidt (2010), talks about "the feelings people have about their own language or the language of others", Bradac (1990) focuses more on the speakers and listeners as well as the behavior of the latter by giving the following description of language attitudes: "persons have attitudes toward language which are especially salient and influential in initial interactions. This means that various linguistic features trigger in message recipients beliefs and evaluations regarding message senders, and that these beliefs and evaluations are most likely to affect recipients' behaviours" (Bradac 1990: 388).

Other scholars have also adopted the approach of describing rather than defining the notion of language attitudes (see, for instance, Baker 1996; Edwards 1994; Romaine 1995).

When a closer look is taken at attitudes in general, there are a few unifying concepts: they involve beliefs, feelings and evaluation, they are measureable, they are acquired as part of the process of enculturation, people can have attitudes towards a myriad of aspects or issues, and attitudes directly or indirectly influence behavior.

The considerable common ground notwithstanding, however, it is evident that researchers working in different fields, such as social psychology, linguistics and sociology, approach attitudes from their own perspective making them difficult to define.

2.2.2. Attitudes versus related terms

Another reason for why it is difficult to define attitudes are the different concepts within the field of social psychology that overlap with the notion. These include beliefs, opinions, ideology, habits, values and social stereotypes (Garrett 2010). To the first three, Baker (1992) adds, among others, motive and trait. Different scholars argue that it is both possible and necessary to differentiate between these terms and attitudes in general (see, for instance, Baker 1992; Garrett 2010; McKenzie 2010).

Beliefs, which are arguably cognitive in nature (Garret 2010; McKenzie 2010), differ from attitudes in that they "have a stronger factual support", while the latter are "more deeply embedded in our minds and can be rooted back in our past or in the influence of the modeling example of some significant person around us" (Dörnyei 2005: 214). McKenzie (2010) divides beliefs into descriptive, "which involve perceptions or hypotheses about the world", and prescriptive, which include statements of the should-type (McKenzie 2010: 20).

The notion of beliefs was first introduced by Horwitz, who developed The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to assess what students had to say about different issues and controversies related to language learning (Horwitz 1988). Over a decade later, after reassessing the BALLI, Horwitz called it a useful tool "in the identification of learner beliefs about language learning" (1999: 576), which have the potential to influence the learners' experiences and actions (1999: 558), linking beliefs, again, to attitudes.

Opinions differ from attitudes in that they do not contain affective reaction, are verbalizable, and tend to reflect the preferences and wishes of a community or a group. Attitudes, on the other hand, do convey affective reaction, are dormant and conveyed by non-verbal and verbal processes, and are often seen in relation to other variables (Baker 1992). Garrett calls Baker's distinction useful and methodologically significant as it suggests "that opinions are discursive, while (at least some) attitudes may be harder to formulate" (2010: 32). In other words, since a person's opinion may not reflect their attitude, there is room for interpretation of the results of research into either or into the similarities and differences between both concepts.

Ideology "comprises a patterned but naturalised set of assumptions and values about how the world works, a set which is associated with a particular social or cultural group" (Garrett 2010: 34), making the notion embedded in sociology, while attitude is

key in social psychology. Baker posits that ideology is a global attitude as it "tends to refer to broad perspectives on society – a philosophy of life" (1992: 15), while attitudes are specific to objects, such as a particular language.

Language ideology is, within the field of sociolinguistics, "considered to help to understand the politics of language in specific multilingual contexts and more generally, where there is language variation and language change" (McKenzie 2010: 20). In such a context, it seems evident that strong ideological positions influence language attitudes (Garrett 2010).

Habits "are usually viewed as behavioral routines" (Garrett et al. 2003: 10). The difference between habits and attitudes lies in the fact that the latter can only influence a person's behavior (Bohner and Wänke 2002). Of importance, habits, as behaviors that are performed frequently, occur without awareness and are difficult to control and yet are seen as effective in predicting future behavior (Maio and Haddock 2010). Section 2.2.5 elaborates on the role of habits in determining behavior.

Values are seen as more global and general (Garrett 2010) but also as more abstract (McKenzie 2010) than attitudes, which they outnumber. Olson and Maio (2003), following Rokeach (1973), stress that values play an important role in "driving attitudes" and suggest that "a relatively small set of social values underlie most attitudes" (2003: 308). These may include terminal values, such as equality and wisdom, and instrumental values, such as politeness and ambition. Terminal values are often referred to as end-states and can be achieved by means of instrumental values, which are specific modes of behavior (Robbins and Judge 2011). Values can, therefore, be considered superordinate ideals people strive to achieve.

In the language attitudes field, any value, say a sense of accomplishment, can refer to any underlying language attitude, such as a person's attitude to fully mastering two varieties of the same language.

Stereotypes, or rather social stereotypes, are qualities assigned to certain groups of people within a society. They involve overgeneralization and can be positive or negative (Joans and Hewstone 2001). In a language context, the way a particular group speaks a language or a variety may trigger stereotypical views about individual members of that group. Social stereotypes, which emanate from social psychology rather than linguistic anthropology, differ from the aforementioned (language) ideology in that the latter can influence the former through social learning (Garrett 2010).

Motives, just like attitudes, are latent dispositions (Baker 1992). However, even though both concepts are indeed "manifested in observable responses, motives are goal specific whereas attitudes are only object specific" (McKenzie 2010: 20).

Traits, or rather personality traits, are defined as characteristics that describe an individual's behavior which are exhibited in a large number of situations (Robbins and Judge 2011). As opposed to attitudes, which are directed towards a target and involve an evaluative process, personality traits do not have a target and are not evaluative in nature (Ajzen 1988).

Interestingly, Lalonde and Gardner found that although personality traits did not appear to correlate with language measures, "there were many meaningful relations with measures of attitudes and motivation" (1984: 230).

2.2.3. Two approaches to (language) attitudes

As was mentioned in Section 2.2.1, attitudes in general and language attitudes in particular are difficult to define. One of the main reasons is that two different theoretical approaches underlie studies, especially into the latter.

Fasold (1984) distinguishes a behaviorist and a mentalist view to the study of language attitudes, a stance that is also adopted by other scholars (see, for instance, Appel and Muysken 1987).

The behaviorist approach to attitudes is grounded in the psychological theory of behaviorism, which states that the study of human and animal behavior should be conducted with reference to physical instead of mental processes. Put differently, behaviorists argue that human activity (behavior) is determined (reinforced) by an external event (a stimulus). According to the behaviorist view, attitudes are thus seen as constructs that "can be inferred from the responses an individual makes to social situations" (McKenzie 2010: 21) and are consequently regarded as single units.

Not requiring the same research methods of questionable validity as in the mentalist viewpoint, attitudes of this sort make research easier but have the serious drawback of not being predictors of other behavior. In other words, if attitude is the only dependent variable, and hence becomes the sole determinant of behavior, other factors, such as language background and gender, are ignored even though they may influence an individual's attitude as well (McKenzie 2010). Besides, not all attitudes can be observed since some exist at the level of latent psychological processes (Eagly and Chaiken

1993).

The mentalist, or cognitive, approach to studying attitudes is operationalized within the scope of mentalism, a theory according to which a human being's mind, which has consciousness and ideas, can influence the behavior of the body.

It is argued that the mentalist approach lies at the core of most language-attitude research with an attitude regarded "as a state of readiness, an intervening variable between a stimulus affecting a person and that person's response" (Fasold 1984: 147) or as "an internal, mental state, which may give rise to certain forms of behaviour" (Appel and Muysken 1987: 16).

There is, however, a problem with this approach. If the assumption is that an attitude is an internal mental state of readiness, rather than a response that can be observed, research must depend on self-reports or indirect inference, both of which can be unreliable (Fasold 1984).

Even though these two perspectives differ on many levels, they have certain aspects in common, one being that both consider attitudes to be "learned, particularly over the course of socialisation during childhood and adolescence" (McKenzie 2010: 21).

2.2.4. The structure of attitudes

Not only mentalists but also those that do not explicitly adopt either of the aforementioned approaches to attitudes all seem to agree on attitudes having three attitude components, which are mentalist by nature. This tripartite structure comprises the following three subparts: cognitive, affective, and conative (see, for instance, Fasold 1984; Münstermann and van Hout 1988; Baker 1992; Bohner and Wänke 2002; Garrett et al. 2003).

The cognitive element concerns information, beliefs, thoughts and knowledge "about the world, and the relationships between objects of social significance: e.g. judgements of standard language varieties tending to be associated with high-status jobs" (Garrett 2010: 23).

An attitude is affective if it involves emotional reactions, that is feelings, towards the attitude object. These feelings could range from hate to love of a particular language, a passion for or disgust with Irish poetry, or simply concern a person's anxiety about having to learn a minority language (Baker 1992).

The conative component concerns reactions, actions, and "behavioral tendencies related to the object of the attitude" (McGroarty 1996: 5).

Omdal, by contextualizing these three components, explains: "before a person can react consistently to an object, he or she must know something about it and is then able to evaluate the object positively or negatively; this knowledge and these feelings are usually accompanied by behavioral intentions" (1995: 86). In other words, when a person believes or knows something (the cognitive component), they have some feelings about it (the affective component) and can therefore be expected to act on this basis (the conative component).

The tripartite model is best represented by a theoretical framework (Figure 2) offered by Ladegaard (2000). This framework, the basis for which is presented in an article by Breckler (1984), suggests a useful way for conceptualizing language attitudes in terms of cognitive, affective, and conative elements being hypothetical classes of response to the attitude object.

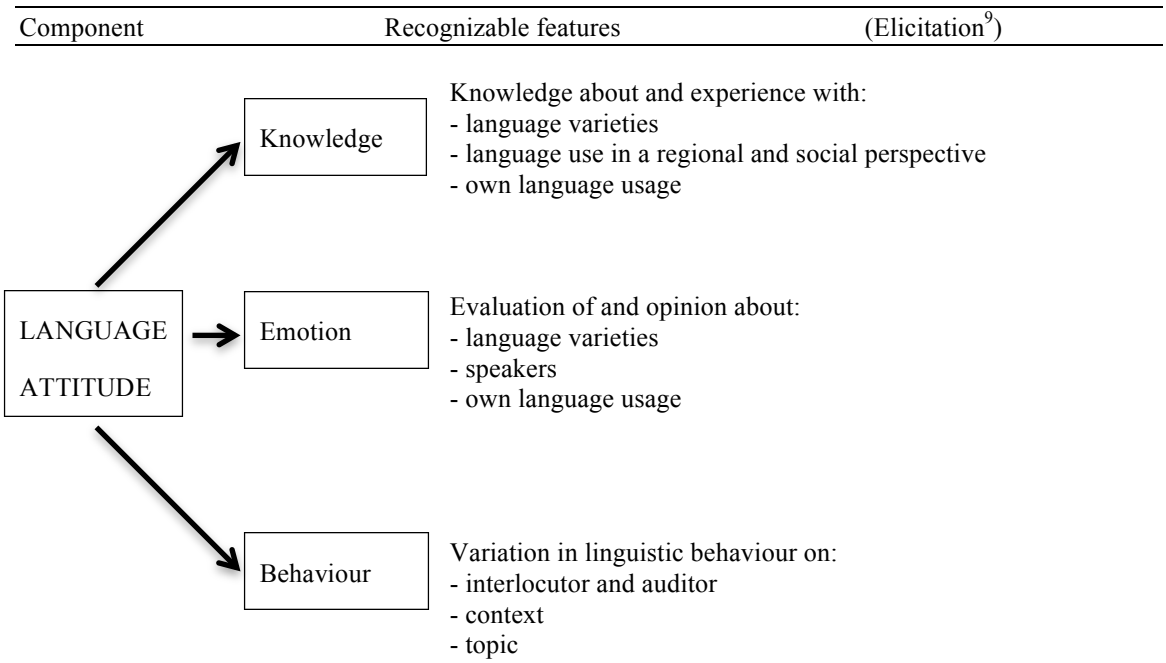

Fig. 2. The three components of attitudes and the recognizable features for each component (after Ladegaard 2000: 216).

"In this model, the three components are defined independently and yet comprise, at a higher level of abstraction, the single construct of attitude" (Ajzen 1988: 20-21),

[9] This part is not given as it concerns information on how the features were elicited in the language attitude experiment conducted by Ladegaard, making it irrelevant to the present dissertation.

with attitudes therefore always being inferred from specific responses to the attitude object. The three components "vary on a common evaluative continuum" (Breckler 1984: 1191), with cognition ranging from favorable to unfavorable, affect from pleasurable to unpleasurable, and behavior from favorable and supportive to unfavorable and hostile (Breckler 1984).

> The empirical implications of the hierarchical attitude model can be stated as follows. Given that the three components reflect the same underlying attitude, they should correlate to some degree with each other. Yet, to the extent that the distinction between cognitive, affective, and conative response categories is of psychological significance, measures of the three components should not be completely redundant. In combination, these expectations imply correlations of moderate magnitude among measures of the three components (Ajzen 1988: 21).

This view is seconded by Breckler, who sees cognition, affect and conation as "distinguishable components of attitudes" (1984: 1203), stressing thus the need to measure them separately.

Bohner and Wänke argue that while on one hand "these three response classes are not necessarily separable from each other and do not necessarily represent three independent factors" (2002: 5), on the other "attitudes may consist entirely of cognitive or of affective components and it is not necessary that all three classes are represented" (2002: 5).

However, there is ample evidence derived from research to validate a more collective approach to measuring attitudes. Erwin (2001), for instance, draws attention to cognition and affect being strongly linked, while Garrett (2010) gives the example of advertising and marketing being heavily based on the assumption that there is congruity between cognition, affect and behavior.

2.2.5. Attitudes and behavior

Although the three components of this triadic model are to at least some extent interconnected, one has generated more controversy and has therefore been studied more extensively than the other two – behavior (Garrett 2010).

2.2.5.1. The link between attitudes and behavior

This cannot be surprising if a closer look is taken at the discrepancy between what common sense tells us and what we can observe in reality. In other words, as rational as it seems to expect attitudes to predict behavior (Coleman 1984), we know from experience that very often they do not. For example, learners of a foreign language may have and express very positive attitudes towards foreign language learning, assessing it as instrumental in finding a good job or travelling abroad, but at the same time they could be underachievers. One such study, by Nikolov (2001), showed that participants who considered themselves to be unsuccessful foreign language learners in fact had positive attitudes toward knowing foreign languages. What they blamed their lack of success on were situation-specific motives, namely their negative experiences in the classroom.

Research into the link between attitudes and behavior dates back to the 1930s. One of the most commonly cited studies is one by LaPiere (see Baker 1992; Garrett 2010; Maio and Haddock 2010), who in 1934 published the results of his research into the attitudes and behavior of restaurant and hotel owners and personnel towards a young Chinese couple. At a time of widespread prejudice towards people from the Far East, he traveled around the United States of America to see whether they would be refused service in any of the 251 restaurants, cafes and hotels they visited. Contrary to expectations, this happened only once. Then LaPiere sent a letter to the same places asking whether they would accept Chinese guests. Replies were received from about half of the establishments, of which over 90% answered the aforementioned question with 'no'. The conclusion was that people's behavior might not be congruent with their attitudes. Despite its many methodological shortcomings, LaPiere's study is seen as an indispensible starting point for any attempt at establishing if and when attitudes do or do not predict behavior.

To follow up on this example, a closer look can be taken at a 1969 review of nearly 40 studies and a 1995 review of 100 studies into attitude-behavior relations. Whereas the conclusion of the former, conducted by Wicker (1969), was that there was little evidence supporting the view that attitudes could predict behavior, the latter, whose author was Kraus (1995), showed a much higher correlation between the two variables. This discrepancy is put down to researchers using more accurate measures, employing better paradigms for checking their predictions, and focusing more on when exactly

attitudes actually can and do predict behavior (see, for instance, Eagly and Chaiken 1993). It is this then that requires further scrutiny.

2.2.5.2. When attitudes predict behavior

When attitudes predict behavior seems to depend on a variety of variables: the correspondence between attitudinal and behavioral measures, the domain of behavior, the function of the attitude, the strength of the attitude, the person, and the situation (Maio and Haddock 2010).

For the correspondence between measures of attitudes and behavior to be high, they need to correspond in four ways: action, target, context and time (Ajzen 1988). In other words, researchers need to make sure that the actions they measure relate directly to the attitudes in question, with an identical target and context, and without too much delay between the assessments of the two measures (Eagly and Chaiken 1993). For example, if we are interested in how our students' attitudes towards autonomous foreign language learning may influence their behavior, the action could refer to students learning vocabulary on their own in their free time, the target would then not refer to learning in general but to the learning of vocabulary in a foreign language specifically, the context would have to refer to autonomous learning at home rather than in the classroom, and there should be very little time difference, if any, between the measures.

The relation between attitudes and behavior also depends on the domain of the behavior since there are certain topics, such as political voting, that generate higher correspondence than others. Blood donation would be a case in point (Maio and Haddock 2010). This is also connected with the function of the attitude, which, in turn, is related to needs. Following the same example, there is more consistency between people's attitudes towards politicians and their voting habits than there is between what people say about how important donating blood is and actual donation. The main reason is the direct and immediate implications in the latter case (Maio and Haddock 2010). These may include lack of time, discomfort and a fear of needles.

Even if two people hold positive, or negative for that matter, attitudes towards the same object, these attitudes may still differ in terms of how strong they actually are. Common sense dictates that strong, rather than weak, attitudes are more likely to be predictors of behavior. This view is supported by research (see, for instance, Bohner and Wänke 2002). Cooke and Sheeran (2004) present seven properties of attitude strength

and describe how they affect behavior. These include: accessibility, temporal stability, direct experience, involvement, certainty, ambivalence and affective-cognitive consistency. One of their conclusions is that "all of the properties, except involvement, moderated attitude–behaviour consistency" (Cooke and Sheeran 2004: 159), confirming at the same time that strong attitudes are indeed better predictors of behavior. Likewise, Holland, Verplanken and van Knippenberg conclude that "strong attitudes predicted behavior whereas weak attitudes did not" (2002: 874).

The two remaining variables are the person and the situation. Research shows that people are more likely to behave in accordance with their attitudes if they exhibit certain personality traits, with behavior of high self-monitors, for instance, being unrelated to their attitudes (Maio and Haddock 2010) and low self-monitors being able to access the attitudes they hold from their memory more easily (Fazio 1990). Also, the same aim of behaving in line with the attitudes is achieved when the situation they are in encourages this consistency (Maio and Haddock 2010). This may depend on variables such as time (pressure) or individual differences (for instance, low or high self-monitoring).

In addition to knowing when attitudes predict behavior, it is important to also be aware of how this happens.

2.2.5.3. How attitudes predict behavior

There are a few theories that have played an instrumental role in explaining attitude-behavior relations, especially from the point of view of how attitudes may predict behavior. These include, among many others, Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975), and its extended version, the theory of planned behavior[10] (Ajzen 1985), Fazio's MODE model (Fazio 1990), and Eagly and Chaiken's composite model (Eagly and Chaiken 1993).

The theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) (see Fig. 3) is defined as "a model whose core assumption is that attitudes toward a given behaviour in combination with subjective norms influence the intention to perform that behaviour, which in turn influences behaviour" (Bohner and and Wänke 2002: 253). In other words, "a person's intention to perform (or not to perform) a behavior is the immediate determinant of that action" (Ajzen 1988: 117). This intention, in turn, is determined by

[10] Both models (that is the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior) are named theories by the authors themselves.

two factors: a personal one, namely the individual's attitude toward the behavior, and one that reflects social influence, that is the subjective norm (Maio and Haddock 2010). The subjective norm refers to perceived normative prescriptions and boils down to whether the individual evaluates a behavior positively and believes others view it as significant, too.

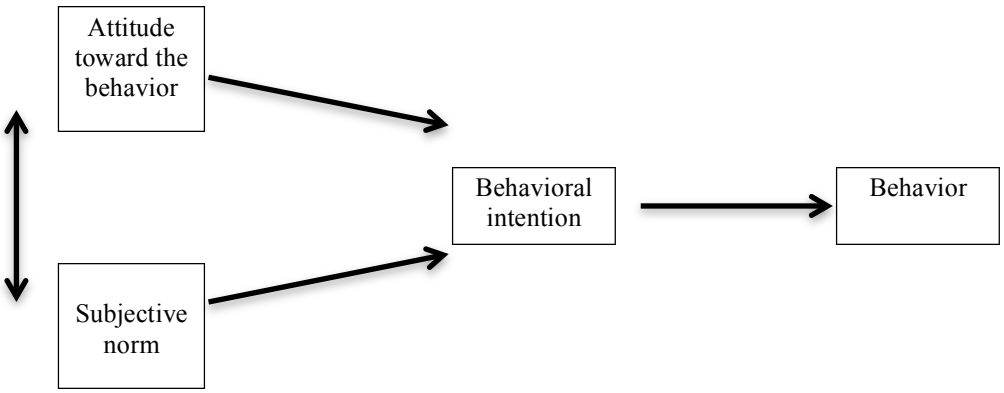

Fig. 3. Theory of reasoned action (after Ajzen 1988: 118).

The theory of reasoned action, however, being only "concerned with the casual antecedents of volitional behavior" (Ajzen 1988: 117) and therefore having a limited scope because it does not take account of behaviors requiring skills, resources or opportunities (Eagly and Chaiken 1993), has a revised version termed the theory of planned behavior (see Fig. 4).

The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1985) acknowledges there being behaviors that are not fully under volitional control. Some of the factors that can influence the degree to which a person can control a behavior include internal ones, such as information, skills, abilities, emotions and compulsions, and external ones, like opportunity and dependence on others (Ajzen 1988). Put differently, a person who intends to perform a behavior may lack the needed information, skills or abilities, be overcome by intense emotions, suffer from stress, have uncontrollable impulsions, lack the opportunity to follow through on an intention, or be dependent on others for the successful performance of the intended behavior (Ajzen 1988).

Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (see Fig. 4) is "the theory that a combination of attitudes, perceived social norms and perceived control influences people's behaviour" (Garrett 2010: 229). An extension of the theory of reasoned action, this

theory adds perceived behavioral control to attitudes and subjective norms as a predictor of behavioral intention and possibly behavior itself (Bohner and Wänke 2002).

According to this model, perceived behavioral control has a two-fold influence on behavior – it has a direct effect on behavioral intentions, which are affected by an individual's confidence in their ability to perform the action, and on behavior, which depends on whether the action can actually be performed as the individual's perception may not be accurate (Ajzen 1988; Maio and Haddock 2010).

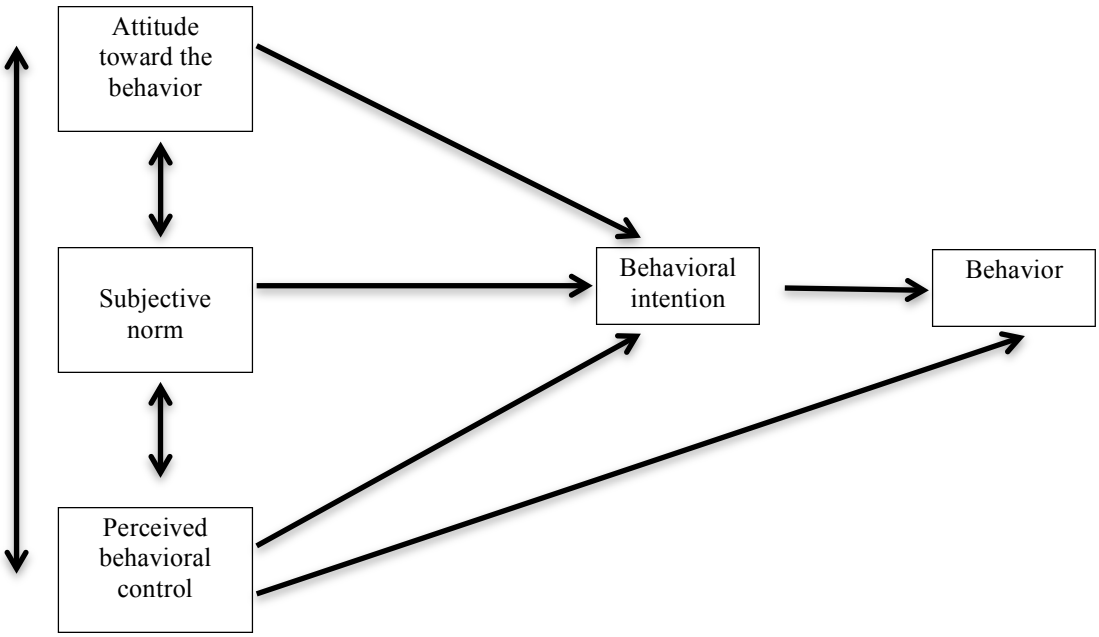

Fig. 4. Theory of planned behavior (after Ajzen 1988: 133).

A substantial number of studies, including of the meta-analysis type, support the two models empirically proving they can be very effective in predicting 'thoughtful' behavior (Maio and Haddock 2010).

Another theory that explains how attitudes can guide behavior is Fazio's MODE model (Fazio 1990; Olson and Fazio 2009). At the core of this model (see Fig. 5), which has been defined in a variety of ways (Eagle and Chaiken 1993), is the idea that there is "some way in which positivity or negativity is linked to some attitude object. The MODE model identifies this link explicitly by defining attitude as an association in memory between an object and one's evaluation of it. The strength of this object-evaluation association has some important implications for attitude-behavior processes" (Olson and Fazio 2009: 20).

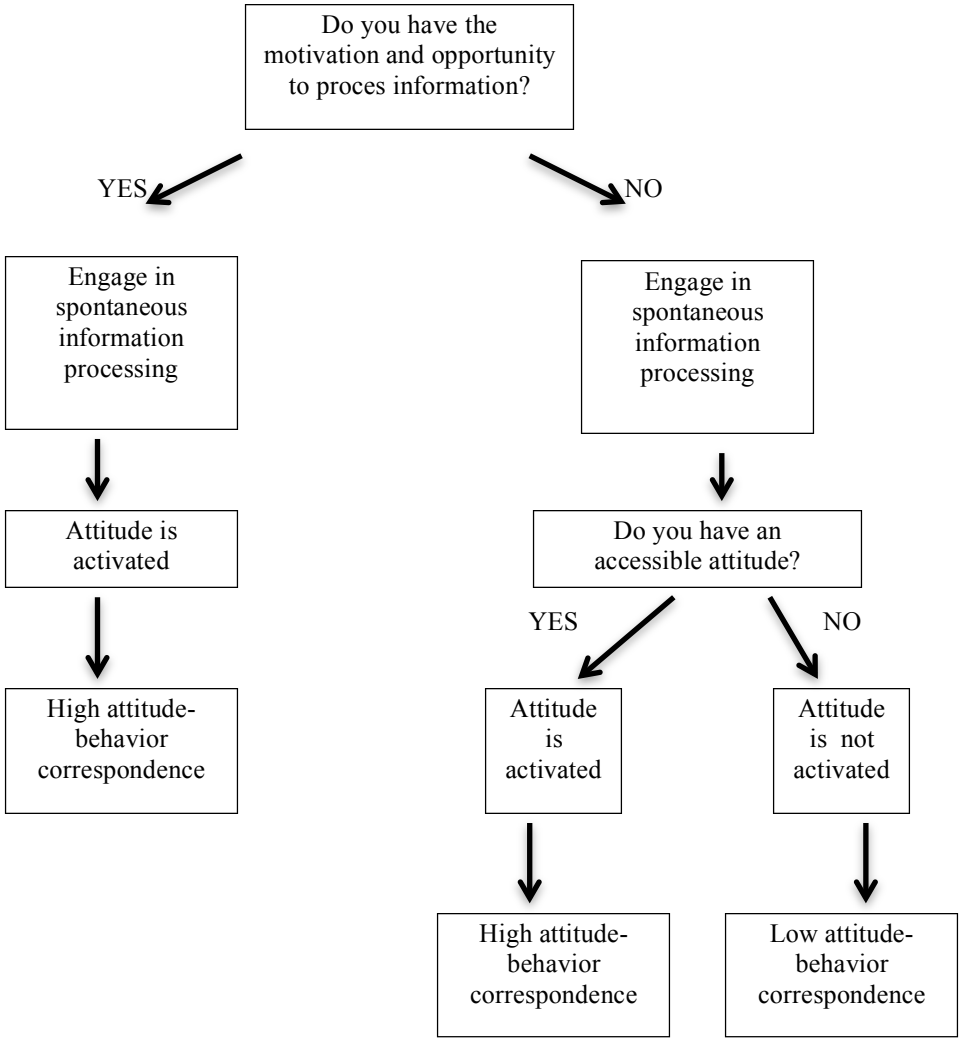

Fig. 5. The MODE model (after Maio and Haddock 2010: 78).[11]

Bohner and Wänke (2002) offer the following definition:

> Proposal that motivation and opportunity determine how attitudes influence behaviour. A core assumption is that attitudes can influence behaviour either via deliberate processing of the attitude's implications for behaviour, or via automatic selective processing of attitude-relevant information, depending on motivation and opportunity (Bohner and Wänke 2002: 252).

Fazio (1990), by explaining what the acronym MODE stands for, gives a very simple illustration of the notion - motivation (M) and opportunity (O) are determinants (DE) of behavior. It is a dual-process model that specifies the two ways in which attitudes may influence behavior: if an individual has the motivation and opportunity

[11] The graphic representation of the MODE model offered by Maio and Haddock (2010) is more transparent than the one offered by Fazio.

needed to make a reasoned decision, they are very likely to behave in accordance with their attitude, making the attitude a good predictor of behavior; if, however, either the motivation or the opportunity is low, "individuals enter a spontaneous mode of information processing" (Maio and Haddock 2010: 78-79). What happens next in the latter situation, according to the model, is that if the attitude is highly accessible and hence becomes activated, the behavior will likely be in line with the attitude but if it is not accessible, the behavior will not be consistent with the attitude. Ergo, the attitude is then unlikely to predict behavior.

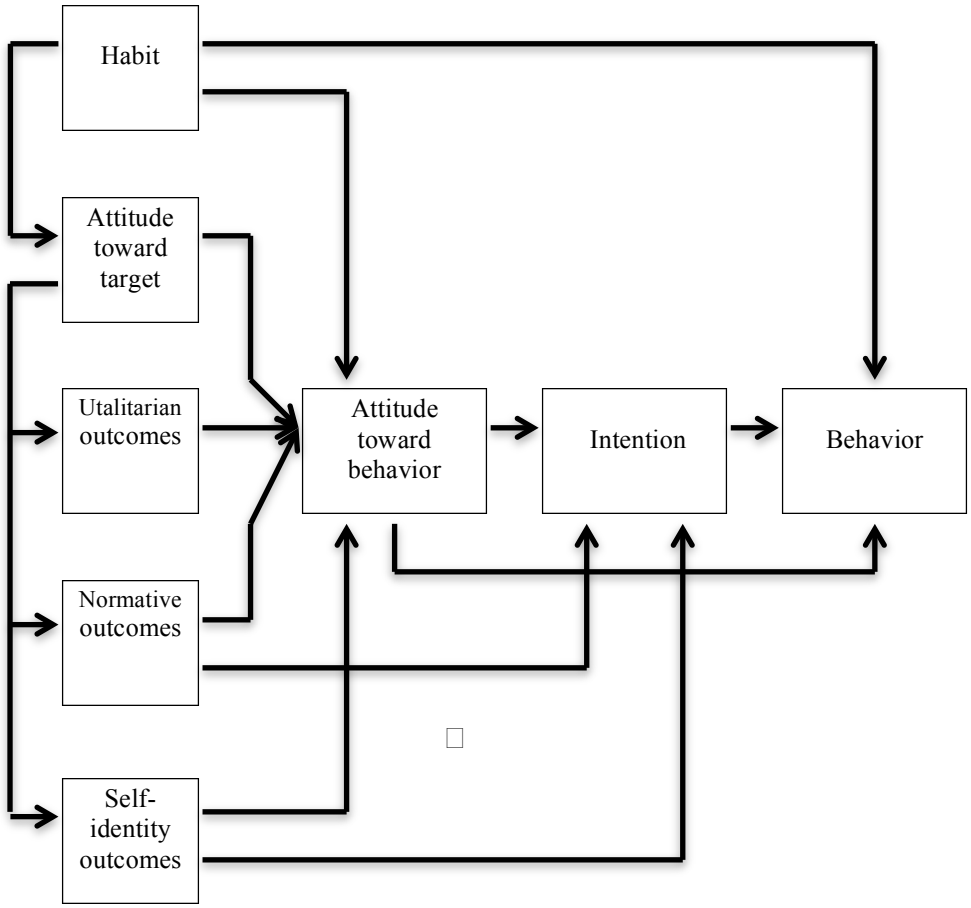

Fig. 6. The composite model of the attitude-behavior relation (after Eagly and Chaiken 1993: 209).

Finally, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) propose a composite model of attitude-behavior relations (see Fig. 6), which states that "behavior originates in the activation of habits, attitudes towards targets, and three classes of anticipated outcomes of behavior (utilitarian, normative, and self-identity)" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993: 209). In this model, habits refer to relevant past behaviors, targets are the targets of the behavior, utilitarian outcomes are the rewards and punishments the individual associates with performing the

behavior, normative outcomes are connected with whether an individual feels their performing an action will meet with the approval or disapproval of others, and self-identity is about "how performing the behavior might influence the self-concept" (Maio and Haddock 2010: 83). Figure 6 clearly shows that all factors can be linked to behavior through attitudes and intentions. However, attitudes can lead to behavior without mediation by intentions. There is also some variation as to how habits, normative and self-identity outcomes can be relevant to behavior. Habits can impact on behavior directly, whereas normative and self-identity outcomes can avoid attitudes by directly influencing intentions, which, in turn, influence behavior. For a more detailed description of the differences between habits and attitudes, see Section 2.2.2.

2.2.6. Other characteristics of (language) attitudes

There seems to be general agreement that "attitudes can function as both input into and output from social action" (Garrett 2010: 21). This is true of attitudes in general, but also language attitudes in particular.

To exemplify within a language context, a person's favorable attitude towards language learning may result in a high level of language achievement. Here, the attitude is input. However, if the opposite happens, that is a person's success in a language course gives a more positive attitude towards the language itself, it takes on an output function (Baker 1992).

As vital as this two-way function of attitudes obviously is for language planners and educationists, "attitudes also play an important role in both the reception and production of language" (Garrett 2010: 21). Language attitudes can impact on how a person reacts to the way other people use language. They can, however, also help predict others' language use, which, in turn, may influence language choices made during communication (Garrett 2010).

Another characteristic of attitudes is of a dual nature, too, as it concerns their stability and durability versus their variability and volatility. Romaine claims "attitudes do not necessarily remain constant over time" (1995: 314). In other words, attitudes, including language attitudes, can both differ in their level of commitment, with some being more superficial and unstable than others. Also, they can be more, or less, enduring (Garrett et al. 2003).

Maio and Haddock (2010) claim attitudes differ in their valence, also referred to as direction, and strength. Valence is explained in terms of people holding positive, neutral or negative attitudes towards different objects. Strength may refer to individual differences. If two people hold negative attitudes towards a certain object, for instance, one may feel more, or less for that matter, strongly about it than the other. To exemplify, two students may both dislike Australian English but one will in fact refuse to listen to or learn it, while the less negative feelings of the other one will allow him or her to tolerate the variety enough to make finding out about it a worthwhile experience.

If the assumption is that attitudes are learned rather than innate (see, for instance, Ajzen 1988; Eagly and Chaiken 1993), it seems important to highlight the main sources of attitudes: observational learning, which refers to observing other people's behavior and its consequences, and instrumental learning, where the focus is on whether the consequences of certain attitudes give rewards or not (Garrett 2010). This being true, parents and teachers, among others, can play an important role in the development of attitudes. Nevertheless, there are also studies that suggest the influence of hereditary factors. Tesser (1993) both reports on studies that provide evidence for the sizable heritability of attitudes and presents data from his own research, claiming they "are consistent with the idea that high heritability attitudes are stronger than low heritability attitudes" (1993: 139). Heritability here means the extent to which genetic individual differences contribute to individual differences in observed behavior (see, for instance, Olson et al. 2001). The researchers Tesser (1993) refers to in his aforementioned article provide evidence that there is genetic contribution to a wide array of attitudes, including the social attitudes of altruism and aggression as well as attitudes towards vocation, alcohol, and jazz, to name but a few. However, as Tesser himself posits, "most theories assume that behavior is relatively plastic and is shaped almost entirely by situational parameters" (1993: 129). This is definitely true of theories propagated by social psychologists, which, as has been mentioned before, lie at the basis of attitudinal studies.

2.2.7. Attitudes to language

Irrespective of the characteristics, Garrett (2010) posits that people can hold attitudes to language at different levels, such as:

- vocabulary, including words and phrases, spelling, pronunciation and accent,
- grammar,

- level of formality,
- punctuation,
- accents,
- code-switching,
- standard versus non-standard varieties (including the process of standardization itself).

Baker and Prys Jones (1998), using other nomenclature, argue that the focal point of an attitude to language could be a specific minority or majority language, language variation, dialect and speech style, language lessons, and learning a new language. Baker (1992) adds cultural associations with a language, bilingualism as a product or a process, language preference, and language policy as objects people can have attitudes towards.

Let us first have a look at vocabulary. Different words and phrases reflect and evoke attitudes. Some examples discussed by Garrett (2010) include names, words used purposefully by politicians, expletives as well as words and phrases used to avoid causing offence.

To elaborate on and exemplify just one of these categories, names can be divided into personal names, those given to companies or organizations, and brand names. As far as personal names are concerned, attitudes can be looked at in the context of preferences for certain names. In the United States of America, for example, the names 'Robert', 'John' and 'James' were consistently listed in the top-ten of given male names for most decades of the previous century (see, for instance, Janssen 2013). The same pattern cannot really be observed for female names, except for the name 'Mary' in the first half of the nineteenth century, leading to the conclusion that in the USA "cultural attitudes lead to a tendency for boys' names to be more enduring" (Garrett 2010: 3).

Apart from words and phrases, people can have very defined feelings towards other aspects of language, such as grammar, level of formality and punctuation as well. Garrett (2010) mentions attitudes towards double negatives, which are stigmatized in Standard English but acceptable in English creoles, colloquial speech, which allows for collocations and forms deemed incorrect in standard languages, and apostrophes, the misuse of which is sometimes judged as annoying, as examples.

Accents can generate both positive and negative attitudes. On one hand, people may hold favorable attitudes towards a native accent, as opposed to a non-native one, even if the non-native speaker outperforms the native speaker in terms of accuracy as well as grammatical and lexical range, causing an immigrant to, for instance, Germany

to feel the desire to make his or her accent more native-like. On the other hand, certain accents, especially regional ones, can be viewed as bad for trade or reasons for dismissals from jobs.

Bilinguals tend to code switch (see, for instance, Baker and Prys Jones 1998 and Edwards 2006). Code switching refers to "a change by a speaker (or writer) from one language or language variety to another one" (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 89). A person can switch to another language or variety within a sentence or in the middle of a conversation. The switch can also take place when a question asked in one language or variety is answered in a different language or variety. Code switching may be seen as a sign of cultural solidarity or personal identity. Attitudes towards code switching can also be connected with people being envious of those that are competent enough in two languages or dialects to be able to switch codes freely. However, if a person who code switches is seen as someone who lacks vocabulary and thus as less educated, attitudes towards code switching will be negative.

According to Ritchie and Bhatia (2006), the attitudes bilinguals or people living in bilingual communities hold towards bilingualism may determine their patterns of language mixing. They distinguish four main types of language-mixing communities: those that have positive conscious and unconscious attitudes and whose pattern of mixing is therefore very high, those that have positive unconscious but negative conscious attitudes and whose pattern of mixing is rather high anyway, those that have negative unconscious attitudes but positive conscious attitudes with a flagged pattern of mixing, and those that have negative conscious and unconscious attitudes with no attempts "made to switch or mix the two linguistic systems" (Ritchie and Bhatia 2006: 349).

"Attitudes to language, positive or negative, are often influenced by the process of standardisation in languages" (Garrett 2010: 7). A language can have a so-called standard variety, for instance Standard German, also known as Hochdeutsch, and Standard Dutch (Standard Dutch language 2013), often referred to as Algemeen Nederlands or Algemeen Beschaafd Nederlands[12], and other varieties, including many local dialects and minority languages, like Spanish in the United States (Baker and Prys Jones 1998). These *other* varieties, or nonstandard forms, are often seen as less correct

[12] Hochdeutsch can be translated as High German, Algemeen Nederlands as General Dutch or as General Netherlandic, and Algemeen Beschaafd Nederlands as General Cultured Dutch or as General Cultured Netherlandic

and their speakers as less educated with the standard variety taken as the right form. Authorities reinforce this – the standard variety is codified in dictionaries and books, and it is used in education, the mass media and public life (Coupland 2009). As a result, one would expect more positive attitudes towards standard varieties and more negative ones to nonstandard varieties. This is confirmed by research (see, for instance, Jarvella et. al 2001).

People can also hold attitudes about language teachers' teaching styles, their approaches to the teaching of grammar and vocabulary, how they assess their students, what kind of classroom environment the language lessons take place in, how important or unimportant learning a second language is, and the like (Baker and Prys Jones 1998).

Last but not least, language attitudes may be connected with how learners see the speakers of that language. After all, the learners' success at incorporating aspects of the language they are learning is likely to be influenced by their attitudes toward the specific language group (Gardner 1985).

To take that a step further, Baker and Prys Jones (1998) divide language attitudes into integrative and instrumental. By doing so, they follow the classic division of motivation among language learners, treating these two constructs, attitudes and motivation, as synonyms. Yet, with attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers being one of the six main motivational influences (Dörnyei 2005), this indubitably confounds expectations. An integrative language attitude therefore refers to learners admiring the culture and people of the target language community and, possibly, wanting to integrate into that culture. They also tend to be positive about the learning situation itself (Masgoret and Gardner 2003). A person with an instrumental language attitude, on the other hand, sees the language as an instrument in finding an appropriate job, doing better in exams, furthering their career, and such like (Harmer 2007).

2.2.8. Determinants of and influences on (language) attitudes

Maio and Haddock (2010) posit there are cognitive, affective and behavioral influences on attitudes in general. Knops and van Hout (1988) focus specifically on language attitudes and state that these may be determined by linguistic, social and situational characteristics. To that list they add "factors accounting for changes in language attitudes" (Knops and van Hout 1988: 9). Baker (1992) enumerates age, gender, school, ability, language and cultural background as determinants of attitude to a language.

With respect to cognitive influences, Maio and Haddock (2010) stress "the importance of understanding motivations to accept new beliefs about an attitude object, the stages through which we respond to persuasive information, the extent to which we think about persuasive information, differences in the type of information we consider, and our own beliefs about the types of information we are using" (2010: 89). Each of these variables influences how attitudes are shaped or changed.

On the level of affect, attitudes can also be influenced by "pairing objects or behaviors with emotional experiences and subtle rewards and punishments, even when the associations are formed merely by observing another individual" (Maio and Haddock 2010: 128). In addition, they stress how moods, be it positive or negative ones, and emotions, such as happiness, anger, fear and surprise, can shape attitudes.

Behavioral influences are closely connected with cognitive and affective processes in that behaviors work, according to the theory of self-perception and the theory of cognitive dissonance, "by shaping beliefs and feelings relevant to our attitude" (Maio and Haddock 2010: 131). Whereas self-perception theory states a person uses their actions, that is behavior, and the environment these actions occur in to 'guess' their attitudes, cognitive dissonance theory suggests a person may experience an uncomfortable tension, that is dissonance, when they feel they have a set of two or more beliefs that do not go together. One of them is often the result of this person behaving inconsistently with a previously held attitude and therefore changing or adapting this attitude to explain the behavior (Maio and Haddock 2010).

Knops and van Hout (1988) name variations at a macro level, such as dialects and accents, as well as variations at a micro level, such as pronunciation, grammatical patterns and lexical choices, to explain the linguistic determinants of language attitudes. The second category they list, namely social determinants, refers to ethnic and regional groups, socio-economic status, sex and age, while situational determinants may relate to either the immediate situation, meaning how appropriate certain language may be in a particular situation, or "the larger socio-cultural background in which language attitudes develop" (Knops and van Hout 1988: 12). The latter involves demographic strength, institutional support and economic, political, socio-historical and linguistic prestige. Finally, Knops and van Hout (1988) mention determinants of attitude change, concentrating on how the language a person uses may help them be seen as more or less persuasive on one hand and on how individual factors, including the amount of exposure to a certain variety, on the other.

The typology offered by Baker (1992) – age, gender, school, ability, language and cultural background – seems self-explanatory by reason of attitudes either declining or increasing depending on how old or what gender a respondent is, for instance. However, it seems at least debatable that a difference between or change in attitudes can be biological or maturational. Instead, it could be argued that the socialization process, along with accompaniments such as relationships and to what extent somebody is influenced by mass media, lies at the core of the aforementioned differences and changes, making age and gender merely indicators (Baker 1992). As for the remaining four determinants, Baker (1992) explains that the educational context, including the attitudes conveyed at school, a person's ability in a language, the language(s) and varieties that person has been exposed to and the cultural activities he or she has been involved in may all influence attitudes, making them either more or less favorable. Again, not everything is as straightforward as it may seem though because the cause-effect relationship often remains unclear. As an exemplification, it is uncertain whether favorable attitudes give higher achievement or whether the opposite is true (Baker 1992).

Regardless of what influences and/or determines attitudes, what they all have in common is that they can be measured in a variety of ways.

2.3. Measuring (language) attitudes

2.3.1. General overview

Measurement refers to the "assignment of numbers to objects according to rules in such a way that properties of the numbers reflect certain relations of the objects to each other" (Bohner and Wänke 2002: 19) on the attribute that is measured, such as language attitudes. Traditionally, in psychology there have been two main traditions of measurement: psychophysical, which is about "mapping a psychological judgment dimension (e.g. loudness) onto the different physical values of a stimulus attribute (e.g. sound pressure) (Eagly and Chaiken 1993: 29), and psychometric, in which "the attributes measured (e.g. intelligence) usually have no physical stimulus counterpart" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993: 29). Both these approaches have had an impact on the way attitudes, including language attitudes, are assessed.

Miłobóg and Garrett (2011), drawing on earlier work by Garrett (for instance Garrett et al. 2003), identify three main approaches to researching or measuring language attitudes, that is:

- analysis of the social treatment;
- direct measures;
- indirect measures.

2.3.2. Analysis of societal treatment

The analysis of the social treatment of language varieties, also known as content analysis (Knops and van Hout 1988), "refers to a broad category of language attitude studies where autobiographical, observational, ethnographic and historiographic methods are used" (Knops and van Hout 1988: 6). Other sources include documents from the public domain, such as those dealing with governmental and educational language-policy.

As analysis of societal treatment involves scrutiny of, for instance, media treatment and policy documents (Bohner and Wänke 2002), it can allow researchers to gain a better understanding of "the social meanings and stereotypical associations of languages and language varieties" (Garrett 2010: 51), making societal treatment studies valuable.

Garrett (2010) describes three studies that employed content analysis measurement. In one, by Schmied (1991), the focus was on letters sent to the editors of African newspapers through which he wanted to examine the attitudes towards English across many African contexts. In another, by Kramarae (1982), the aim was to research "beliefs about gender-related differences by analysing publicly available literature and documentation of various kinds" (Garrett 2010: 48), including historical records. The third study, another one by Kramarae (1974), looked at how females and males were depicted through their speech in contemporary magazine cartoons.

Knops and van Hout (1988) argue that content analysis seems more useful when the researcher is limited by time or space, and thus has no direct access to the respondents or has to work in unnatural conditions. Garrett (2010), however, disagrees claiming the approach is perfectly suitable in other circumstances as well.

2.3.3. Direct measures

Direct measures, whose aim it is to ask about attitudes explicitly, include, for instance, questionnaires and interviews (Miłobóg and Garrett 2011), as well as the semantic differential technique and a number of other scales (Baker 1992).

The difference between direct measures and analysis of the social treatment of language varieties lies in the former not requiring the investigator to infer attitudes from observed or analyzed behavior. Instead, the participants are urged to do so (Knop and van Hout 1988).

Questionnaires and their oral counterparts, interviews, allow for overt elicitation of attitudes by asking respondents direct questions about their attitudes. These questions could be either closed, that is of the 'yes/no' type, or open, such as any 'wh'-question. Within a linguistic context, examples of the former could be questions like: Do you think minority languages should be taught in public schools? An example of an open question could be: How would you feel if all the signs were in two languages, yours and English?

There are also a number of scales that can be employed within the scope of direct methods of attitude measurement. These can be single-item or multi-item measures (Ajzen 1988; Bohner and Wänke 2002).

In the domain of language attitudes, a single item could involve, for instance, a 10-point scale from "I favor" to "I oppose" to obtain measures of attitudes towards the use of a minority language among a mother and her children in public places. Another example would be the use of a 5-point scale from "I agree" to "I disagree" preceded by the statement "Ebonics sounds like bad English" to assess attitudes towards African American Vernacular English.

Multi-item measures include, among others, the semantic differential, the Likert scaling, Thurstone's judgment technique and Guttman's Scalogram (see, for instance, Baker 1992).

The semantic differential, which measures respondents' attitudes or feelings about words and is of psychometric heritage, uses a rating scale with pairs of bi-polar evaluative adjectives (Richards and Schmidt 2010). Each pair, such as pleasant-unpleasant and beautiful-ugly, is placed on opposite ends of the scale, "and respondents are asked to mark each scale as it best reflects their evaluation of the attitude object" (Ajzen 1988: 10). This technique has the advantage of making it easy for investigators to

obtain an attitudinal index and enabling them to compare attitudes towards different objects.

Punch (2005) gives the following brief description of the three scaling techniques presented above:

> Thurstone's technique was called the 'equal appearing interval scale'. Recognizing that different attitude items fall at different points at a unidimensional attitude continuum, he devised a method of calculating the scale value of each attitude item, and then used those scale values to scale people with respect to the attitude. Guttman […] proposed a form of scaling whereby the ordering of items according to their attitude content could be used, in conjunction with a dichotomous response format, to determine the location of people along the attitude continuum. This method came to be called 'cumulative scaling'. […] Likert proposed a simpler format, whereby a respondent would respond to each item according to a simple response scale, rather than a dichotomy, and the responses to the items could be summed. This method is called the 'method of summated ratings' " (2005: 91).

Of the three scales, the Likert method, which is psychometric by nature and typically operationalized on a continuum from 'strongly agree' through 'agree', 'undecided', 'disagree' to 'strongly disagree', has become the most commonly used form of attitude measurement.

Garrett (2010) summarizes the problems that may occur when formulating questions the respondents are asked through direct measures. These difficulties, most of which touch upon the issue of validity and reliability[13], include:

- asking hypothetical questions, as the use of 'would' makes the attitude a poor indicator of future behavior,
- asking strongly slanted questions, as 'loaded' words or context push the respondent towards a specific answer,
- asking multiple questions, which makes interpretation difficult as the obtained attitude may refer to one or different parts of the question,
- social desirability bias, which refers to respondents giving answers they believe to be appropriate, the result being that the expressed attitudes are actually not theirs,
- acquiescence bias, which means that some respondents tend to agree with the items, regardless of the content,
- characteristics of the researchers, which is quite self-explanatory as it implies respondents may be affected by the age, sex, ethnicity and other characteristics of the researcher.

[13] The two criteria and some of the problems are discussed in Section 2.3.5.

2.3.4. Indirect measures – matched and verbal guise studies

"As an alternative to direct questions, attitudes may be inferred from other cues" (Bohner and Wänke 2002: 19). This type is collectively referred to as indirect measures as they investigate particular attitudes of participants without them being aware of it. Indirect measures are sometimes referred to as the 'speaker-evaluation paradigm' (Garrett et al. 2003).

In attitude research in general, different techniques are labeled indirect, however, within language attitude research, mainly two indirect measures are used: the matched guise technique (Ó Riagáin 2008) and the verbal guise technique (Garrett 2010).

In matched guise studies, a recording is used of a speaker reading the same text at least twice in such a way that all the readings differ from each other in one respect (Knops and van Hout 1988). Put differently, the speaker reads in guises (Richards and Schmidt 2010). To exemplify, a speaker who is fluent in Standard German as well as one of its dialects, say Central Austro-Bavarian, reads the same text in both varieties. The respondents are unaware that both texts are read by the same person and indeed are told that they are listening to different speakers. They then rate the speaker or speakers on an attitude rating scale. "The reactions of the listeners to the speakers in one guise are compared to reactions to the other guise to reveal attitudes towards different language or dialect groups, whose members may be considered more or less intelligent, friendly, co-operative, reliable, etc." (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 353). One of the basic assumptions must be that "the deception lasts for the duration of the evaluation task" (Garrett 2010: 41) and that even though the respondents may become aware that they are involved in an attitude rating task, they do not know what exactly is being measured.

The matched guise technique, as initially introduced by Lambert et al. in 1960, consists of an independent variable (for instance, 4 bilingual speakers read a passage once in English and once in French, giving a total of 8 passages) and a dependent variable (for example, height, good looks, leadership, sense of humor, intelligence, religiousness, self-confidence, dependability, entertaining, kindness, ambitious, sociable, character, likeability).

The verbal guise technique differs in that various speakers are used for the recordings. This method is especially useful when it is difficult or even impossible to find a sufficient number of fully bilingual or bidialectal speakers (Knops and Hagen 1989). An example of such a verbal guise test can be found on the website of the Faculty

of Humanities of the University of Manchester at http://media.humanities.manchester.ac.uk/humanities/flash/sociolinguistics/exercise03/exercise03.html.

Garrett (2010) summarizes the advantages and disadvantages of the matched guise technique and its variation, the verbal guise technique.

The strengths of the technique are:

- the nature of these indirect methods allows them to better elicit people's private attitudes as they reduce the possibility for societal desirability,
- the matched and verbal guise techniques have been used in a multitude of international, multilingual and multiethnic studies, making it possible to compare findings,
- the use of these two methods has contributed to the establishment of the main dimensions of language evaluations, the sociolinguistic understanding of language variation, and research at the interface of sociolinguistics and the social psychology of language,
- "it has led to a detailed demonstration of the role of language code and style choice in impression formation" (Garrett 2010: 57).

The minuses concern the vocal representations of the language varieties and are expressed through questions of salience, perception, accent-authenticity, mimicking-authenticity, community-authenticity, style-authenticity, and neutrality (Garrett 2010).

The issue of salience refers to language variations becoming exaggerated because of the repetitive nature of the technique and therefore more salient than outside the experimental environment. The problem of perception is of a twofold nature: nonstandard accent may be misperceived as bad language use and respondents may perceive a given variety as representing a different area than the one the researcher has in mind. The four questions of authenticity refer to features such as intonation and speech rate co-varying with accent varieties and therefore raising doubts as to the authenticity of the accent, speakers being unable to mimic the different varieties, labels used for the audio-recorded varieties not being specific enough, and style implications being ignored or overlooked in the preparation of speech samples. The neutrality question can be explained in terms of the limiting nature of factually neutral texts often employed in studies of attitudes (Garrett 2010).

2.3.5. Criteria, problems and solutions

Regardless of the nature or division of the measures, they must meet two different criteria: reliability and validity (Bohner and Wänke 2002). Just like in the case of any tests, reliability, which can also be called consistency, means that the instrument should repeatedly yield consistent scores or values, whereas validity refers to the instrument actually measuring the attitude that it is supposed to measure, not something else. Baker (1992) adds a third criterion, namely dimensionality, which refers to the possibility that the attitudes scales used by the researcher may measure one or more entities.

Nevertheless, even if the measurement of a group's or individual's attitudes, be it direct, indirect or within the scope of content treatment, is valid and reliable, it is likely not to reveal their attitudes perfectly (Baker 1992). Baker enumerates the three main reasons for this:

> 1) People may respond to an attitude test in a way that makes them appear more prestigious, more good than in reality. […]
> 2) People may be affected in their response to an attitude test by the researcher and the perceived purpose of the research. […]
> 3) A good attitude test needs to encompass the full range of issues and ideas involved in the topic. […] (1992: 19).

Since no method is exhaustive (Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain 2009), the answer to all of the aforementioned problems (see also Section 2.3.3) may lie in the application of a multiple-method approach to studying attitudes (Garret 2010). Such an approach builds on methods complementing each other and may thus verify the results of the individual measures.

2.4. Conclusion

Attitudes and, by extension, language attitudes are "latent, hypothetical dispositions that are inferred from a variety of observable responses" (Ajzen 1988: 23). These responses, which can be verbal or non-verbal, can be measured in a variety of ways, ranging from analysis of the social treatment, through direct to indirect methods. The aim of the study of language attitudes is to discover what attitudes individuals or groups hold, what effects these attitudes may have, and what they are determined by.

As such, language attitudes, which can be cognitive, affective and conative in nature and may be held towards a wide array of language aspects, may be seen as "a backdrop for explaining linguistic variation and change" (Garrett et al. 2003: 11). In fact,

> attitudes to language varieties underpin all manner of sociolinguistic and social psychological phenomena: for example, the group stereotypes by which we judge other individuals, how we position ourselves within social groups other than our own. There may be behavioural consequences, in the short- and long-run, and serious experiential outcomes (Garrett et al. 2003: 11-12).

It is clear then that among the many aspects of language people might hold attitudes about, like grammar, pronunciation or even language lessons, attitudes may also refer to language varieties. Two such varieties of Dutch are Belgian Dutch, or Flemish, and Netherlandic Dutch, both the focal point of the present study.

However, the question then arises: why do language attitudes need to be studied, especially in the context of language varieties, such as Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch? Zhang and Hu (2008) provide an answer.

> Knowing learners' attitudes to a language is valuable in language education and language-related policymaking. Research has shown that the 'standard' varieties of English generally receive more favourable evaluations from non-native speakers (NNSs) than the 'non-standard' varieties, and that NNSs can be more accurate in identifying the prestigious varieties of English – i.e. US English (AmE) and British English (BrE) – than less prestigious varieties (Zhang and Hu 2008: 342).

Since the language varieties learners are likely to be exposed to more, that is the standard varieties, receive more favorable evaluations, and attitudes towards language are generally often influenced by the process of standardization in languages (Garrett 2010), it indeed seems obvious that learners' attitudes should determine how language learners are educated. Besides, the amount of exposure learners have to a given language, be it the standard or the sub-standard variety, seems to play a crucial role in shaping these attitudes. All this legitimates the present study into attitudes towards two varieties of Dutch: (Standard) Netherlandic Dutch, originally the standard variety, and (Standard) Belgian Dutch, initially the sub-standard variety. This is reinforced by Dutch being viewed more as a "pluricentric language with two centres of standardization" (Vanderkerckhove 2005: 394). De facto, the very fact that, despite their common origin, these two standards differ substantially from each other should, by definition, generate

dissimilar attitudes. After all, “language variation carries social meanings and so can bring very different attitudinal reactions, or even social disadvantage or advantage” (Garrett 2010: 2).

Chapter 3: Netherlandic versus Belgian Dutch

3.1. Introduction

Dutch, a West-Germanic language, is spoken by approximately 23 million people, of whom 16 million live in the Netherlands, 6 million in Belgium and 1 million in the remaining 4 countries in which Dutch is an official language, that is Suriname, Aruba, Curaçao and Saint Martin (Facts and figures 2013).

In Europe, Dutch is the language of all of the Netherlands and the northern part of Belgium, called Flanders (see Fig. 7). It needs to be added that both the Dutch region of Frisia and the Belgian Brussels-Capital Region are bilingual, the two official languages in the former being Dutch and Frisian, while in the latter (Belgian) Dutch and French. There are also a few exceptions, the most notable one being the French town Bailleul (Belle in Dutch), in which Dutch is even used at school (Willemyns 2003).

It is often said that since the Flemish and the Dutch speak Dutch differently, they in fact speak two different languages – Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch, which is also referred to as Flemish. Linguists, however, argue they are not necessarily two separate languages but rather two variants – a Netherlandic and a Belgian variant – of the same language, Dutch (Geeraerts 2001). De Caluwe takes it a step further and calls Dutch "a pluricentric language with Dutch Dutch as the dominant variety and Belgian Dutch in the non-dominant position" (2013: 45).

For the purpose of clarity, therefore, Belgian Dutch, or Flemish, here refers to any variant of Dutch that is spoken in Flanders, including, *Schoon Vlaams*, which can be translated as clean or pure Flemish.

Schoon Vlaams is also called *tussentaal*, which, in turn, can be literally translated as intermediate language but in literature it is sometimes referred to as interlanguage (see, for instance, de Caluwe 2004). Jaspers (2001) calls this interlanguage a Flemish substandard variety. "From a structural perspective, it is situated in between the standard variety and the Brabantic dialects of Northern Belgium" (Vandekerckhove 2007: 189).

Fig. 7. The Dutch language area (after Vandeputte 1994: back cover).

There is a difference between a language and a dialect. Nortier (2009) states that even though the generally accepted view that a language, unlike a dialect, has a written form, is standardized, and has a written literary tradition is true to a large extent, it does not always reflect reality. She gives the examples of Berber and Limburgish, among others, to prove her point. Yet, these can also be seen as exceptions to the rule. A stable difference between a language and a dialect is that languages have dialects but dialects do not have languages (Nortier 2009). Sometimes it is also difficult to state when one dialect ends and another one begins (Cornips 2012).

The prevailing attitude towards *Schoon Vlaams* is negative, which is reflected in two terms used by van Istendael (1989) and Geeraerts (2001) as synonyms, namely *verkavelingsvlaams* 'subdivision Flemish' and *soap-Vlaams* 'soap-Flemish' respectively. Furthermore, van Istendael (1989: 108-109) calls it *iets vuils, het is een taal die uit angst voor dialect en uit angst voor het Nederlands is geboren, die taal van de Vaamse intellectuele luiheid* 'something dirty, it is a language that was born out of fear for dialects and out of fear for the Dutch language, that language of Flemish intellectual laziness'.

However, Geeraerts (2001) and Jaspers (2001) talk about a *zondagspakmentaliteit* 'Sunday-suit mentality' among the Flemish, a term that can be interpreted as follows. Just like that suit worn on Sundays, the language norm in Belgium, standard Belgian Dutch, does not feel comfortable to a large number of the Flemish even though they are aware of its importance. This illustrates how important a role the Flemish intermediate language plays in the linguistic landscape of Flanders. In fact, Grondelaers et al. claim *tussentaal* "may one day become the new standard of Belgian Dutch" (2011: 217).

Geeraerts (2001) hence distinguishes three layers within Belgian Dutch, namely VRT-Dutch, the previously mentioned *tussentaal* and Flemish dialects. VRT stands for *Vlaamse Radio-en Televisieomroeporganisatie* 'Flemish Radio and Television Broadcasting Organization', which implies that VRT-Dutch is the language used by journalists, newsreaders, radio hosts and TV presenters.

Netherlandic Dutch, on the other hand, does not have such an intermediate language. It does, however, distinguish between standard language, informal spoken language, and, as in the case of Belgian Dutch, dialects.

The relations between and within Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch are shown in Fig. 8.

Among others, this figure shows that the distance in language between the standard variety and the spoken variety is much smaller in Netherlandic Dutch. Geeraerts (2001) gives the example of news programs and the Big Brother programs, claiming the difference in language between those programs is much bigger in Flanders than it is in the Netherlands. Also Grondelaers et al. claim that studies conducted in the 1990s "confirmed the alleged diachronic convergence between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch from 1950 and 1990, as well as the larger distance traditionally assumed between standard and substandard language in Belgian Dutch" (2001: 179) than in Netherlandic Dutch. This stance was confirmed by some of their own findings. They warn, however, against drawing definite conclusions from their data as more research into the matter is required.

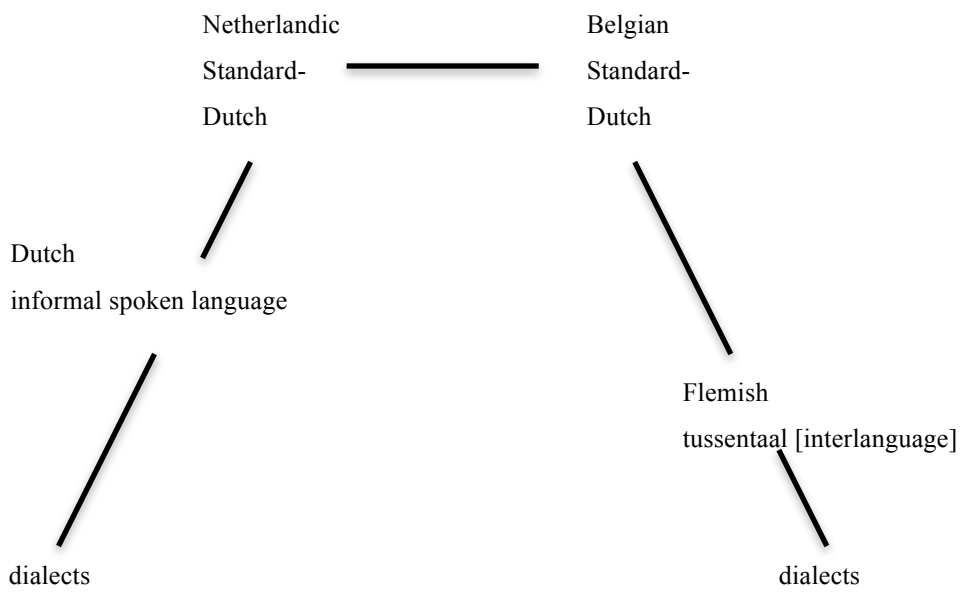

Fig. 8. Continua showing relations between two varieties of Dutch, Netherlandic and Belgian, and between the standard varieties and the dialects (after Geeraerts 2001: 340).

One of the main issues, therefore, is whether Belgian Dutch is converging with or diverging from Netherlandic Dutch (Grondelaers et al. 2001; Vandekerckhove 2005, 2007).

3.2. The story behind Dutch and Flemish

To fully understand and appreciate the similarities and differences between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch, a closer look needs to be taken at the socio-historical background.

The year 1585 seems to be an important date in the development of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch as it symbolizes the separation of the north and the south. By taking over the city of Antwerp, the Spanish forced about 150,000 inhabitants of present-day Flanders and Brabant, mostly members of the elite, to flee to the north (Janssens and Marynissen 2008). What followed was a period in which the north became an independent state with its own language, while the south first remained under the control of the Spanish, before, in the eighteenth century, becoming part of Austria. Finally, it was annexed by the French Republic in 1795 (P. Debrabandere 2005).

Much as the Dutch language developed into a standard language in the north, in the south it mainly existed only in the form of dialects (de Caluwe 2004). Not much changed between 1815 and 1830, when the north and the south were united in the Kingdom of the Netherlands (P. Debrabandere 2005). Admittedly, King William I of the Netherlands tried to impose the Dutch language in the south by issuing a decree in 1819 (Schyns 2002) but this was to no avail as the French language remained the language used in politics, administration and education in the south, even after Belgium gained independence in 1830 (Janssens and Marynissen 2008).

The situation started to change in the last quarter of the 19th century as the developing cultural and economic elite in Flanders started to demand equal rights for speakers of Dutch (de Caluwe 2004). This was partly achieved in 1873 when the first language law was introduced. It stated that those who did not speak French had a right to a trial in Dutch (Janssens and Marynissen 2008). In 1898 Dutch and French were made fully equal by law (Schyns 2002).

The changes that followed in Flanders include the introduction of Dutch as the main language at Ghent University in 1930 (de Caluwe 2004) and a growing number of writers who decided to replace French with Dutch in their work from the 1930s onwards (Schyns 2002).

Some other important dates and developments were 1932, which marked the introduction of Dutch as the official language in all schools in Flanders (P. Debrabandere 2005), the propagation through and by the mass media of Netherlandic Dutch as the norm in Flanders in the 1950s and 60s (de Caluwe 2004), and the signing of the Treaty of the Dutch Language Union between Belgium and the Netherlands in 1980 (Taalunie 2013). Nevertheless, problems have by no means been solved as de Valck (2007) reports on there still being tension between Dutch and French speakers in Belgium.

While Netherlandic Dutch has obviously undergone a very steady and long development from a mixture of dialects to a widespread standard language, Belgian Dutch seems to have been introduced "by force" and only quite recently to a region which even today is dominated by speakers of dialects and the so-called *tussentaal* 'intermediate language'. This discrepancy, among others, accounts for the inconsistencies in how Dutch is spoken and written in Flanders, the differences in grammar, vocabulary, phonology and spelling between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, as well as the inability to standardize the Dutch language as it is used in Flanders. It must be stated, however, that this search for a linguistic norm, achieved a long time ago in the Netherlands, is gathering pace in Flanders.

Vandekerckhove argues that present-day written language and public speech confirms predictions made by linguists halfway through the 20th century that Belgian Dutch would "catch up its historical retardation in the standardisation process" (2007: 189) with colloquial speech showing opposite tendencies. Again, the main reason for such a development in colloquial speech is the gradual expansion of *tussentaal* (see also Jaspers 2001), which, unlike the standard Dutch variety, is gaining in popularity even among adolescents and young adults. "The northern standard Dutch variants which young Flemish learn at school and see and hear in all kinds of media on a daily basis may belong to their linguistic repertoire, but they are not integrated into their colloquial in-group language. These variants even seem to be excluded from their in-group 'speech'[14] intentionally" (Vandekerckhove 2007: 201).

F. Debrabandere (2005) is very cynical about this process, blaming parents and young teachers, who have been indoctrinated by, what he calls, variety-linguists, that is linguists who promote language varieties. In his opinion, by classifying mistakes as variants, they are responsible for the inability of the Flemish to speak Dutch correctly.

3.3. Differences between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch

If we take Belgian Dutch to mean the Dutch language as it is spoken in Flanders, including *Schoon Vlaams*, or *tussentaal*, and, to a certain extent, dialects, there are a substantial number of grammatical, lexical and phonetic differences between Belgian

[14] The word 'speech' is in inverted commas as this conclusion is based on a study into language used in electronic chatting, which is spoken communication in writing.

and Netherlandic Dutch (Wiercińska 2009). Differences that are deemed irrelevant within the scope of this dissertation[15], such as spelling, are not discussed.

3.3.1. Grammar

One of the most commonly quoted grammatical differences between the two varieties of Dutch is the use of the pronoun *gij/ge* for the second person singular in Belgian Dutch (see, for instance, de Caluwe 2004 and Vandekerckhove 2004).

Both Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch have two pronouns for the second person singular. In Netherlandic Dutch these are the informal *jij/je*, which is used when referring to people we are friends and/or on a first-name basis with, and the formal, or polite, *u*, which is used when addressing older people or adults we do not know. In Belgian Dutch these are *gij/ge*, as equivalents of *jij/je*, and *u*. To clarify, the difference between *jij* or *gij* and *je* of *ge* lies in the former being stressed and the latter being unstressed. Vandekerckhove posits that the "Standard Dutch (or Netherlandic Dutch) informal pronouns of the second person singular *je, jij* and *jou(w)* are still hardly integrated in the supraregional colloquial language of most Flemings" (2005: 393). Instead, "the Flemish *ge*-paradigm still dominates Belgian Dutch" (Vandekerckhove 2005: 393). Of importance, when it comes to the connotations of the pronoun *gij/ge* as seen by the Flemish, it takes a position which is intermediate between *jij/je* and 'u'. Also, the Dutch only use *gij/ge* in a religious context to refer to the Lord, just like 'thou' in English.

Another difference between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch is the gender of some nouns. In general, Dutch nouns can be masculine, feminine, both of which take the definite article *de*, and neuter, which take the definite article *het*. Noun gender is only significant, however, when personal or possessive pronouns are to be used. In other words, in a sentence like 'If the table is in the way, move it to the side', in Dutch the personal pronoun depends on the gender of the noun. The noun 'table' is masculine in Netherlandic Dutch and feminine in Belgian Dutch and hence the pronouns *hem* or, in the reduced form, *'m* 'him' and *haar* or, in the reduced form, *ze* 'her' will be used respectively in the translation of the main clause of the aforementioned conditional sentence:

[15] The study presented in Chapter 4 focuses on recognizing spoken language only.

(2) ND[16] Als de tafel in de weg staat, schuif hem ('m) dan maar opzij.
BD Als de tafel in de weg staat, schuif haar (ze) dan maar opzij.
'If the table is in the way, move it to the side'
(Geerts et al. 1984: 51).

Other examples of differing noun gender are *peer* 'pear', *pan* 'pot' or 'pan', *bank* 'bench', *kast* 'wardrobe' or 'closet', *naald* 'needle' or *pijp* 'pipe'.

Diminutive suffixes, which are much more common in Dutch than, say, English or Polish, constitute another category in the discussion of grammatical differences between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch. The basic grammar rule says that the suffix *-je* is added to the noun. Depending on pronunciation, however, many diminutives acquire one of the following four extended suffixes: *-tje*, *-etje*, *-pje* or *-kje*. In Belgian Dutch, the most common suffixes are *-ke(n)* and *-sje(n)* or a variety of extended alternatives, such as *-ske(n)*, *-eke(n)*, *-eske(n)* and *-tsje(n)* (Vlaamsetaal 2013). Table 2 presents a few typical examples.

Table 2. Examples of diminutive suffixes in Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch.

Nouns (including translations)	Netherlandic Dutch Typical suffix → noun	Belgian Dutch Typical suffix → noun
boek 'book'	*-je* → *boekje*	*-ske* → *boekske*
zon 'sun'	*-etje* → *zonnetje*	*-eke* → *zonneke*
café 'café'	*-tje* → *cafeetje*[17]	*-ke* → *caféke*
bloem 'flower'	*-pje* or *–etje* → *bloempje* or *bloemetje*	*-eke(n)* → *bloemeke* or *bloemeken*
kat 'cat'	*-je* → *katje*	*-eke* or *–sje* → *katteke* or *katsje*

Vanderkerkchove, however, argues that despite these many differences "the Standard Dutch diminutive suffix appears to be better integrated in colloquial Belgian Dutch than the Standard Dutch pronoun *je*" (2005: 394), which was discussed earlier.

The declension of words in attributive position before nouns, such as articles, pronouns and adjectives, constitute yet another group of grammatical variables which can show how Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch differ (de Caluwe 2004 and Goossens 2000). Standard Netherlandic Dutch has one indefinite article, namely *een/'n*, usually pronounced as /∂n/. In *Schoon Vlaams* 'clean/pure Flemish', an indefinite article that

[16] ND means Netherlandic Dutch, while BD refers to Belgian Dutch.
[17] A change in spelling in Netherlandic Dutch but no change in Belgian Dutch.

precedes a masculine noun can take on the form of *ne*, for instance *ne stoel* 'a chair', or, if the following word, be it an adjective or a noun, starts with the letter *h*, *d* or *t*, *nen*, for example *nen hoge stoel* 'a high chair'. If, however, it precedes a neuter noun that does not start with a vowel or the letter h, the indefinite article is *e*, like *e kind* 'a child'. As far as definite articles are concerned, in addition to the general division into *de* and *het*, Belgian Dutch also has the article *den* if a masculine noun starting with a vowel follows it, like in *den aap* 'monkey'. Finally, the general rule in Dutch is that a definite article, a demonstrative pronoun and a possessive pronoun are followed by a word ending in *-e*, for example *de zwarte pen* 'the black pen', *dat nieuwe horloge* 'that new watch' and *zijn oude huis* 'his old house', while so-called *het*-words, that is neuter nouns, do not require any declension of adjectives if they follow indefinite articles, as in *een lief kind* 'a sweet child'. In *Schoon Vlaams* 'clean/pure Flemish', however, if the nouns are singular feminine and the adjectives does not end in the letter *p*, *t* or *k*, the suffix *-e* is not added, for instance *die schoon hand* 'that clean hand'. The same goes for nouns in the plural, for example *lief kinderen* 'sweet children'. In Belgian Dutch adjectives can also be declined, which is why phrases like *nen dikken boek* 'a thick book' rather than the standard *een dik boek* are hardly surprising.

When referring to the future in Dutch, the verb *gaan* 'to go' can be used, for instance *We gaan morgen surfen* 'We are going surfing tomorrow'. In some regions in Flanders, speakers use a double *gaan*-structure, as in *Ik ga nog wat gaan rusten*, which can be loosely translated as 'I am going to go rest' (Taeldeman 2007).

Another example is the superfluous use of the word *dat* 'that' after a subordinate conjunction, for instance *Ik weet niet wanneer da(t) zij komen* 'I do not know when that they are coming' (Taeldeman 2007).

What can be used superfluously as well is the past or perfect participle. An example could be the sentence *Ik ben opgebeld geweest*, which can be translated as 'I have been called been' (Schyns 2002: 42).

Last but not least is the issue of word order. Naturally, there are quite a few literal translations from French in Dutch but these concern mainly lexis (see Section 3.3.2). However, such a calque is sometimes also reflected in the French word order of Belgian Dutch sentences (Schyns 2002). P. Debrabandere (2005) gives the following example. The Netherlandic Dutch phrase *Aan dit programma hebben meegewerkt: ...* 'The following people have contributed to / worked on this program: ….' becomes *Hebben*

meegewerkt aan dit programma: .... in Belgian Dutch, which reflects the French word order of *Ont collaboré à ce programme: ....* .

Another aspect of word order concerns the order of the auxiliary verb and the past participle at the end of a sentence. There are two options: the green order, which places the past participle first, and the red order, which puts the auxiliary verb first (Werkwoordsvolgorde 2013). To illustrate:

(3) (a) *Ik hoop niet dat je ontslagen wordt.*
(b) *Ik hoop niet dat je wordt ontslagen.*
'I hope you will not get fired.'
(c) *Hij vraagt zich af wanneer zij gekomen zijn.*
(d) *Hij vraagt zich af wanneer ze zijn gekomen.*
'He wonders when they came.'

In (a) and (c) the word order is green, in (b) and (d) it is red. Even though all grammar books, including ANS (Geerts et al. 1984), accept both orders as correct, there are some differences in terms of regional, stylistic, syntactic, semantic, psycholinguistic, normative, personal and rhythmic preferences (Arfs 2007). In terms of regional preferences, she states:

> In the North-East (Groningen and Drenthe) and in the South-West (West-and East Flanders) the frequency of the green order is higher and in the central part of where Dutch is spoken (Holland, Utrecht and Brabant) the red order appears more often (Arfs 2007: 224).

De Sutter (2005), in his analysis of how frequently these orders are used in the Netherlands and Belgium, reports on a slightly higher occurrence of the green order in Belgium and the red order in the Netherlands. Schyns (2002) gives the example of *zullen klaar zijn* and *klaar zullen zijn* 'will be ready', stressing how the lack of explicit linguistic norms in Flanders may also make matters confusing.

3.3.2. Lexis

The overwhelming majority of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch words, phrases and expressions are identical. There are, however, quite a few differences as well. These can

stem from administrative decisions, the influence of French and dialects, and the willingness of the Flemish to break with either French or the northern variety of Dutch.

A turning point in the lexical relation between the north and the south was the 19th century (Geeraerts 2002). This was marked by both the acceleration of removal processes that started earlier and the onset of other diverging evolutions. An example of the former is the increase in the number of French words and phrases used in Belgian Dutch, a tendency that is put down to the gradual gallicization of education and administration. An example of the latter are Flemish deviations from Netherlandic Dutch, which were the result of literal translations of administrative and legal documents from French sources.

As a result, there is lexical dissimilarity between present-day Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch.

Table 3. Examples of French words and phrases as used in Belgian Dutch with their (Standard) Dutch and French equivalents. Numbers 1-5 are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 2-3), while numbers 6 -9 are taken from Schyns (2002: 42).

No.	(Standard) Dutch (including English equivalents or descriptions)	French words and phrases as used in Belgian Dutch[18] (including translations)	French
1.	*rotonde* 'round-about'	*rondpunt* *rond* 'round'; *punt* 'point'	*rond-point*
2.	*een klacht indienen* 'to file a complaint'	klacht neerleggen *neerleggen* 'lay down'	*plainte*
3.	*lenen* 'loan / borrow / lend'	*ontlenen* 'derive / take from'	*emprunter*
4.	*hervatten* 'resume/continue'	hernemen 'take again'	*reprendre*
5.	*historisch overzicht* 'a historical outline / summary'	*historiek* 'historical'	*historique*
6.	*Er is niemand.* 'There's nobody.'	*Er is geen kat* *geen* 'no' / *kat* 'cat'	*il n'y a pas un chat*
7.	*de weg kwijt zijn* 'be in a tizzy / be shaken'	*het noorden verliezen* *noorden* 'north'; *verliezen* 'lose'	*perdre le nord*
8.	*kopieën maken* 'make copies'	*kopieën nemen* *kopieën* 'copies' / *nemen* 'take'	*prendre des copies*
9.	*Er was niemand thuis toen de postbode langskwam.* 'There was nobody home when the mailman came by.'	*De postbode heeft zich vruchteloos bij u aangeboden.* *vruchteloos* 'fruitlessly'; *zich aangeboden* 'offered	*Le facteur s'est présenté en vain chez vous.*

[18] These are called 'gallicismen' in Dutch, which is a clear reference to the region of Gaul.

		himself'	

To begin with, Table 3 presents examples of French words and phrases as used in Belgian Dutch with their (Standard) Dutch and French equivalents. They show how strong an influence the French language has had on Belgian Dutch.

However, throughout the 20th century attempts were made at introducing pure Belgian Dutch forms in order to distinguish it from French (see Table 4). Prędota (2003) describes this introduction of purisms as a reaction to the excessive use of borrowings. To the examples shown in Table 4, he adds the word *duimspijker* 'thumbnail'[19] to replace *punaise* 'thumbtack / drawing pin'.

Table 4. Examples of pure forms of Belgian Dutch words with their (Standard) Dutch and French equivalents. The examples are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 4).

No.	(Standard) Dutch, often also dialects in Belgium (including translations)	Pure forms of Belgian Dutch words (including translations)	French
1.	*horloge* 'watch'	*uurwerk* literally 'hourwork', also 'timepiece' or 'clockwork'	*horloge*
2.	*honorarium* 'fee/remuneration/royalty'	*ereloon* 'honorary wage/pay'	*honoraires*
3.	*paraplu* 'umbrella'	*regenscherm* 'rainshield'	*parapluie*
4.	*reconstructie* 'reconstruction'	*wedersamenstelling* 'the putting together again'	*réconstruction*
5.	*trottoir* 'sidewalk'	*voetpad* 'footpath'	*trottoir*

Belgian Dutch also has a number of words and phrases that have entered the language from Flemish dialects (see Table 5).

Table 5. Examples of words and phrases as used in Belgian Dutch dialects with their (Standard) Dutch equivalents. The examples are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 4).

No.	(Standard) Dutch (including translations)	Belgian Dutch dialects
1.	*vrachtwagen* 'truck'	*camion*
2.	*koelkast* 'fridge'	*frigo*

[19] nail as a small metal spike with a broadened flat head.

3.	*schoonmaken* 'cleaning'	*kuisen*[20]
4.	*metselen* 'build in / with bricks'	*metsen*
5.	*kopje koffie* 'cup coffee'	*tas*[21] *koffie*

Table 6 presents a number of archaic words and phrases which have survived in Netherlandic Dutch only in set or idiomatic expressions but are commonly used in Belgian Dutch.

Table 6. Examples of archaic words and phrases as used in Belgian Dutch with their (Standard) Dutch equivalents and examples of how they are still used in (Standard) Dutch in set or idiomatic expressions. The examples are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 5).

No.	(Standard) Dutch (including translations)	Archaic words and phrases still used in Belgian Dutch (including literal translations or translations as the word is used in Netherlandic Dutch, if applicable)	In (Standard) Netherlandic Dutch still used in … (including translations)
1.	*jurk* 'dress'	*kleed* 'carpet / rug'	*priesterkleed* 'priest's garb / sacerdotal vestment'
2.	*huilen* 'cry'	*wenen*[22] if capitalized 'Vienna'	X
3.	*omdat, aangezien* 'because / since'	*vermits*	X
4.	*kleding* 'clothing'	*kledij*	… historical context, folklore, and such.
5.	*avondeten* 'supper'	*avondmaal* 'evening meal'	*Het Laatste Avondmaal* 'the Last Supper'

Though exclusively formal in Netherlandic Dutch, some words are used in everyday speech by speakers of Belgian Dutch (see Table 7).

[20] The word *kuisen* appears in one of the films used in the experiments.
[21] In (Standard) Netherlandic Dutch, the word *tas* means bag. satchel, case.
[22] The word 'wenen' appears in one of the films used in the experiments.

Table 7. Examples of formal, neutral and informal words as used in Belgian Dutch. The examples are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 5-6).

No.	Formal in Netherlandic Dutch; neutral in Belgian Dutch (including examples and translations)	Neutral in Netherlandic Dutch (including translations)	Informal (including examples and translations)
1.	*te* 'in' *Ondertekend te Amsterdam op 29 mei 2010*. 'Signed in Amsterdam on 29 May 2010.'	*in* 'in'	X
2.	*daar* 'because' *Daar ik hoofdpijn had, ging ik naar bed*. 'Since I had a headache, I went to bed.'	*omdat* 'because'	X
3.	reeds 'already / yet' Heb je dat reeds gedaan? 'Have you done that already?'	*al* 'already / yet'	X
4.	*werpen* *'throw'* *Hij wierp de bal naar de andere kant.* 'He threw the ball to the other side.'	*gooien* 'throw'	X
5.	X	*elkaar* 'each other'	*Mekaar* 'each other' *Ze kennen mekaar 2 jaar.* 'They've known each other for 2 years.'

As in any other country, Dutch and Flemish university students also speak a language of their own. Perhaps surprisingly, their slang differs from each other, as can be seen in Table 8. It is of interest to note that the language used by Flemish students is sometimes used among Flemish non-students as well. This is not necessarily true of Netherlandic Dutch.

Table 8. Examples of words and phrases used by students in the Netherlands and in Flanders with their (Standard) Dutch equivalents. The examples are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 6).

No.	Standard language (including translations)	Language used by Dutch students (including translations of the word or phrase and/or literal translations of the words or the word or words that make up the phrase)	Language used by Flemish students and in Belgian Dutch (including translations of the word or phrase and/or literal translations of the words or the word or words that make up the phrase)
1.	*gezakt zijn* 'fail/have failed'	*gestraald zijn / gesjeesd zijn* 'come a cropper/flunk' *stralen* 'beam/radiate/shine'; *sjezen* 'tear / tear off / fly / fly off'	*gebuisd zijn* 'flunk' *buis* 'tube / pipe'
2.	*kamer* 'room'	*hok* 'shed / stroreroom / dump'	*kot* 'hovel / kennel / shed'
3.	*hospita* 'landlady'	X	*kotbazin / kotmadam* *kot* 'hovel/kennel/shed; *bazin* 'female boss'; *madam* 'lady', derived from French

There are certain words that exist in both varieties of Dutch but are sometimes misused by speakers of Belgian Dutch (see Table 9), the reason being interference from French or Flemish dialects.

Table 9. Examples of pairs of words as used in Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch. The examples are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 6).

No.	Pairs of words (including translations and/or literal translations)	One of the pair as sometimes used in Belgian Dutch (including literal translations)	The same context in (Standard) (Netherlandic) Dutch (including translations)
1.	*noemen / heten* 'to name / to be called'	*Ik noem Peter.* 'I name Peter', where 'name' is a verb	*Ik heet Peter.* 'I am called / My name is Peter.'
2.	*vooreerst / eerst* 'before first / first'	*Vooreerst wil ik zeggen dat …* 'Before first I want to say that …'	*Eerst wil ik zeggen dat … .* 'First I want to say that …'
3.	*ritme / tempo* 'rhythm / speed'	*in dat ritme* 'in that rhythm'	*in dat tempo* 'at that speed'
4.	*terug / weer* 'back / again'	*Hij is terug ziek geworden.* 'He has become ill back.'	*Hij is weer ziek geworden.* 'He has become ill again.'
5.	*doorgaan / plaatsvinden* 'continue, be on / take place'	*Het feest gaat morgen door.* 'The party will continue / be	*Het feest vindt morgen plaats.*

		on tomorrow.'	'The party will take place tomorrow.'

Last but not least, there are a number of words and phrases that are typically Belgian Dutch in the sense that they are solely used in Flanders. Table 10 presents eight such examples as well as their Netherlandic Dutch equivalents or general descriptions.

Table 10. Examples of words and phrases that are typically Belgian Dutch with either their Netherlandic Dutch equivalents or appropriate descriptions. Numbers 1-5 are taken from P. Debrabandere (2005: 7-8), while number 6-8 are taken from Geeraerts (2001: 338).

No.	Belgian Dutch (including equivalents and literal translations, if applicable)	Netherlandic Dutch (including equivalents and literal translations, if applicable)	description
1.	*gouverneur* 'provincial governor / Lord Lieutenant'	*Commissaris van de Koningin* '(Royal) Commissioner'	X
2.	*oudercomité* 'parents' council' *ouder* 'parent'; *comité* 'committee'	*ouderraad* 'parents' council' *ouder* 'parent; *raad* 'council'	X
3.	*vieruurtje* *vier* 'four'; *uur* 'hour' or 'o'clock'	X	A light meal of coffee, tea or chocolate with cake or cookies at 4 pm.
4.	*vijgen na Pasen* 'too late' *vijgen* 'figs'; *Pasen* 'Easter'	*mosterd na de maaltijd* 'too late' *mosterd* 'mustard'; *na* 'after'; *maaltijd* 'meal'	X
5.	*paling in het groen* *paling* 'eel'; *groen* 'green'	X	Stewed eel with chervil sauce.
6.	*een handje toesteken* 'give / lend somebody a hand' *handje* 'little hand'; *toesteken* ≈ 'stick'	*een handje helpen* 'give / lend somebody a hand' *handje* 'little hand'; *helpen* 'help'	X
7.	*fruitsap* 'fruit juice' *fruit* 'fruit'; *sap* 'juice'	*vruchtensap* 'fruit juice' *vruchten* 'fruit'; *sap* 'juice'	X
8.	*met haken en ogen aan elkaar hangen* 'by a thread' *met* 'with'; *haken* 'hooks'; *ogen* 'eyes'; *aan elkaar* 'attached to each other';	*met de hakken over de sloot* 'by a thread / by the skin of one's teeth' *met* 'with'; *hakken* 'heels'; *over* 'across'; *sloot* 'ditch'	X

	hangen 'hang'		

Tables 3-10 are by no means exhaustive but they do provide a comprehensive overview of typical Belgian Dutch words and phrases, including their Netherlandic Dutch, English and, if applicable, French equivalents.

3.3.3. Phonology

Some might argue that one only needs to listen to a few sentences spoken by a typical speaker of Netherlandic and a typical speaker of Belgian Dutch to be able to distinguish between the two, the main reason being the distinctly different pronunciation (see, for instance, Taeldeman 2007). In fact, de Caluwe (2007) goes as far as to say that Belgian Dutch has its own pronunciation.

Just like in the case of grammar and lexis, these differences can be put down to French influences, the willingness or desire to eradicate French and Netherlandic Dutch influences, and the impact of Flemish dialects.

Another deciding factor, however, is the lack of processes in Belgian Dutch that did take place in Netherlandic Dutch. Van Hout et al. (1999), for example, give the example of changes in the pronunciation of Netherlandic Dutch in the second half of the 20th century not taking place in the pronunciation of Belgian Dutch. These include the devoicing of voiced fricatives, the uvularization of *g* and the diphthongization of the long mid vowels, all of which originated in the language spoken in the conurbation of Randstad. Undoubtedly, fewer changes have occurred in Belgian Dutch. And if there are any, they are influenced by the variety spoken in the Belgian province of Brabant. Also, speakers of regional dialects are slowly and gradually influencing the standard pronunciation of Belgian Dutch (van Hout et al. 1999 and Vandekerckhove 2007).

A number of characteristics of Belgian Dutch pronunciation can be found in the literature. Taeldeman (2007), for instance, draws attention to the following attributes:

- somebody from the Flemish province of Brabant will make the short /i/ and /u/ in words such as *vis* 'fish' and *put* 'well' longer, pronouncing the words as [viːs], making it sound like the word *vies* 'dirty', and [puːt], while a person from Western Flanders will have a more open realization – *vès* and *pùt*;
- somebody from Western Flanders and the west part of Eastern Flanders will pronounce *gaan* 'go', in standard Dutch pronounced as [ɣaːn], which can be

confusing for a person accustomed to Netherlandic Dutch as they can mistake it for the word *haan* ‘rooster’, and *haan* as [ɦaːn] or even, being hypercorrect, as [ɣaːn];

- any speaker of Belgian Dutch may drop the final letters *t* and *d*, pronounced as /t/ at the end of words, as in the words *wat* ‘what’ and *dat* ‘that’, pronouncing them as [ʋɑ], or even [wɑ], and [dɑ] respectively. Other typical examples include such words as *goed* ‘good’, *niet* ‘not’ and *met* ‘with’.

The pronunciation of the word *wat* shows another difference, namely the fact that /ʋ/ tends to be labiodental in Netherlandic Dutch and bilabial in Belgian Dutch.

One more characteristic of Belgian Dutch pronunciation, influenced by the French language, is the dropping of /h/, because of which the Flemish may pronounce *helemaal* ‘totally’ as *élemaal*, *hebt* ‘have’ (in the second personal singular) as *ébt* and gehad ‘had’ (as the past participle of ‘have’) as *g’ad*.

There are a number of ways in which /r/ can be pronounced but researchers seem to agree that in Belgian Dutch it is less rolled, or rolling, than in Netherlandic Dutch (see, for instance, van Bezooijen and Berg 2004).

Geeraerts (2001) also mentions the diphthongization of long vowels and voiceless /g/, /v/ and /z/, both of which are typical of Netherlandic Dutch but neither of which has become part of Belgian Dutch pronunciation. An example is the word *voet* ‘foot’, which is pronounced with a clear v-sound in Belgian Dutch but with more of an f-sound in Netherlandic Dutch (de Laet 2012).

In Netherlandic Dutch, the final consonants of prefixes do not re-syllabify if the root of the following word starts with a vowel, for instance *uit[ʔ]eindelijk* ‘finally’ and *on[ʔ]afhankelijk* ‘independent’, making the prefixes non-cohering (Noske 2006). What is more, in the word *onafhankelijk* ‘independent’, there is no /h/ and the letter *f* is at the start of the third syllable (see Table 11).

Table 11. Pronunciation of *uiteindelijk* ‘finally’ and *onafhankelijk* ‘independent’ in Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch (after Noske 2006: 1-2).

Word	Pronunciation – underlying form	Pronunciation – Netherlandic Dutch	Pronunciation – Belgian Dutch
uiteindelijk ‘finally’	/œyt+ɛində+lək/	[œyt.’ʔɛin.də.lək]	[œy.’tɛin.də.lək]
onafhankelijk ‘independent’	/ɔn+ɑf+hɑŋ+lək/	[ɔn.ʔɑf’hɑŋ.kə.lək]	[ɔ.nɑ’fɑŋ.klək]

When it comes to final consonants, it is very common for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch to drop the final *n* (van de Velde 1996), especially in verbs, for instance *beamen* 'confirm' is likely to be pronounced as [bə'ʔä: mə] in the Netherlands, while the Flemish would be inclined to say [bə'ä:mən].

Some other typical differences pointed out by Noske (2006) are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Some typical phonetic differences between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch (after Noske 2006: 1-4).

Word or phrase (including translation)	Netherlandic Dutch pronunciation	Belgian Dutch pronunciation [or some variety thereof]
het is 'it is'	/ət ɪs/, [tɪs], [ətɪs]	/ət ɪs/, [tɪs], [hətɪs]
was het 'was it'	/ʋɑs ət/, [ʋɑsət]~[ʋɑzət]	/wɑs ət/, [wɑst]
de engelen 'the angels'	[də.ʔ.ɛ.ŋə.lə]	[dɛŋ.ln]
dat ik 'that I'	/dɑt ɪk/, [dɑtɪk]	/dɑ ɛk/, [dɑk]
ik hoor 'I hear'	/ɛk oːr/, [koːr]	/ɪk hoːr/, [ɪkhoːr]

Finally, in connected speech, already present in some of the aforementioned examples, additional sounds may appear (Jaspers 2001). For example, if there is a question with the verb *wilt* 'want' and the *gij*-pronoun, the letter *t*, normally pronounced /t/, is pronounced /də/, as in *wildegij* 'Do you want?' (rather than *wilt gij* in Belgian Dutch or *wil jij* in Netherlandic Dutch). The same goes for *oenoemdegij* 'What do you call …?' (rather than *[h]oe noemt gij* in Belgian Dutch or *hoe noem jij* in Netherlandic Dutch).

3.4. Dutch Studies at Adam Mickiewicz University[23]

The history of Dutch Studies at Adam Mickiewicz University dates back to 1983, when students of the Faculty of Modern Languages and Literatures first got a chance to enroll in Dutch language courses.

This offer was initially extended in 1997 to include proseminars in Dutch and Afrikaans for students of English and then again in 1999 to incorporate two specialized MA-programs, one in Dutch studies and one in South-African studies, at the School of English.

[23] This and more information on Dutch Studies at Adam Mickiewicz University can be found on the website of the Department of Dutch and South African Studies - http://wa.amu.edu.pl/dutchafrikaans/.

In 2007 Adam Mickiewicz University's School of English launched a full-time three-year BA program in Dutch Studies. In 2011 a full-time two-year MA program was added to the offer.

First-year BA students take obligatory courses in Practical Dutch, Introduction to Linguistics, Introduction to Literary Studies and Introduction to Culture Studies as part of their core curriculum. In addition, they have classes in Latin, a modern foreign language, sports and IT. In the first term most, if not all, classes are conducted in Polish. Towards the end of the first term, teachers start using more and more Dutch with Dutch becoming the language of instruction at the end of the first year.

Second-year BA students take obligatory courses in Practical Dutch, Descriptive Grammar, the History of Dutch Literature, Culture Studies, all conducted in Dutch. Additional classes include a modern foreign language.

Third-year students take obligatory courses in Practical Dutch, Contrastive Grammar, the History of the Dutch Language, the History of Dutch Literature, Culture Studies, Business Dutch and a diploma seminar, all conducted in Dutch. Additional classes include a modern foreign language and Philosophy.

First- and second-year MA students take obligatory courses in Practical Dutch, Dutch Literature, Culture Studies, a foreign language and an MA-seminar.

The coursebooks used for the Practical Dutch classes are the Belgian Dutch *Vanzelfsprekend* and *Niet Vanzelfsprekend* and the Netherlandic Dutch *Help*-series.

Since the academic year 2009-2010, two native speakers of Belgian Dutch (one female and one male) and two of Netherlandic Dutch (both male) have been teaching at the Department of Dutch and South African Studies, giving students exposure to both varieties. At the start of the academic year 2012-2013 they were joined by a male native speaker of Netherlandic Dutch[24].

3.5. Conclusion

Even though Dutch seems to be more of a "pluricentric language with two centres of standardization" (Vandekerckhove 2005: 394) now, it is hard to standardize any of the characteristics discussed in Sections 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3, especially with so many dialectal influences as well as the growing impact *tussentaal* has on Belgian Dutch, for instance.

[24] This has had no effect on the present study because the different parts of the experiment were administered before he became a staff member.

In other words, what is typical in one region may sound too formal, or even posh, or too colloquial in another, and vice versa.

There are, however, a number of consistent phonetic, grammatical and lexical differences that make distinguishing between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch possible. The historical overview provided in this chapter explains how these variations came into being.

Finally, Dutch Studies and language courses in Dutch, either Netherlandic or Belgian, are offered at universities and schools throughout the world. One such institution is Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, Poland, at which the present study was conducted.

Chapter 4: Awareness and attitudes among Polish students of Dutch: hypotheses and methods

4.1. Introduction

The prime motive of the study, conducted among students of the Department of Dutch and South African Studies at Adam Mickiewicz University who major in Dutch, was to find out about these students' language awareness and language attitudes.

The following four main research questions and a number of supplementary questions were posed:

1. How aware[25] are Polish students of Dutch of the differences between two varieties of the Dutch language, namely Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch?
   a. Can they identify native speakers of the two varieties when listening to them read or speak?
   b. How consistent are the participants in their recognitions of the language variety used as well as the gender and age of the speakers?
   c. Are there any differences in awareness at the level of language proficiency?
   d. Are there any differences in awareness depending on gender?
2. What are the participants' attitudes towards Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch and towards speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch?
   a. Do the participants demonstrate a clear preference for one of the varieties?
   b. How consistent are the participants in the assessment of the two varieties and their speakers? In other words, do the results obtained in 3 different sessions of

[25] Aware here means 'actively' aware, which refers to the participants' ability to recognize differences between the two varieties when listening to native speakers; 'passively' would then refer to the ability to enumerate and/or elaborate on the differences.

the study (a questionnaire, recognition tasks and verbal guise tasks) correlate with each other?

c. Are there any differences in attitudes at the level of proficiency?

d. Are there any differences in attitudes depending on gender?

3. What factors may influence the participants' language awareness and attitudes?

a. How much exposure to and experience with the Dutch language and its speakers in general and Belgian Dutch, Netherlandic Dutch, the Flemish and the Dutch in particular do the participants have outside the classroom setting?

b. Does this exposure possibly have an influence on the results and therefore on the participants' language awareness and attitudes?

c. Are experience with and self-reported proficiency in other foreign language factors influencing the obtained results and therefore the participants' language awareness and attitudes?

d. What other factors may influence awareness and attitudes?

4. If no single method is exhaustive (Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain 2009), does applying a multi-method approach to studying language attitudes (as suggested by Garrett 2010; see Chapter 2) give a clearer insight into these attitudes?

At this point it needs to be explained once again that within the framework of this particular study, language awareness, contrary to common practice, does not refer to metalinguistic awareness but to the awareness of linguistic varieties, that is two varieties, Belgian and Netherlandic, of the same language, Dutch.

Also, at the time of conducting the experiments, both groups (beginners and advanced learners) had had and/or were having classes with native speaker teachers of both Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, giving all participants exposure to both varieties. Furthermore, the course books used in the so-called Practical Dutch classes in all three years of the BA-program of their studies provide the students with exposure to both aforementioned varieties as well, with *Vanzelfsprekend* and *Niet Vanzelfsprekend* being Belgian Dutch courses and all 3 parts of the *Help*-series being Netherlandic Dutch courses. In one of the research tools used in the study, a questionnaire, the participants were, among others, asked about other means by which they were or had been exposed to the two varieties, such as mass media, visits to the Netherlands and/or Flanders, on-line communicators, and the like. Details are discussed in Section 4.4.1. All these facts and arguments substantiate the study and its research questions.

In light of what has just been described, it was safe to assume that on average the advanced learners had (had) much more experience with and exposure to the two varieties of Dutch, both in class and outside the classroom setting, which is why they were expected to outperform the beginners across the board by noticing the various linguistic hints in the text (pronunciation) and films (pronunciation, grammar and lexis) and hence identifying more speakers of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch correctly.

It was also hypothesized that:

- those with more experience with and better self-reported knowledge of foreign languages would be better at recognizing the correct variety,
- the participants would have no problems identifying the gender of the speakers but might struggle guessing their correct age,
- there would not be any between-gender variation in awareness or attitudes,
- the female speakers of both varieties would have more favorable ratings than the male speakers (as suggested by Ladegaard 2000),
- the respondents would be consistent in their choices and answers,
- some patterns would emerge that would allow the researcher to state what (other) factors might influence attitudes and awareness,
- those with more exposure to one of the two varieties would have more positive attitudes to that variety (as shown by Zhang and Hu 2008[26]),
- the findings would attest to the view that a multiple-method approach to attitudes shows how methods can complement each other and verify the results.

Independently of the research questions, it was also assumed that the participants' attitudes would be largely influenced by stereotypes.

To find answers to the research questions and either confirm or contradict the predictions, the study, a detailed description of which can be found in Section 4.3, consisted of three sessions:

- session one (see Section 4.3.1), a questionnaire (see Appendix A), which, as an example of a survey method (Baker 2008), is a useful tool for collecting declarative data. However, questionnaires do not suffice when the aim is to collect data on performance as well, which is why they are best employed together with other research procedures (Codó 2008: 171),

[26] "Their results suggest that L2 learners have more positive attitudes towards the varieties of English they have been exposed to, i.e. AmE and BrE" (Zhang and Hu 2008: 342).

- session two (see Section 4.3.2), which comprised two tasks, including a verbal guise type task, in which the participants assessed a careful selection of male and female speakers of Dutch and Flemish recorded while reading the same text (see Appendix B),
- session three (see Section 4.3.3), which consisted of two tasks, including a verbal guise task, in which the participants assessed a careful selection of male and female characters / actors starring in two films, of which there are Dutch and Flemish versions made according to the same script (see Appendix C).

4.2. Participants and sampling procedures

The participants in the study were 34 students (18 female, 16 male) of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. They were divided into 2 groups: 19 beginners (9 female, 10 male) and 15 (more) advanced participants (9 female, 6 male). The beginners' mean age was 21.3, while that of the (more) advanced participants 23.7.

Below first the sampling procedures will be discussed and afterwards demographic information from part three of session one of the study, the questionnaire, will be presented, both in detail.

At the time of preparation for the experiments, that is in November 2011, the Department was running a full BA[27] program, with 2 first-year groups (1BA) of approximately 16 students each, a second-year group (2BA) of 13 students, and 15 third-year (3BA) students. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the academic year 2011-2012 also saw the start of an MA[28] program with a first-year group (1MA) of around 10 students.

Initially only first- and third-year BA students were to be recruited for the research, the reason being twofold:

- such a division was in line with the aim to compare beginners with (more) advanced students, and
- these were two groups the author of this dissertation had classes with, making it more manageable to arrange a time and place for the different research tests.

Shortly after the research project commenced in January 2012, it turned out that the number of students in 3BA had dwindled to 9 as some students had resigned from their studies, while others had decided to remain abroad by continuing their participation

[27] Bachelor of Arts
[28] Master of Arts

in the Comenius program. In order to make the sample of (more) advanced students big enough to secure reasonably meaningful results, the assumption being that all third-year students would agree to take part, 1MA students had to be approached. Seven of them were willing to partake but one could not be included in the study because she had lived and worked in the Netherlands for many years and hence her education as well as exposure to both Dutch and Flemish and the speakers of these two varieties differed substantially from that of the rest.

With all 3BA students volunteering to participate, a total of 15 participants was achieved for the (more) advanced group. Consequently, only around 15 volunteers were needed for the group of beginners. When approached, as many as 19 students signed up and it was decided that all would become participants of the study.

Unfortunately, with some 3BA students not returning from their stay abroad until a month later, others leaving Poland at the end of January to study at a foreign university in the second term and all 1MA students occupied with mid-term exams and hence requesting to postpone their participation until the second half of February, two different sets of dates had to be established. At this stage, all arrangements had already been made with the 1BA students, including modifications to their schedule. In practice this meant that about half of the students, that is most of the beginners and some of the (more) advanced group, did all three sessions of the project in January, while the remaining students did so in the second half of February. This, however, allowed for smooth administration of the research. In addition, those that, for whatever reason, happened to be absent in January could still partake in the research project with the second group. Of importance, the same one-week intervals between the three sessions of the research project were maintained.

To recapitulate, the group of beginners (1BA) consisted of 19 students (9 female and 10 male), whereas the group of (more) advanced students (3BA and 1MA treated collectively for the purpose of this research) of 15 – 9 females and 6 males.

All the biographical information presented below is taken from part three of session one of the study, the questionnaire.

Among the 9 female beginners, the mean age was 21.4, while among the 10 male beginners 21.2. Among the nine advanced females, the mean age was 23.4, whereas among the 6 male advanced participants 24.0 (questions 1 and 2 of part three of the questionnaire).

In terms of how long the female beginners had been learning Dutch (or Flemish), question 3 of part three of the questionnaire, 7 claimed to have started at the beginning of the 2011-2012 academic year, variously marking this period as 2.5 months (1 student), 3 months (3 students) and 4 months (3 students). Two female participants had started learning Dutch prior to being accepted as students at the Department of Dutch and South African studies at Adam Mickiewicz University, one 2 years earlier and the other one 3 years. This learning was done through self-study and by attending a private language course. The mean score for the female participants was 9.9 months.

When the experiment started, 9 male participants had been studying Dutch (or Flemish) for 3 or 4 months. 1 male participant started studying the language 8 months before becoming a student of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University. The mean score for the male participants was therefore 4.6 months.

There is an inconsistency in these answers in that most participants started studying Dutch in October 2011, yet the answers given by 4 randomly chosen beginners, who all filled in the questionnaire on January 12, 2012, ranged from 2.5 to 4 months.

As far as other foreign languages are concerned, all 19 beginners claimed to know at least one. They listed English (all 9 females and all 10 males), German (4 females and 7 males), French (2 females and 5 males), Spanish (3 females and 1 male), Portuguese (1 female), Afrikaans (1 female), Italian (1 female), Korean (1 female), Chinese (1 male), Catalan (1 male) and Latin (1 male).

The self-assessed levels of proficiency in the four most frequently learned languages are presented in Table 13. The other languages, each of which was listed by only one informant, scored between 2 (Catalan) and 5 (Latin and Portuguese) on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *native-speaker-like competence* and 5 *very badly*.

Table 13. Self-assessed proficiency in other foreign languages according to gender and overall – beginners.

Languages	Participants – means		
	Female	Male	Overall
English (N = 9 + 10[29])	2.1	2.1	2.1
German (N = 4 + 7)	2.5	3.6	3.2
French (N = 2 + 5)	3.0	5.0	4.4
Spanish (N = 3 + 1)	3.0	2.0	2.75

[29] For each language, the first number of participants refers to the females and the second one to the males.

There are a few conclusions that can be drawn from Table 13:

- English was the only other foreign language all participants had learned,
- the female and male participants assessed their knowledge of English equally,
- the participants' level of competence was assessed higher for Germanic languages than for Romance languages,
- in general, females self-assessed their knowledge of foreign languages higher than males did. One exception was Spanish but, as an aside, only one male claimed to know this language.

There was considerable overlap between how well participants knew different languages and the time they spent learning them. On average, they had been studying English, the language they believed to be the most competent in, for over 11 years, German for 8 years, Spanish for over 4 years, and French for almost 3 years. Put differently, their level of proficiency was often directly proportional to the time they spent learning the language. The participants had studied the other languages mentioned above (Afrikaans, Korean, and so on) for about 2.5 years on average.

As far as the ways in which the aforementioned languages were mastered are concerned, it did not come as a surprise that the majority of the students chose lessons with a teacher, either at school or during private lessons, to have had the biggest influence on how they (had) learned any of the languages they knew. For the four most frequently learned languages, all other forms (trips to countries in which the language is spoken; watching, listening and reading in the particular language; contact with native speakers; self-study) were also marked as having had some influence by at least three participants. As an illustration, the results for these languages are presented in Tables 14 and 15. The scale used ranged from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *a very big influence* and 5 *no influence*. Interestingly, one female participant added 'games, quizzes, language games' to the ways in which she learned English, giving its influence a 1.

Table 14. Influence of different ways of learning languages – female beginners.

	Languages			
	English	German	French	Spanish
Lessons with a teacher	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.3
Trips	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.7
Watching, listening and reading	1.4	1.75	2.0	1.3
Contact with native speakers	3.0	2.25	2.0	2.7
Self-study	2.7	2.25	3.0	2.3

Table 15. Influence of different ways of learning languages – male beginners.

	Languages			
	English	German	French	Spanish[30]
Lessons with a teacher	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.0
Trips	2.9	3.7	4.0	1.0
Watching, listening and reading	1.5	3.0	3.4	1.0
Contact with native speakers	2.1	3.1	3.4	1.0
Self-study	2.6	3.4	4.0	1.0

Apart from the overall consensus that lessons with a teacher had (had) the biggest influence on how they (had) learned the different languages, another consistency was shown in participants by both females and males ranking 'watching, listening and reading in the particular language' second. Also, among female participants there was little variation in the remaining three forms, while the male participants seemed to favor contacts with native speakers over trips and self-study.

As for Afrikaans, Italian, Korean, Catalan and Chinese, lessons with a teacher were rated as having had the biggest influence on how the participants learned the language. Quite the opposite is true for Portuguese and Latin, which the informants learned mainly through self-study.

Finally, as specified above, only 2 participants communicated a slight hearing problem. One female participant wrote that she found it difficult "to hear quiet speech" and one male subject indicated he "sometimes could not catch everything that was said and then, if possible, asked the person to repeat". As explained in Section 4.2, these participants were not excluded from the study. None of the other participants reported a hearing impairment.

As far as the advanced learners are concerned, all informants knew at least one other foreign language. They enumerated the following languages: English (all 9 females and all 6 males), German (6 females and 3 males), Spanish (5 females and 3 males), French (1 female and 2 males), Japanese (1 female), and Russian (1 female).

The self-assessed levels of proficiency for the 4 most frequently learned languages are presented in Table 36. The other two languages scored 2 (Russian) and 3 (Japanese) on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *native-speaker-like competence* and 5 *very badly*.

[30] Only one male subject (had) studied Spanish; ergo, these averages are in fact his scores.

Table 16. Self-assessed proficiency in other foreign languages according to gender and overall – advanced learners.

Languages	Participants – means		
	Female	Male	Overall
English (*N* = 9 + 6[31])	2.7	1.8	2.3
German (*N* = 6 + 3)	3.3	4.0	3.6
Spanish (*N* = 5 + 3)	4.2	4.3	4.25
French (*N* = 1 + 2)	2.0	3.5	3.0

Overall, the knowledge of English was self-assessed as closest to that of native speakers. Also, female participants estimated their knowledge of foreign languages higher than males did, except for English. Table 16 does not show any other consistencies.

The answers to the question of how long the participants had studied the different languages ranged from half a year to 23 years. The mean scores for the particular languages were as follows: English close to 12 years, German almost 9 years, Spanish just over 2 years, and French 3.5 years. The other two languages, Russian and Japanese, had been studied for 2 and 5 years respectively.

With respect to the ways in which the aforementioned languages were mastered, the majority of the students claimed that lessons with a teacher, either at school or during private lessons, (had) had the biggest influence on how they (had) learned the languages they knew. For the 3 most frequency learned languages, all other forms (trips to countries in which the language is spoken; watching, listening and reading in the particular language; contact with native speakers; self-study) were also seen as having had some influence by at least three participants. There is less variation in the manners in which the participants (had) learned French. To illustrate both facts, the results for these four languages are presented in Tables 17 and 18. The scale used ranged from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *a very big influence* and 5 *no influence*. One male subject added 'keeping in touch with students of English' as an alternative way to learning English, giving it a *3* on the scale. Also, one male student failed to assign any value to 'self-study' as a way in which German could be learned.

[31]For each language, the first number of participants refers to the number of females and the second one to the number of males.

Table 17. Influence of different ways of learning languages – female advanced learners.

	Languages			
	English	German	Spanish	French
Lessons with a teacher	1.4	1.7	1.0	1.5
Trips	3.4	2.5	4.2	5.0
Watching, listening and reading	1.2	2.5	3.0	3.0
Contact with native speakers	3.2	2.3	3.0	4.0
Self-study	2.9	4.2	3.8	3.0

Table 18. Influence of different ways of learning languages – male advanced learners.

	Languages			
	English	German	Spanish	French[32]
Lessons with a teacher	1.5	2.3	2.0	3.0
Trips	4.8	3.7	3.0	1.0
Watching, listening and reading	1.0	5.0	3.7	1.0
Contact with native speakers	1.8	4.7	2.7	1.0
Self-study	3.2	5.0	4.3	1.0

Both female and male informants (had) mainly learned most of the languages listed in Tables 37 and 38 with a teacher. A clear exception was English, for the learning of which 'watching, listening and reading' in English were assessed as slightly more influential. No other clear-cut conclusions can be drawn from these tables.

The two different female learners that listed the remaining two languages, Russian and Japanese, (had) learned them mainly through lessons with a teacher and by watching, listening and reading in the particular language.

Also, none of the advanced learners reported any hearing problems (question 5 of part three of the questionnaire).

Using the Common European Framework of References for Languages, often abbreviated to CEF or CEFR, and going by these students' results of the Certificaat Nederlands als Vreemde taal [Certificate Dutch as a Foreign Language], the beginners can be classified as A1 and the (more) advanced learners as B2-C1, depending on whether they are 3BA or 1MA students.

Admittedly, a total of 34 participants is rather low, giving the risk of the results not being objective or comprehensive enough. However, such a situation is not unusual as there are various studies that were also done with a low number of participants, such as Leow (1997) with 28, Leow (2000) with 32 and Williams (2004) with 37. These studies

[32] Only one male participant (had) studied French; ergo, these averages are in fact his scores.

show it is possible to draw meaningful conclusions from studies conducted on a small sample.

Among the 34 participants, there were 2 first-year students who reported a slight hearing problem. However, their results, as shown in Chapter 5, diverged little, if at all, from the norm and therefore were not excluded from the study.

Finally, after volunteering, the participants were told they would each receive a small token of gratitude on completion of the research – a goodie bag with chocolate, some typical Dutch and Flemish sweets, and a Delft Blue Porcelain printed napkin.

4.3. Materials and procedure

As was mentioned in Section 4.1, the experiment consisted of three sessions, listed here in the order in which they were administered.

It is important to note that the participants were not made aware of the purpose of the experiment but were informed that there would be three meetings, all different in length, type of task and content. They also knew there would be a questionnaire to be completed and some listening activities to do.

4.3.1. Session One – the questionnaire

The questionnaire (see Appendix A), whose aim was to determine the amount and type of the participants' exposure to the language and its speakers, their language preferences, opinions of and attitudes towards speakers of Dutch and Flemish, previous language learning experience, and self-reported proficiency in other foreign languages, was divided into three parts.

The first part included a total of 25 questions and supplementary questions divided into 5 sections: reading, watching, listening, contact with the Netherlands and Flanders, and language preferences.

There were two sections in the second part of the questionnaire, one in which the participants were to rate the Dutch on a scale from 1 to 5 and one in which they were to do likewise with the Flemish.

In the third part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to state their year of birth, mark their gender, say how long they had been learning Dutch/Flemish, answer a question concerning their previous foreign language experience, self-assess their level of

acquisition of that language or those languages, and, if they deemed it of concern, declare any hearing problems.

Each part was followed by an open question in which the participants were asked to provide comments, observations and explanations they deemed important and relevant to that part.

The questionnaire was administered on 12 January 2012 and 15 February 2012.

4.3.1.1. Part One of the questionnaire – reading

The main question of this part of the questionnaire was of the Yes/No type and was there to determine whether the participants read in Dutch/Flemish apart from the texts they were required to cover as part of their courses.

If they answered 'yes', the participants were obliged to rank their reasons for reading(for pleasure, to expand vocabulary, to become acquainted with the culture of the countries in which the language is used), with the option of adding other reasons available, and to complete a table specifying what and how often they read (books, Internet, press; on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 stood for *every day* and 5 for *never*). Again an option was provided for them to fill in alternative answers.

4.3.1.2. Part One of the questionnaire – watching and listening

The main questions in these two sections were respectively:

- Do you watch films, TV or programs on the Internet in Dutch/Flemish?
- Do you listen to the radio or programs on the Internet in Dutch/Flemish?

As in the section with questions on reading habits, the participants were expected to answer supplementary questions 'a' and 'b' only if the answer to the main question was affirmative. In both sections, question 'a' listed the same reasons as in the one on reading habits. In the section on watching habits, question 'b' gave the participants a choice between films, news programs, series, sport, cartoons, commercials, quizzes, competitions and games[33], music programs, and documentaries, as well as the possibility to add two sources of their own. In the section on listening, they could choose between informative programs (news, weather forecasts), talks and interviews, radio features and

[33] Quizzes, competitions and games are treated collectively as one entry.

documentaries, quizzes, competitions and games[34], live coverage (concerts, matches, etc.), and music programs (including hit lists).

In both cases, that is watching and listening, the same scale was used for the participants to determine their frequency as in the question on reading.

4.3.1.3. Part One of the questionnaire – contact with the Netherlands and Flanders

This section comprised questions 4, 5 and 6 of the questionnaire.

In question 4, respondents were asked to state whether they knew somebody that comes from the Netherlands apart from their teachers. Those that answered 'yes' needed to determine whether they also kept in touch with that person/those people (on a regular basis). If so, they were expected to complete a table with both the type of contact (telephone conversations, writing messages using messengers, speaking through messengers, writing e-mails, writing text messages, writing traditional letters, visits, shared participation in events like concerts, conferences, training, happenings, holidays, etc.) and its frequency (on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *every day* and 5 stood for *never*). The respondents could also add a type of their own.

Question 5 was exactly the same with the exception that it concerned people from Flanders that participants might possibly know.

The sixth question was: Have you ever been to the Netherlands and/or Flanders? Those that gave an affirmative answer were then asked to choose either the Netherlands or Flanders, or to circle them both (question 6a). Having done so and if applicable, they had to put a cross in the correct box in question 6c to indicate how often they had been to the Netherlands (once, twice, thrice, four times, more often) and to state how long each stay lasted. Similarly, those that had been to Flanders were supposed to do the same in questions 6d and 6e.

4.3.1.4. Part One of the questionnaire – language preferences

The participants were asked to assess Netherlandic Dutch (question 7) and Flemish, or Belgian Dutch (question 8), treating the written and spoken forms of these two language varieties collectively, by putting a cross on a continuum with 5 opposite descriptions on

[34] Quizzes, competitions and games are treated collectively as one entry.

either side. To assist them, a scale from 1 to 5 was once again used, with 1 being closest to the positive description on the left (e.g. easy to understand) and 5 to the negative description on the right (e.g. hard to understand). The 5 descriptions used were: pleasant to listen to vs. unpleasant to listen to, easy to learn vs. difficult to learn, easy to understand vs. difficult to understand, rich in vocabulary vs. with poor vocabulary, and rich in grammar structures vs. without rich grammatical structures.

Next, the informants were expected to decide which language, Dutch or Flemish, they would prefer to learn if given a choice (question 9), and to justify that choice by stating the reason or reasons in an open-ended question (question 10).

4.3.1.5. Part Two of the questionnaire – what participants think of the Dutch and the Flemish

The 4 questions in the second part of the questionnaire were concerned with the informants' assessment of the Dutch and the Flemish.

For questions 1 and 3, a 5-point bipolar adaptation of the so-called 'semantic-differential scales' was used with opposite extremes of 18 personality traits on each end of the poles (see Appendix A for the original in Polish). The participants were supposed to put a cross in one of the boxes to show how strongly they felt a given trait was generally true for either the Dutch (question 1) or the Flemish (question 3). Examples of these traits included intelligent vs. stupid, hard-working vs. lazy, tolerant vs. intolerant, independent vs. dependent, and the like (for the full list, see Table 19). The left-hand adjectives in the grid, such as intelligent and patriotic, are seen as sociably desirable, as opposed to the ones the right, such as dumb and unpatriotic, which are seen as sociably undesirable (Soukop 2009).

Table 19. List of pairs of adjectives representing 18 personality traits.

intelligent	dumb
kind	unkind
strong	weak
hard-working	lazy
good	bad
open	closed
self-confident	insecure
cheerful	sad
educated	uneducated

tolerant	intolerant
natural	unnatural
emotional	reserved
sincere	insincere
gentle	aggressive
cultured	ill-mannered
patriotic	unpatriotic
pragmatic	unpragmatic
independent	dependent

Following, among others, Ladegaard (2000) and Soukop (2009), these pairs of adjectives can be grouped under 6 headings: competence-related, personal sympathy, personal integrity, social attractiveness, feelings-related and others (see Table 20). This division will be used in the analysis of the results (see Chapters 4 and 5 as well as Appendix E).

Table 20. Pairs of adjectives grouped under 6 headings.

Competence-related	intelligent - dumb
	educated - uneducated
Personal sympathy	kind - unkind
	natural - unnatural
	sincere - insincere
Personal integrity	strong - weak
	hard-working - lazy
	self-confident - insecure
	independent - dependent
Social attractiveness	good - bad
	open - closed
	cheerful - sad
	tolerant - intolerant
	cultured - ill-mannered
Feelings-related	emotional - reserved
	gentle - aggressive
Others	patriotic - unpatriotic
	pragmatic - unpragmatic

Questions 2 and 4 presented definitions in the form of statements about the Dutch (question 2) and the Flemish (question 4) that were directly related to the personality traits from questions 1 and 3 (see Table 21). Each adjective was represented by one description, giving a total of 36 statements. Examples included, among others, *(Typical Dutchmen) act rationally and use knowledge they gained* to mean *intelligent* and *(Typical Dutchmen) avoid any kind of effort, do everything without rushing* to mean

lazy. The informants were asked to state how strongly they agreed or disagreed with them by placing a cross in the appropriate box on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 stood for *I agree* and 5 for *I disagree*. The statements were randomized so as not to repeat the order of the adjectives. Also, the order used for the Dutch differed from the one in question 4.

Table 21. List of adjectives and their definitions, including English translations[35].

intelligent	postępują racjonalnie i korzystają ze zdobytej wiedzy	act rationally and use gained knowledge
uneducated	są ludźmi o wąskich horyzontach	are people who have narrow horizons (are narrow-minded)
open	chętnie podejmują nowe wyzwania i zdobywają nowe doświadczenia	like taking up new challenges and gaining new experience(s)
aggressive	zachowują się wrogo i napastliwie	behave with hostility and virulently
kind	są serdeczni i charakteryzują się przyjemną aparycją	are warm-hearted and of pleasant appearance
strong	wiedzą czego chcą i łatwo się nie poddają	know what they want and do not give up easily
unkind	mają przykry sposób bycia	have an unpleasant manner (bearing)
sincere	przedstawiają w sposób bezpośredni swoje zdanie i opinie	present their views and opinions straightforwardly
independent	nie kierują się interesem konkretnej grupy społecznej	are not guided (driven) by the interest of a certain social group
closed	niechętnie rozmawiają z innymi ludźmi, są niegościnni	are not willing to talk to other people, are not hospitable
hard-working	wytrwale dążą do celu i nastawieni są na jego osiągnięcie	persistently strive to reach a goal and expect to be successful at it
lazy	unikają wszelkiego wysiłku, robią wszystko bez pośpiechu	avoid any form of effort, do everything without rushing
dumb	są ograniczeni i naiwni	are thick and naïve
weak	ulegają naciskom, nie radzą sobie z przeciwnościami	succumb to pressure, find it difficult to overcome adversity
bad	są nieżyczliwi, niesympatyczni, gniewni, ponurzy	are unkind, disagreeable, angry, gloomy
tolerant	szanują prawo do odmienności oraz akceptują różnorodność	respect the right to being different and accept variety
good	postępują zgodnie z zasadami moralnymi, są godni naśladowania	act in accordance with moral principles, are exemplary
self-confident	łatwo podejmują decyzje	make decisions easily
cheerful	podchodzą do życia z optymizmem i mają poczucie humoru	approach life with optimism and have a sense of humor

[35] Definitions are taken from *Słownik języka polskiego* (2013) [Dictionary of the Polish language} available at http://sjp.pwn.pl/slownik.

educated	dużo wiedzą o otaczającym ich świecie	know a lot about the world that surrounds them
intolerant	działają w oparciu o stereotypy i uprzedzenia	act according to stereotypes and prejudices
insecure	nie znają swojej wartości	do not know their worth
natural	zachowują się w sposób szczery, niewymuszony	act genuinely and in an unforced manner
emotional	są skłonni do mniej racjonalnych zachowań pod wpływem chwili	are prone to less rational behaviors on the spur of the moment
ill-mannered	nie zachowują wszelkich zwyczajów i zasad współżycia społecznego	do not conform to different norms or rules of social intercourse
insincere	ukrywają swoje myśli, odczucia, zamiary/intencje	hide their thoughts, impressions, intentions
dependent	myślą, że nie mają wpływu na swoje życie, wygłaszają postronne opinie	think they have no influence on their lives, express second-hand opinions
unpragmatic	nie są praktyczni i nie patrzą trzeźwo na świat	are not critical and do not look at the world soberly (level-headedly)
gentle	są dobrotliwi i nastawieni życzliwie do ludzi i świata	are good-natured and have a well-meaning attitude to people and the world
sad	sprawiają wrażenie przygnębionych	seem dejected (depressed)
reserved	zachowują dystans i niechętnie okazują uczucia	keep their distance and are unwilling to show emotions
unpatriotic	nie kultywują tradycji i obrzędów, nie wykazują postawy prospołecznej	do not cultivate traditions and rites, do not adopt a prosocial attitude
pragmatic	koncentrują się na działaniach, które są realne i gwarantują skuteczność	concentrate on (taking) action which is realistic and guarantees effectiveness
patriotic	przywiązują wagę do (swojej) kultury (narodowej)	attach significance to (their) (national) culture
cultured	są dobrze wychowani	are well-brought up
unnatural	często stwarzają pozory	often keep up appearances

4.3.1.6. Part Three of the questionnaire – information about the participants

The first three questions of this part of the questionnaire concerned the participants' year of birth, their gender and how long they had been learning Dutch/Flemish.

Question 4 consisted of 4 parts, the first one being of the Yes/No type with the aim being to determine whether the respondents knew any other foreign languages. If an affirmative answer was given, they were asked to proceed to supplementary questions 'a', 'b' and 'c'. First, they were to list those languages and self-assess how well they knew them on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *native-speaker-like competence* and 5 *very badly*. Next, in supplementary question 'b', they were asked to state how long they

had been learning them. Supplementary question 'c' concerned the way in which the languages were learned. The participants were provided with a table, five ways in which languages are generally learnt, a scale from 1 to 5 (with 1 meaning *a very big influence* and 5 *no influence*), and the possibility to add an option of their own choosing. The task's aim was to assess how big the influence of the various forms was on how they learned the different languages. The 5 forms listed were:

- lessons with a teacher (at school, during private lessons, etc.),
- trips to countries in which the language is spoken,
- watching, listening and reading in the particular language,
- contact with native speakers, and
- self-study.

Question number 5 of this part of the questionnaire was included to check whether any of the respondents had a hearing disability and, if so, for them to describe it.

4.3.2. Session Two – speakers of Dutch and Flemish reading the same text

Session two of the experiment consisted of two tasks (see Appendix C), the first one of which comprised a set of 4 main questions with the first two followed by 2 supplementary questions and task two being a verbal guise task with a replica of the 5-point bipolar semantic-differential scales used in the questionnaire.

When completing the tasks, the participants assessed 24 speakers of Dutch and Flemish while listening to recordings of them reading the exact same text.

Session two was administered on 18 January 2012 and 22 February 2012.

4.3.2.1. The text

The text (see Appendix B) used for this session was downloaded from the website of a Belgian independent and progressive newspaper, De Morgen, and is available at http://www.demorgen.be/dm/nl/990/Buitenland/article/detail/1129239/2010/07/05/Nederlandse-paars-plus-onderhandelingen-worden-moeilijk.dhtml (ANP/MVDB 2010). The article is entitled "Nederlandse paars-plus onderhandelingen worden moeilijk" [Dutch purple-plus negotiations are becoming difficult] and is concerned with the post-election government-forming process in the Netherlands in 2010.

"Purple-plus" refers to a variety of a purple government, which, in turn, includes liberal and social-democratic political parties in coalition. The notion is known in both the Netherlands and Belgium.

In the Netherlands such a government is typically formed by three parties: PvdA, VVD and D66, i.e. excluding, among others, the Christian-democratic CDA. In 2010, after the parliamentary elections, the three coalition parties did not have a majority and hence their leaders started talks with GroenLinks, a left-wing political party that advocates freedom, tolerance, and a green and social approach to life (GroenLinks 2012), making it a potential 'plus' party in the purple coalition (ANP 2010b). The negotiations, however, failed over financial issues (ANP 2010a).

The article used for the experiment mentions the four parties involved in the negotiations along with the names of both their leaders[36] and two negotiators[37], called *informateurs* 'informers' in Dutch and Flemish. It also mentions Herman Tjeenk Willink, vice-president of the Council of State of the Netherlands from 1997 to 2012 (Raad van State 2012), who stresses the level of difficulty of the negotiations at the same time arguing for a Purple-plus coalition.

The article was selected for a variety of reasons:

- it was up to date at the time of making the recordings and concerned a phenomenon known in the Netherlands and Flanders, so the assumption was that the readers would at least to some extent be familiar with its subject matter, names, events, and the like, making reading easier,
- it was clear the material would be used at least a year later, minimizing the chance of the participants being influenced in any way other than linguistic aspects,
- there are a myriad of phonetic hints in the text which should, or at least might, have made it clear to the listener which variety was spoken, enabling the listeners to differentiate between a Dutch reader/speaker and one from Flanders (see Table 22).

[36] Mark Rutte (VVD), Job Cohen (PvdA), Femke Halsema (GroenLinks) and Alexander Pechtold (D66).
[37] Uri Rosenthal and Jacques Wallage.

Table 22. List of phonetic hints in the text *Nederlandse paars-plus onderhandelingen worden moeilijk* [Dutch purple-plus negotiations are becoming difficult][38].

Phonetic hints	Examples from the text
last names	a. Wallage – the 'g' is pronounced as /ʒ/ and speakers of Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch would both be expected to pronounce it as such; the difference may lie in the pronunciation of the final –e: /ə/ in Netherlandic Dutch and silent in Belgian Dutch b. Rosenthal – the 's' is pronounced as /z/; speakers of Belgian Dutch (likely not be familiar with it from the news) may be tempted to pronounce the 's' as /s/
names of politicians	a. Job Cohen – the first name is pronounced as /jɔp/, the last name /koːɦɛn/ with second-syllable stress; speakers of Belgian Dutch (or speakers who are unfamiliar with the name) may say/read the 'j' as /ʒ/ and the 'b' as /b/; they may also read the last name either with stress on the first syllable or the way a speaker of English would, namely /koʊən/ b. Halsema – the name carries stress on the first syllable and the 'e' is pronounced as /ə/; speakers of Belgian Dutch (or speakers who are unfamiliar with the name) may, or are even likely to, stress the second syllable and by doing so pronounce the 'e' as /eː/
names of political parties	PvdA – this abbreviation is usually read or said as individual letters but some Dutch speakers read the full name, which is Partij van de Arbeid, when they see the abbreviation
'w' pronounced bilabially in Belgian Dutch	worden, wil, wel, Willink, winst, winnaars
soft 'g' in Belgian Dutch	GroenLinks, maandag, begonnen,

[38] For more information on phonetic differences between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, see Section 3.3.3.

	maandagmiddag, tegenover, gezamenlijk, spoedig, omslag, buitengewoon, lastig, volgens, verkiezingsuitslag
dropping certain initial and final sounds in Belgian Dutch	initial – het; final – niet, moet, dat
<ci> and <ti> - alveolar 's' in Belgian Dutch	coalitie, combinatie, combinaties
final-n pronounced more often in Belgian Dutch, esp. the final-n of verbs and plural nouns	verbs – begonnen, worden, hadden, zullen, inspannen, komen, voeren; plural nouns – democraten, onderhandelingen; other words – samen
different realizations of 'r' in Belgian Dutch and Netherlandic Dutch	Nederland, liberale, democraten, onderhandelingen, worden, over, Raad, eindverslag, informateur, Beatrix, senator, Uri, fractievoorzitter, Rutte, and many more.
diphthongization in Netherlandic Dutch	the 'e' in Nederland, tegenover, leden and zetels; the 'eu' in informateur and serieus; the 'oo' in buitengewoon; the 'ee' in meeste and één
fricatives /g/, /v/ and /z/ made voiceless in Netherlandic Dutch	VVD, van, PvdA, D66 (66 = zesenzestig), vorming, zijn, advies, verklaard, ze, zich, verwachting, voeren, verkiezing, vier, veertien, zetels
possible lowering of diphtongs in Netherlandic Dutch	zijn, buitengewoon, uitslag

4.3.2.2. The recordings

Even though collecting and then analyzing recorded data is complex and time-consuming, recordings have many advantages, including repeatability, selectiveness, and, more often than not, clear context (Clemente 2008).

The recordings used in session two of the experiment were made in the summer of 2010 in different places in the Netherlands and northern Belgium. A total of 13 Flemish men, 10 Flemish women, 10 Dutch men and 20 Dutch women were recorded reading a text on Dutch politics published in a Belgian newspaper. All the recordings were made

following basic criteria enumerated by Clemente (2008), i.e. in identical conditions with minimal surrounding noise and the speakers speaking directly into the microphone.

From these 56 recordings, 24 were selected for the experiment. The selection criteria used were:

- an equal number of speakers for each language variety and gender,
- a wide range of ages giving the same or a similar average,
- an equal distribution of level of education of the speakers,
- similar or identical quality of the recording.

The Flemish men chosen for the research ranged in age from 21 to 60, giving a mean of 41. In a table given to the speakers prior to or following the recording process, they listed their level of education as primary or secondary (4 speakers) and tertiary (2 speakers). The Flemish women ranged in age from 19 to 77, with a mean of 45.5 and a level of education given as primary or secondary by 3 participants and tertiary also by 3. The age range for the Dutch women was from 21 to 60, with a mean of 42.5. Four of them listed a primary or secondary level of education and 2 a tertiary. The Dutch men had a mean of 43.1 years and represented the widest range, namely from 17 to 79. One of them admitted to still being in school, 3 listed a primary or secondary level of education and 2 a tertiary.

In addition, there were certain features of the recorded material that could either help or hinder the listeners, and these needed to be addressed[39] (Table 23):

Table 23. Features of the recorded material (session two).

+	-
• there were no background noises; • the listeners heard the same text, so once they were familiar with the example, they knew exactly what to expect, both in terms of the task and the lines[40]; • the change in pace and manner of reading kept the listener focused.	• the repetitive mode of the task may have made it monotonous causing the listener to switch off and/or lose interest or concentration; • multi-tasking – to do the first task, for instance, the participants had to listen to the speakers/readers, try to distinguish between Dutch and Flemish, answer a total of 6 different questions, mark the answers following the instructions and make sure they turned the page when necessary all at the same time.

[39] I would like to thank Paulina Krasicka for making me aware of the impact such features of the recorded material may have on the listener (Krasicka 2012).
[40] Some participants left the room quoting whole lines from the text.

4.3.2.3. The tasks

The first task, as stated before, consisted of 4 questions with the first two followed by 2 supplementary questions, whose aim was to collect confidence ratings on a binary scale.

In question 1a, the participants had to determine whether the person spoke Dutch or Flemish, with question 1b expecting them to express how confident they were on a scale from 1, meaning *confident*, to 5, meaning *not confident*. Such a binary scale used for determining high vs. low confidence, is a well-established tool in second language acquisition research (see, for example, Ionin 2012). Questions 2a and 2b were identical in structure but concerned the speaker's gender. In other words, the participants were asked to circle the answer 'male' or 'female' and again rate their confidence. Question number 3 focused on the speaker's approximate age. The participants were provided with possible answers in the form of 5-point age brackets ranging from 16-20 through, for example 31-35 and 46-50, to the 71 and higher band. The last question in the first task concerned the speaker's reading/speaking style, which was to be assessed by the participants on four 5-point scales. They were to decide whether the speaker read/spoke *clearly* or *unclearly*, *carefully* or *carelessly*, *nicely* or *not nicely*, and *comprehensibly* or *incomprehensibly*, with the positive adjectives receiving a '1' on the scale and, consequently, the negative ones a '5'.

Before they started to listen to the first recording, the participants were told that an example would precede the actual listening task and they were given a minute to familiarize themselves with the first task. They were also told they could but did not have to supply answers in the example. When they unanimously decided they were ready, the recording was played. They could hear each speaker, including the one in the example, for 45 seconds exactly. With various speakers reading at a different pace, this meant that the text was cut off in different places. Between speakers there was a 10-second break for the participants to complete their answers and turn the page. Also, after the example, the recording was stopped and the participants were asked whether the volume and seating arrangement were to their liking, and whether they had any questions or doubts. Only when the participants were fully satisfied was the recording restarted and played without any interruptions. The participants had an additional 30 seconds after they finished listening to the last person to check whether they had signed their names, given all the answers, and to submit their answer sheets.

The second task (of the verbal guise type) was administered immediately following the first task. This time no explanation was required as the participants, having already completed the exact same table in the questionnaire, were familiar with the format and layout. They were told to use the table to assess speakers reading the same text. They were, however, not made aware of the fact that these were the same speakers as in task one recorded in a randomized order.

For the same reasons as before, the recording started with an example. After that, the participants listened to each speaker for 90 seconds, which was twice as much as in task one due to the length of the accompanying task. Between the speakers there were 10-second breaks. At the end the participants were given 30 seconds to check everything.

The order of the speakers for the two tasks in session two of the experiment was randomized as follows:

- Task 1: example - FW59[41] - DM17 - DM46 - DM24 - DW21 - FW27 - FW19 - FW39 - DW60 - FM44 - FM60 - DW46 - FM41 - DW50 - FM30 - DM43 – FM21 - FW77 - DM79 - FW52 - DW48 - DW30 - FM50 - DM50 (in other words, the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch were numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 12, 14, 16, 19, 21, 22 and 24 on the recording, while those of Belgian Dutch – 1, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 17, 18, 20, and 23).
- Task 2: example - DW21 - DW46 - FW52 - FM41 - FW39 - DM50 - DM24 - DM79 - FM50 - FW19 - FW77 - FW59 - FM60 - DM17 - DW50 - DW48 - DW60 - DM43 - DW30 - DM46 - FM21 - FM44 - FM30 - FW27 (in other words, the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch were numbers 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19 and 20 on the recording, while of Belgian Dutch 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 21, 22, 23 and 24).

4.3.3. Session Three – Dutch and Flemish actors playing the same roles

Session three of the study consisted of two tasks (see Appendix D), the first one of which comprised a set of 3 main questions with the first two followed by 2 supplementary questions and task two being a replica of the 5-point bipolar semantic-differential scales used both in the questionnaire and in the second task in session two.

[41] FW59 means 'Flemish woman aged 59'; similarly, DW = Dutch woman, DM = Dutch man, FM = Flemish man; the number always indicates the speaker's age.

When completing the tasks, the participants assessed 12 Dutch and Flemish actors who played in 4 films.

Session three was administered on 25 January 2012 and 29 February 2012. For reasons, see Section 3.2.

4.3.3.1. The recordings and the films

The films used for this session were:

- *Loft*, a Belgian, or rather Flemish[42], thriller directed in 2008 by Erik Van Looy,
- *Loft*, the Dutch 2010 remake of the Flemish version, directed by Antoinette Beumer,
- *Alles is Liefde* [All is Love], a Dutch romantic comedy directed in 2007 by Joram Lürsem,
- *Zot van A.* [Crazy about A.], the 2010 Flemish version of *Alles is Liefde*, directed by Jan Verheyen.

There were different reasons for choosing these films for the third session. To begin with, the two sets of films follow the same script, allowing for excerpts used in the verbal guise tasks to be similar if not identical. Secondly, films have rarely been used in verbal guise tasks, which make the present study more innovative. And thirdly, using films proved to be an added value to the multi-method approach to studying language attitudes and awareness in the sense that the accompanying tasks complemented the findings from the other two sessions.

The film *Loft* is about 5 married men who are all close friends. They share a loft where they can meet their mistresses in peace and quiet, which works well until one day they discover the dead body of a young woman in the loft. None of them claim to know her or to know how she got there. However, they are the only ones with a key, so very quickly they start to mistrust and accuse each other. As they try to discover what happened, they also discover that they know each other much less than they originally thought. In the end, one of them commits suicide while three take revenge on the person responsible for the whole ordeal, the main character and originator of the loft deal.

The Dutch and Flemish version follow the same storyline, the main difference being the names of the characters. For example, Vincent from the Flemish *Loft* is the Dutch Matthias.

[42] The term 'Flemish' is preferred here since the director and actors are all Flemish and the language spoken in the film is also Flemish (an alternative name for Belgian Dutch, as explained in Chapter 3).

The website www.imdb.com gives a good plot summary of *Alles is Liefde*:

> Klaasje has divorced Dennis, who cheated on her with a school teacher. Dennis would like her back, but when she moves in with a young lover it looks as if he has missed the boat. Meanwhile, Klaasje's best friend Simone is the pivot of her family. Her husband Ted often feels redundant and he does not have the guts to tell her that he has been laid off. Pool attendant Victor is looking forward to marrying the love of his life, Kees. But Kees has doubts and keeps his fears at bay during weekends spent 'larping' (Live Action Role Play). Victor's sister Kiki, a sales assistant at department store Bijenkorf, is dreaming of a prince on a white horse. But she is unaware of the fact that a real prince, Valentijn, is crazy about her. With the arrival of a mysterious Santa Claus, all these amorous ups and downs reach a climax, while the happy endings come closer too (Plot summary of Alles is Liefde 2012).

Zot van A., the Flemish counterpart of *Alles is Liefde*, follows, to a large extent, the same storyline but there are many more differences between these two films than between the two versions of *Loft*, making selection of appropriate listening material more challenging. Some of these differences are:

- the prince in *Alles is liefde* is a famous tennis player in *Zot van A*.,
- the names of the characters differ, for instance, the Dutch Klaasje and Kees are the Flemish Anna and Fred respectively.

Interestingly, the title Zot van A. gives a clear indication of its Flemish origin because the adjective *zot* 'crazy' (as in *to be crazy about something or somebody*) is a word typically used in Flanders.

The recordings were made first by selecting identical characters (for example, the housewife from *Alles is liefde* and the housewife from *Zot van A*., the prostitutes from the two *Loft* films, and so on), followed by choosing the same lines said by these characters. These were then linked and recorded one after another. The film-based recordings became, as a result, audio ones.

These recordings, similarly to the ones used in task two, exhibit certain features that could either help or hinder the listeners (Table 24):

Table 24. Features of the recorded material (session three).

+	-
• the films are directed, so there is no hesitation, repetition or self-correction; • the background noises mentioned in the right column indirectly force the listener to concentrate more; • since the listeners can only hear the actors, there are no visual distractors that could take their minds off the task at hand;	• there are background noises such as laughter, music, car engines running, etc.; • the actors speak at a fast pace and most 'turns' are dynamic; • even though these are films, the listeners cannot see the actors, so there are no paralinguistic features (gestures, facial expressions) that could facilitate

• there are elements of humor – those listeners that 'catch' them should be helped by these funny elements as humor relieves stress and reduces anxiety (Torok et al. 2004: 15), enhances students' attention and improves attitudes towards the subject matter (James 2004: 93).	understanding and, possibly, make it easier to distinguish the different varieties; • multi-tasking – to do the first task, for instance, the participants have to listen to the speakers, try to distinguish between Dutch and Flemish, answer a total of 5 different questions, mark the answers following the instructions and make sure they turn the page when necessary all at the same time.

To ensure equal distribution of gender, language variety, and the total number of characters from the 4 films, the following 12 characters were selected:

- 3 Dutch females - the prostitute from *Loft*, the mother from *Alles is Liefde* and the organizer from *Alles is Liefde*,
- 3 Flemish females - the prostitute from *Loft*, the mother from *Zot van A.* and the organizer from *Zot van A.*,
- 3 Dutch males - the suicide victim from *Loft*, the main character from *Loft* and the gay from *Alles is Liefde*,
- 3 Flemish males - the suicide victim from *Loft*, the main character from *Loft* and the gay from *Zot van A*.

4.3.3.2. The tasks

The two tasks in session three were exactly the same as in session two with the exception that this time the participants were not asked to guess the speakers' age in the first one. Such a task was rendered impossible and useless since the speakers were actors playing roles, which could mean a discrepancy between their actual age and the age of the characters they played. Besides, the ages of most characters as they appear in the films are not stated anywhere.

The procedure, in terms of the content of the remaining questions as well as the order of the questions and tasks, was also identical to how the second task in session two was administered. The only aspect that differed was the length of the recordings.

In the first task, the participants could listen to each speaker for 30 seconds, which was less than the 45 seconds they were given in the first task of session two. The reason was twofold. As explained above, there was no question about age, which they had classified as the most time-consuming question in the informal post-experiment feedback they had given a week earlier. Also, the participants were well familiar with

the layout and procedure, leading to the assumption that 30 seconds would suffice for completion of the task. Observation of the participants completing the task confirmed and justified this assumption. In the second task, they listened to each speaker for 70 seconds rather than the 90 seconds they had in the second task of session two. Again, the main underlying reason was that the participants were well familiar with the layout and procedure. Also, with the aim of ensuring the lines said by the actors were identical or as similar as possible, stringing together more than 70 seconds of lines for each character was virtually impossible.

As already stated, the other aspects of the procedure were the same as in the second task of session two. This meant that in question 1a, the participants had to determine whether the person spoke Dutch or Flemish, with question 1b expecting them to express how confident they were. Questions 2a and 2b again concerned the speaker's gender and question 3 the speaker's speaking style, which was to be assessed by the participants on four 5-point scales. Like before, each listening task was preceded by an example, in which they could but did not have to supply answers. Again, the breaks between the speakers were 10 seconds and the participants were given additional time at the end of each task for the same reasons as before. As in session two, the second task, whose purpose was again for the participants to assess speakers using the same table as in the questionnaire and the second task of session two, was administered immediately following the first task and also here no additional explanations were given, so the participants were not made aware of the fact that they were going to listen to the same speakers as in the first task recorded in a randomized order.

The randomized order of the speakers in the two tasks was as follows:

- Task 1: example - mother from *Alles is Liefde* - prostitute from the Flemish *Loft* - gay from *Alles is Liefde* - suicide victim from the Dutch *Loft* - organizer from *Zot van A.* - main character from the Flemish *Loft* - prostitute from the Dutch *Loft* - gay from *Zot van A.* - suicide victim from the Flemish *Loft* - mother from *Zot van A.* - main character from the Dutch *Loft* - organizer from *Alles is Liefde* (in other words, the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch were persons A, C, D, G, K and L on the recording and those of Belgian Dutch B, E, F, H, I and J, with the order of the speakers in task one being as follows: mother from *Alles is Liefde* - prostitute from the Flemish *Loft* - gay from *Alles is Liefde* - suicide from the Dutch *Loft* - organizer from *Zot van A.* - main character from the Flemish *Loft* - prostitute from the Dutch

Loft - gay from *Zot van A.* - suicide victim from the Flemish *Loft* - mother from *Zot van A.* - main character from the Dutch *Loft* - organizer from *Alles is Liefde*[43]).

- Task 2: example - prostitute from the Dutch *Loft* - main character from the Dutch *Loft* - organizer from *Zot van A.* - gay from *Zot van A.* - mother from *Alles is Liefde* - prostitute from the Flemish *Loft* - suicide victim from the Dutch *Loft* - gay from Alles if Liefde - mother from *Zot van A.* - suicide victim from the Flemish *Loft* - organizer from *Alles is Liefde* - main character from the Flemish *Loft* (in other words, the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch were persons A, B, E, G, H and K on the recording, while of the Belgian Dutch were C, D, F, I, J and L, giving the following order: prostitute from the Dutch *Loft* - main character from the Dutch *Loft* - organizer from *Zot van A.* - gay from Zot van A. - mother from *Alles is Liefde* - prostitute from the Flemish *Loft* – suicide victim from the Dutch *Loft* - gay from *Alles if Liefde* - mother from *Zot van A.* - suicide victim from the Flemish *Loft* - organizer from *Alles is Liefde* - main character from the Flemish *Loft*).

4.3.4. Pilot study

Before the experiment was carried out, a pilot study was conducted on January 4, 2012. Pilot studies are an invaluable part of any social science research in that they allow researchers to pre-test methods and instruments (van Teijlingen and Hundley 2001), which is especially important in quantitative studies as they "rely on psychometric properties of the research instrument" (Dörnyei 2007: 75). This particular pilot study was used to determine:

- how much time was needed to administer each session,
- whether there were any mistakes or inconsistencies in the questionnaire and tasks, both in terms of language and merits,
- how long the breaks should be between the different recordings,
- if the quality of the recordings was comparable, and
- whether it was enough to listen only once to the recording in order to complete each task.

The pilot study participants chosen for this study were second-year undergraduate students of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University. Out of 13 students, 6 volunteered to

[43] The Dutch films are: *Alles is Liefde* and (Dutch) *Loft*; the Flemish ones are: *Zot vam A*. and (Flemish) *Loft*.

partake. They participated in 2 of the 3 sessions: the questionnaire and both tasks of session two (with only two recordings rather than 24). The recordings were different from the ones used in the actual study.

When filling in the questionnaire, the participants were asked to indicate how much time they needed to complete it by writing down the exact time they started and finished, to mark any language mistakes they could notice, and to comment in any way they deemed necessary and important upon any of the questions and answers.

In task one of session two, the students were asked to determine whether they needed more time than the time of the recording itself to complete the table. In task two they were asked to write down how much time exactly they needed to answer each question.

On completion of both sessions, the participants were invited to comment on the order of the two tasks in session two. They unanimously agreed it should be reversed to make fulfillment easier. They were also requested to provide possible answers to all the entries marked 'other' in the questionnaire, for instance[44]:

- What can you read in a foreign language other than books, the Internet and media such as newspapers and magazines?
- What type of TV programs can you watch other than the ones listed on page 2 of the questionnaire?

Some of the answers included comic books and brochures for the former, and reality shows for the latter, clearly confirming that 'other' answers were possible.

The students' feedback led to the following conclusions and alterations (Table 25):

Table 25. Changes applied as a result of the pilot study.

In the pilot study	Subsequent changes and decisions
- concerning the questionnaire -	
In questions 1, 2 and 3 of part 1 of the questionnaire only Dutch was listed, e.g. Do you watch films, TV or programs on the Internet in Dutch?	Add Flemish to the question in order to be consistent in the division between these two varieties and so as not to confuse participants, e.g. Do you watch films, TV or programs on the Internet in Dutch/Flemish?

[44] Questions 1b and 2b in the questionnaire.

In the questions concerning how frequently various activities are performed, i.e. how often they read, watch and listen, students were asked to choose between 'every day', 'a few times a week' and 'occasionally'.	Ask them to mark their answer on a scale from 1 to 5[45] and then add it to the question on *what* they read, watch and listen, e.g. What and how often do you read in Dutch/Flemish? Mark on the scale.
- concerning the tasks in parts two and three of the experiment -	
In part two students were supposed to complete the table with adjectives first.	Reverse the order of the tasks in parts two and three, i.e. students should answer the four questions concerning the language, gender, age and manner of reading/speaking (only the first three in the case of part three of the study) before completing the table with adjectives.
No examples were given before the tasks in parts 2 and 3.	Each listening task should be preceded by an example[46], the main purpose being to make the participants acquainted with the task, pace and volume,
One-second breaks between listening tasks.	Introduce longer breaks between all the different listening tasks to provide the participants with additional time for completion.[47]
- concerning language and stylistics -	
<u>In the questionnaire:</u> - part 1, Q[48] 4b: Jaki to jest ….? - part 1, Qs 6b and 6d: Jak często …? - part 2, Q 2: wytrwale dążą do i nastawieni są na osiągnięcie celu - part 2, Q 2: są dobrze postrzegani przez innych, są dobrze wychowani 'are perceived well by others, are raised well' used to define the adjective *kulturalny* 'well-mannered' - minor spelling mistakes throughout the questionnaire	→ Jaki jest to …? (a stylistic change in word order in a WH-question) → Ile razy …? (both mean "how often" but "jak często" is a direct translation from English) → wytrwale dążą do celu i nastawieni są na jego osiągnięcie (a stylistic change) → są dobrze wychowani (i.e. without the first part as most students in the pilot study claimed to see a difference in meaning between the two definitions) → weż - weź, zazncacz - zaznacz, wyrwale - wytrwale, wykuzują - wykazują

[45] Such semantic differential scales are used in many other parts of the experiments as well.
[46] Each example, in turn, is preceded by a 5-second break and followed by either a 10-second break (Part two) or a 15-second break (Part three).
[47] The breaks in the actual study: 10 seconds after each person they listen to.
[48] Q = question; Qs = questions.

In the tasks: - one spelling mistake	→ weż - weź

Chapter 5: Awareness and attitudes among Polish students of Dutch: results and discussion

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 5 presents both a detailed description of all the results obtained in the three sessions of the study and a discussion of these findings. Also, the aim of (language) awareness raising and (language) attitude development will be discussed in terms of how it can be achieved mainly during classes at university. However, implications for work outside the classroom setting will be addressed as well. Moreover, certain limitations of the present study will be outlined and followed by appropriate recommendations for future work.

The results are presented in chronological order, starting from the first session, the questionnaire. It must be noted that all demographic information as well as details concerning the participants' experience with and exposure to foreign languages, which the participants provided when completing part three of the questionnaire, has already been presented in Section 4.2.

5.2. Results – Session One (the questionnaire)

The aim of the questionnaire (see Appendix A) was to determine the amount and type of the participants' exposure to the language and its speakers, their language preferences, opinions of and attitudes towards speakers of Dutch and Flemish, previous language

learning experience, and self-reported proficiency in other foreign languages. It was divided into three parts.

5.2.1. Part One of the questionnaire

5.2.1.1. Reading

Out of the 19 beginners that completed the questionnaire, 12 (6 females and 6 males) stated they read in Dutch or Flemish more than just the texts they were required to cover as part of their courses, that is in their free time. Seven (3 females and 4 males) declared they did not.

Those that answered 'yes' to the question on reading habits were asked to rank the three reasons given (for pleasure, to expand vocabulary, to become acquainted with the culture of the countries in which the language is used) possibly adding one or two of their own. Overall, the beginners ranked them in the order they were given. However, there were differences in the rankings of females and males. The 6 females ranked 'for pleasure' first, followed by 'becoming acquainted with the culture of the countries in which the language is used' and 'expanding vocabulary'. Three of them added one more reason each, namely: for research purposes (ranking it second), for e-mail correspondence (ranked fifth by this person) and for reading something interesting that happens to be available (ranked second). The 6 males, on the other hand, ordered the reasons differently with 'expanding vocabulary' coming first, 'for pleasure' second and 'becoming acquainted with the culture of the countries in which the language is used' third. Two of them also added one more reason each: when some information is only available in Dutch (ranked first by this person) and something the participant called "facebook stalking" (ranking it fourth).

In terms of what and how often they read, both the females and the males listed the Internet as the source they used most often. On a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *every day* and 5 *never*, 4 females and 1 male gave the Internet a 1, 1 female and 2 males a 2, 1 female and 2 males a 3, and 1 male a 4, giving an overall mean score of 1.5 for the females and 2.5 for the males. The press came a distant second (M = 3.0[49] for the females and M = 4.0 for males) and books third (M = 4.2 for females and M = 4.7 for

[49] the lower the mean score the higher the frequency (of reading, for instance).

males). Only 2 females added a source of their own. One listed e-mails, giving this source a 3. It is safe to assume, however, as the debriefing with the participants confirmed, that other participants saw e-mails as part of the Internet option. Another female supplemented the list with food labels, giving this source of reading material a 2 on the scale.

Out of the 15 advanced learners that completed the questionnaire, 14 (all 9 females and 5 males) confirmed they read texts in Dutch or Flemish other than the ones required in their courses. One male stated he did not.

Overall, the participants classified the whys and wherefores in the same order as they were listed but there were differences in the sequence provided by the females, who put 'expanding vocabulary' (M = 2.1) slightly ahead of 'pleasure' (M = 2.2) with 'becoming acquainted with the culture' (M = 3.0) third, and the males, for whom 'pleasure' (M = 1.2) was far more important than the other two motivating factors (M = 2.6 and 2.4). Also, 4 different reasons were appended to the list. Two female participants wrote they needed to read in Dutch and Flemish in their work as translators, ranking it first and second. Two participants, one female and one male, found it necessary and important to do additional reading for the purpose of writing their theses with the female giving this reason a 1 and the male a 3. The remaining two motives, that is 'some information is only available in Dutch' and 'to sustain knowledge', listed by 2 females, were ranked first and third respectively.

The table used to determine what and how often they read included 3 options (books, Internet, press), the possibility to add one or two sources and a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant *every day* and 1 *never*. The Internet proved most frequently used (M = 2.2), followed by press and books (M = 3.8 each). The range of mean scores among the male participants (from M = 2.5 to M = 3.5) was much smaller than among the females (from M = 2.1 to M = 4.1). In addition, one female declared she also read work-related information (marked 2 on her scale). It is not clear why one male subject gave no ratings to any of the sources. Even if he had put a cross in the box with the value *5*, this would not have been consistent with his affirmative answer to question 1.

When comparing the results of the beginners and the advanced learners in search for statistically significant differences by means of a t-test, only books as a source for reading proved to be statistically significant (M for beginners = 4.42; SD = .699; M for advanced learners = 3.57; SD = 1.089; t = -2.344; df = 24; p = .028), clearly indicating

that advanced learners read more books than beginners. It has to be stressed though that both groups read rather few books.

When analyzing the results by gender, no statistically significant differences were found.

5.2.1.2. Watching

Fifteen beginners, 7 females and 8 males, asserted they watched films, television or Internet programs in Dutch or Flemish. Four (2 females and 2 males) answered they did not.

Regarding the reasons, the overall ranking was identical as in the case of reading, namely: for pleasure, to expand vocabulary, to become acquainted with the culture of the countries in which the language was used. This time, however, there were no differences between the order in the rankings of females and males, both of which, obviously, had the same sequence as the overall ranking. The mean scores (*M*) were:

- for pleasure – 2.0 for females and 1.6 for males,
- to expand vocabulary – 2.1 for females and 2.0 for males,
- to become acquainted with the culture of the countries in which the language is used – 2.4 for females and 2.25 for males.

Four participants, 2 females and 2 males, added reasons of their own. One female mentioned 'testing herself' as the principal reason, while another one, along with one male, acknowledged 'exposure' as an important motive (with the female ranking it highest and the male second). Another male declared he watched programs in Dutch with the aim of 'learning pronunciation', ranking it third. Interestingly, one of the females left 'for pleasure' out of her ranking.

As for the types of programs and the frequency of watching them, the informants had a choice between 9 different options and were supplied with the same 5-point scale as in the question on reading. The overall ranking was as follows: films (M = 3.5), news programs (M = 3.6), commercials and music programs (both M = 3.6), cartoons (M = 3.8), sport (M = 4.2), series (M = 4.3), documentaries (M = 4.4), and quizzes, competitions and games[50] (M = 4.75). There were some clear differences, however, between the rankings of females and males. The first contrast lies in the mean scores,

[50] Quizzes, competitions and games are treated collectively as one entry.

which for females ranged from 2.9 to 5.0 and for males from 3.7 to 4.6. Also the order varied substantially as the only type of program rated similarly were the quizzes, competitions and games, which both groups watched least often. In fact, none of the females that included these programs in their assessment claimed to ever watch them.

The females ranked all the types as follows: news programs, commercials and cartoons tied, films, music programs, series, documentaries, sport, and quizzes, competitions and games. The ranking put forward by the males was: films and music programs tied, sport, commercials, news programs and documentaries tied, series, cartoons, and quizzes, competitions and games. Also, only two participants added a type of program of their own. A female mentioned video clips, giving them a 3 on the scale, and a male listed YouTube, a video-sharing website, with focus on interviews (a 4 on the scale). The choice of video clips may seem surprising as they could be seen as part of one of the options given, namely 'music programs'.

Of importance, even though the scale the participants were provided with made it possible for them to give a *5*, meaning *never*, various types of programs were excluded from their rankings.

All 15 advanced learners answered 'yes' to the question whether they watched films, television or Internet programs in Dutch or Flemish.

Both female and male informants watched films, television or Internet programs 'for pleasure' (overall M = 1.5) more than for language-related reasons as 'expanding vocabulary' scored a mean of 2.3 and 'becoming acquainted with the culture' - 2.6. The male participants particularly set great store by the pleasure factor with 4 of them placing it first and one second. Unlike their female peers, they valued the cultural aspect slightly higher than the lexical one. There were 3 more reasons offered by females (New Year's resolution, "because I like them" and 'for exposure') and 1, 'for the purpose of learning pronunciation', by a male. Their individual scores were 1, 2, 4 and 2 respectively.

The overall top 3 types of programs were commercials (M = 2.9), the news (M = 3.1) and films (M = 3.5). This was in direct proportion to the classifications by the female (M = 3.2, 3.3 and 3.6) and male participants (M = 2.5, 2.7 and 3.3). The biggest discrepancy, on the other hand, occurred in the assessment of cartoons, which the female participants ranked fourth with a mean score of 3.8, while all the males claimed to never ever watch them giving this type of program an across-the-board score of 5.0. Another type that scored a mean score of 5.0 were sports programs but this time among female

participants. Both the overall ranking and the one by males saw documentaries in fourth position (*M* = 4.0 and 3.5), while the females had placed them in sixth (*M* = 4.3). Interestingly, TV series and quizzes, competitions, games were tied in fifth place in all three rankings – overall (*M* = 4.1), females (*M* = 4.2) and males (*M* = 4.0). Cartoons (*M* = 4.3), music programs (*M* = 4.5) and sport (*M* = 4.9) occupied places 6, 7 and 8 in the overall ranking. Music programs were also sixth in the ranking by male participants (*M* = 4.3), while female participants rated them seventh (*M* = 4.6), which was the same position they held in the overall ranking (*M* = 4.5). Sport (*M* = 4.7) was the number seven in the male ranking. Moreover, two female participants each added one type of program to the list – cabaret (with a score of 4.0) and light entertainment (3.0).

A *t*-test was run to search for statistically significant differences between the beginners and advanced learners. Only one such result was found on sport as a type of program participants watch (*M* for beginners = 4.21; *SD* = .975; *M* for advanced learners = 4.86; *SD* = .535; $t = 2.163$; $df = 26$; $p = .040$). The same type of program gave a statistically significant difference when comparing the results at the level of gender (*M* for females = 3.53; *SD* = 1.457; *M* for males = 4.69; *SD* = .855; $t = -2.513$; $df = 26$; $p = .018$).

5.2.1.3. Listening

Nine beginners, 6 females and 3 males, declared they listened to radio or Internet programs in Dutch or Flemish. Ten (3 females and 7 males) stated they did not.

As far as the reasons for listening are concerned, in the overall ranking 'expanding vocabulary' was placed first (*M* = 2.1), followed by 'getting to know the culture of the countries in which the language is used' (*M* = 2.2) and 'pleasure' (*M* = 2.3). It is clear that the differences were so small that differentiating between the reasons seems pointless. In the individual rankings by females and males, however, these differences are more significant, partly explaining the final outcome. The order the females formed matches that of the overall ranking but with considerable variation in the mean scores: 1.8, 2.2 and 2.8. The males put the pleasure factor (*M* = 1.3) first, the cultural aspect (*M* = 2.3) second and the aim to expand vocabulary (*M* = 2.7) third.

The additional reasons listed by the participants were 'improving pronunciation', which one female rated as most important, and 'exposure to language' supplied by a female and a male, with the former placing it first and the latter second in their

individual rankings. Worth mentioning is the fact that one female excluded the expansion of vocabulary from her hierarchy.

Again, in question 3b the focus was on the type of program and the frequency of listening. With the same scale as in the previous questions, the choice was between informative programs (news, weather forecasts), talks and interviews, radio features and documentaries, quizzes, competitions and games[51], live coverage (concerts, matches, etc.), and music programs (including hit lists). The females, in general, listened to all 6 types of programs at least sometimes with the males either failing to supply an answer for or classifying as 5 two types, namely radio features and documentaries as well as quizzes, competitions and games. These two types were, incidentally, also not very popular with the females, who ranked them last (*M* = 4.6) and last but one (*M* = 4.4) respectively, the same positions they occupied in the overall ranking. The remaining four types of programs were ranked as follows:

- in the overall ranking – informative programs (*M* = 3.1), music programs (*M* = 3.2), talks and interviews (*M* = 3.4), and live coverage (*M* = 3.8),
- in the female ranking – informative programs (*M* = 2.6), talks and interviews tied with music programs (*M* = 3.3), and live coverage (*M* = 4.0),
- in the male ranking – music programs (*M* = 3.0), talks and interviews tied with live coverage (*M* = 3.5), and informative programs (*M* = 4.0).

None of the beginners made use of the option to supplement the list with types of programs of their own choice.

Only 7 advanced learners, 5 female and 2 male, listened to radio or Internet programs in Dutch or Flemish. 8, 4 females and 4 males, did not.

The reasons were ranked identically by both groups: 'for pleasure' (overall *M* = 1.1; for females *M* = 1.2 and for males *M* = 1.0), 'to expand vocabulary' (*M* = 2.3; for females *M* = 2.2 and for males *M* = 2.0) and 'to become acquainted with the culture of the countries in which the language is used' (*M* = 2.7; for females 2.6 and for males 3.0). One male added 'pronunciation practice' as a reason for listening to radio and Internet programs, giving it a 3.

The four types of programs the advanced learners listened to most often were: news programs (an overall *M* = 2.4; for females *M* = 3.0 and for males *M* = 1.0), talks and interviews (*M* = 2.7; for females *M* = 3.4 and for males *M* = 1.0), music programs

[51] Quizzes, competitions and games are treated collectively as one entry.

and hit lists (*M* = 3.3; for females *M* = 3.4 and for males *M* = 3.0), and radio features and documentaries (*M* = 4.1; for females *M* = 4.2 and for males *M* = 4.0). None of the female participants listened to quizzes, competitions and games (*M* = 5.0), while no male participant claimed to listen to live coverage of concerts, matches, and so on (*M* = 5.0). The mean for both types was 4.9, with the females giving live coverage programs a 4.8 on average and the males quizzes, competitions and games a 4.5.

The advanced participants did not add any choices of their own to the list.

A *t*-test showed one statistically significant difference at the level of proficiency (pleasure as a reason for listening: *M* for beginners = 2.33; *SD* = 1.225; *M* for advanced learners = 1.14; *SD* = .378; *t* = -2.465; *df* = 14; *p* = .027) and one at the level of gender (expanding vocabulary as a reason for listening: *M* for females = 2.00; *SD* = .667; *M* for males = 2.80; *SD* = .447; *t* = -2.404; *df* = 13; *p* = .032). The interpretation is that advanced learners listened to radio or Internet programs in the target language for pleasure much more than beginners did and that females valued vocabulary expansion as the result of listening more than males did.

5.2.1.4. Contacts with the Netherlands and Flanders

At the time of completing the questionnaire, 9 beginners (5 females and 4 males) knew somebody from the Netherlands other than their teachers; 10 (4 females and 6 males) did not. 8 (5 females and 3 males) kept in touch with them on a regular basis.

With respect to the type of contact, there is more variety among the females than the males, who failed to supply an answer on 8 occasions and gave 5 out of 8 options a 5.0 mean score, indicating they never used them. The only 3 types the males did use were: writing messages through messengers (*M* = 2.7), speaking through messengers (*M* = 3.5) and writing e-mails (*M* = 4.0). The order among the females was as follows: writing e-mails (*M* = 3.0), visits and writing messages through messengers both 3.6, writing text messages (*M* = 3.8), shared participation in different events (*M* = 4.0), telephone conversations and speaking through messengers (both *M* = 4.6), and writing traditional letters (*M* = 4.8). This gave the following overall ranking: writing messages using messengers (3.25), writing e-mails (*M* = 3.4), visits (*M* = 4.0), writing text messages (*M* = 4.1), speaking through messengers and shared participation in events (*M* = 4.3 each), telephone conversations (*M* = 4.7), and writing traditional letters (*M* = 4.9). No additional types were provided by any of the participants.

With such small differences in the mean scores, no binding conclusions can be drawn other than acknowledging some dominance of computer-related communication over the more traditional types.

From questions 5 and 5a it became clear that very few participants (2 females and 1 male) knew and kept in touch with somebody from Flanders other than their teachers; as many as 16 participants (7 females and 9 males) did not know anybody, rendering any overall or individual ranking of the type of contact pointless. Nevertheless, the participants' individual answers will be discussed later in this Chapter.

Ten informants (7 females and 3 males) affirmed that they had been to either the Netherlands or Flanders, or both. Six of those (5 females and 1 male) marked the Netherlands, 4 (2 females and 2 males) both the Netherlands and Flanders, and none just Flanders. Nine participants had not been to the Low Countries at all.

The frequency and duration of their stays in the Netherlands varied from 'once for a week' to 'more than 4 times for a total of 6 months' among the females. All the males had been to the Netherlands twice but never longer than 1 week at a time.

One of the females had been to Flanders twice, each time briefly, while the other one more than four times but never longer than a week. Both males had been to Flanders only once for less than a day each.

Fourteen advanced learners (8 female and 6 male) knew somebody from the Netherlands other than their teachers; 1 female did not. Out of those 14 participants, 9 (4 female and 5 male) kept in touch with the person or people from the Netherlands; 5 (4 female and 1 male) did not. Of some importance is the fact that 2 (1 female and 1 male) of those that claimed they did not still responded to the question about the type and frequency of contact (question 4b). These answers were therefore disregarded.

Writing messages through messengers proved to be the number one choice for both female and male participants, in consequence making it the most frequently used type of contact overall. The mean scores were: 2.6 overall, 2.5 for females, and 2.6 for males. They were also consistent in assessing the value of writing e-mails (overall M = 2.9, M = 2.75 for females and M = 3.0 for males) and visits (M = 3.4, 3.75 and 3.2). The biggest discrepancy arose in how frequently the participants used text messages to keep in touch with the people they knew in the Netherlands. The females ranked this type second (equal to e-mails) with a mean score of 2.75, while the males turned out to text very rarely (M = 4.6). The overall mean score, however, was 3.8, putting text messaging in fourth position. The next most popular way in which participants kept in touch with

the Dutch people they knew, shared participation in different events, also showed some disparity with a third-ranked mean score of 3.75 among females and a fifth-ranked score of 4.4 for males. Overall, going together to concerts, conferences, happenings, and the like, had a mean score of 4.1. Both female and male participants rarely spoke through messengers (overall *M* = 4.3, *M* = 4.5 for females and *M* = 4.2 for males) or on the telephone (*M* = 4.3, 4.0 and 4.6). None of the participants ever wrote traditional letters (*M* = 5.0).

Six advanced informants (4 female and 2 male) claimed to know somebody from Flanders other than their teachers with only 5 (3 female and 2 male) keeping in touch with them. Nine participants did not know anybody.

In terms of how and how often the male participants maintained contact with the Flemish people they knew, it appeared this was restricted to messengers only. Writing messages scored 1.5 and speaking through messengers 3.0. All the other types listed scored 5.0, meaning they were never used by the male participants. There was more variety among the female participants, whose ranking was as follows: written messages on messengers (*M* = 2.3), text messages (*M* = 2.7), e-mails (*M* = 3.0), telephone conversations (*M* = 3.3), visits (*M* = 4.0), shared participation in events (*M* = 4.3), and then both speaking through messengers and traditional letters (*M* = 5.0). With 6 out of 8 types not used by the male participants, it is clear the overall ranking overlapped with the female ranking to a large extent. As described above, the only difference lay in how important speaking through messengers was.

None of the participants added any choices of their own to the tables in questions 4b and 5b.

Twelve informants (8 female and 4 male) reported having been to either the Netherlands or Flanders, or both. Seven of them (4 female and 3 male) had visited only the Netherlands, 1 female Flanders, and 4 (3 female and 1 male) both. Three participants had never been to the Low Countries.

Three of the female participants had been to the Netherlands once, 1 twice, 2 three times, and 1 four times. The duration of their stay ranged from 1 day to a total of 4.5 months. The males, on the other hand, marked the following answers: twice (1 person), three times (1 person), and more than four times (2 people). Their answers to the question about duration ranged from “one-day trips taken from Belgium” to “a total stay of 6 months”.

Flanders had been visited once by 2 females, 3 times by one, and more than four times by another as well. They stayed there for anywhere between one day and one semester. To furnish an explanation, one female subject also reported going to Flanders on one-day business trips, while another one had taken part in the Erasmus program. The same goes for the sole male participant who had been to Flanders for 5 months.

In terms of statistically significant differences in the results of beginners versus advanced learners and females versus males, as found in a *t*-test, there is one pertaining to the participants' contact with somebody from the Netherlands, namely in how frequently text messaging was used to keep in touch with females using this method considerably more often (M for females = 3.40; SD = 1.265; M for males = 4.50; SD = .756; t = -2.162; df = 16; p = .046), and two connected with keeping in touch with somebody from Flanders, one at the level of proficiency and one at the level of gender. It appears that advanced learners chose to write on messengers when keeping in touch with people they knew from Flanders much more often than beginners did (M for advanced learners = 2.00; SD = .707; M for beginners = 5.00; SD = .000; t = -7.115; df = 6; $p < .001$). At the level of gender, the same conclusion can be drawn for females (writing through messengers as a way in which people keep in touch – M for females = 3.00; SD = 1.225; M for males = 5.00; SD = .000; t = -2.739; df = 6; p = .034).

5.2.1.5. Language preferences

Participants expressed their language preferences by assessing Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch on 5 qualities presented in the form of the following opposite descriptions: pleasant to listen to vs. unpleasant to listen to, easy to learn vs. hard to learn, easy to understand vs. hard to understand, rich in vocabulary vs. with poor vocabulary, and rich in grammar structures vs. without rich grammatical structures.

Table 26 shows the overall results with all 5 qualities treated collectively. On the Likert scale, where 1 meant the most positive value and 5 the most negative one, both the beginners and the advanced learners showed a slight preference for Dutch over Flemish. The results for female and male beginners as well as male advanced learners are in line with these findings. However, the results for female advanced learners are not.

Table 26. Assessment of Flemish and Dutch on 5 qualities (*pleasant to listen to, easy to learn, easy to understand, rich in vocabulary, rich in grammar structures*) in the first part of the questionnaire.

	Flemish				Dutch			
All 5 qualities treated collectively (mean rating on all 5 qualities)	beginners		adv. learners		beginners		adv. learners	
	2.358		2.427		2.274		2.373	
	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male
	2.178	2.520	2.533	2.267	1.978	2.540	2.644	1.967

However, when comparing the results of the assessment of each pair of qualities at the level of proficiency, it appears there are no significant differences for Netherlandic Dutch (Table 27) or Belgian Dutch (Table 28). In fact, it could be argued that in terms of how easy or difficult Belgian Dutch is to understand, beginners and advanced learners gave almost identical ratings with the mean scores at 2.74 and 2.73 respectively, and p = .993.

Table 27. Assessment of (spoken and written) Dutch by beginners (N = 19) and advanced learners (N = 15) in the first part of the questionnaire.

Dutch is …	Beginners		Advanced learners		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
… pleasant / unpleasant to the ear.	1.79	.918	1.67	.900	-.391	.699
… easy / difficult to learn.	2.19	.688	2.40	1.121	.776	.444
… easy / difficult to understand.	2.53	.905	2.80	1.320	.716	.479
… rich in vocabulary / with poor vocabulary.	2.16	.834	2.00	.655	.-.601	.552
… rich in grammar structures / without rich grammatical structures.	2.74	1.046	3.00	.845	.791	.435

Table 28. Assessment of (spoken and written) Flemish by beginners (N = 19) and advanced learners (N = 15) in the first part of the questionnaire.

Flemish is …	Beginners		Advanced learners		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
… pleasant / unpleasant to the ear.	2.00	1.000	1.93	.799	.210	.835
… easy / difficult to learn.	2.26	.872	2.53	.990	.845	.404
… easy / difficult to understand.	2.74	.933	2.73	1.335	-.009	.993

… rich in vocabulary / with poor vocabulary.	2.05	.705	1.93	.704	-.490	.627
… rich in grammar structures / without rich grammatical structures.	2.74	1.046	3.00	7.56	.819	.419

Very similar conclusions can be drawn when comparing the results at the level of gender. Again, there are no significant differences for Netherlandic Dutch (Table 29) or Belgian Dutch (Table 30) but there is one highly comparable result for Belgian Dutch with females and males giving almost identical ratings when assessing how easy or difficult this variety is to learn (the mean scores are 2.39 and 2.38 respectively, p = .966).

Table 29. Assessment of (spoken and written) Dutch by female participants (N = 18) and male participants (N = 16) in the first part of the questionnaire.

Dutch is …	Females		Males		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
… pleasant / unpleasant to the ear.	1.67	.970	1.81	.834	-467	.644
… easy / difficult to learn.	2.44	.984	2.06	.772	1.248	.221
… easy / difficult to understand.	2.67	1.237	2.63	.957	.109	.914
… rich in vocabulary / with poor vocabulary.	2.06	.725	2.13	.806	-.264	.793
… rich in grammar structures / without rich grammatical structures.	2.72	.958	3.00	.966	-.840	.407

Table 30. Assessment of (spoken and written) Flemish by female participants (N = 18) and male participants (N = 16) in the first part of the questionnaire.

Flemish is …	Females		Males		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
… pleasant / unpleasant to the ear.	1.83	1.043	2.13	.791	-.937	.356
… easy / difficult to learn.	2.39	.916	2.38	.957	.043	.966
… easy / difficult to understand.	2.67	1.328	2.81	.834	-.378	.708
… rich in vocabulary / with poor vocabulary.	2.11	.676	1.88	.719	.986	.331
… rich in grammar structures / without rich grammatical structures.	2.78	.943	2.94	.929	-.497	.623

The participants were also asked to decide which language, Dutch or Flemish, they would prefer to learn if given a choice. Twelve of the beginners (7 female and 5 male)

picked Dutch, 5 (2 female and 3 male) Flemish, 1 male informant wrote it "did not matter to him" and another one decided to "abstain from voting". One of the females that opted for Dutch due to the conditional nature of the question remarked she would in fact favor studying both varieties.

The rationale for selecting Dutch was multilayered. Some emphasized its "nice sound", while others focused on being interested in the Netherlands more than in Belgium or Flanders. For 3 participants, Flemish, as a language spoken by only part of a nation, was too limiting. One female participant described her and her family's personal experience with trips to the Netherlands, which instilled in her a love for the language and the country. The majority, however, stressed the better job prospects Dutch could give them, the main argument being that Polish companies cooperate with Dutch ones more than with Belgian or Flemish ones.

The justification given by those that preferred Flemish ranged from 2 participants' personal dream to move to Belgium one day to a clear preference of 2 other informants for "the way Flemish sounds". One male participant explained that as a linguist he was more interested in Flemish, whose dialects, in his opinion, were "more living".

When clarifying why, the 2 male participants that failed to make a choice between Dutch and Flemish both referred to their limited knowledge of the two varieties. One of them added a comment which is very much relevant to the subject matter of this dissertation: "I'm exposed to Flemish more (*Vanzelfsprekend*[52]), yet I don't want to make any decisive choices as I haven't learned much about the differences between these languages".

Only 2 beginners made use of the option to provide comments, observations and explanations they deemed important and relevant to part one. One concentrated on his inability to tell the difference between Dutch and Flemish or to justify why he did not read, listen or watch in Dutch or Flemish. His final comment concerned his Dutch acquaintance, who he kept in touch with in English for the time being. The other participant called for a clear division into written and spoken language in the table on language preferences.

When deciding whether they would prefer to study Dutch or Flemish if given a choice, 11 advanced learners (6 female and 5 male, including all 9 3BA students) opted

[52] The title of the course book first-year students cover in their Practical Dutch course.

for Dutch, 3 (2 female and 1 male) for Flemish, and one female participant claimed not to be able to make a choice.

The reasons given for selecting Dutch were as follows: Dutch sounds better than Flemish, it is easier to learn and understand, it is more popular and practical, it does not have as many borrowings from French as Flemish does, its pronunciation is easier to learn, and it is easier to communicate in Dutch when in Flanders than in Flemish when in the Netherlands.

Those that chose Flemish concentrated on phonological aspects only: it sounds better and more delicate, its pronunciation is easier to learn, and it is easier to understand a speaker of Flemish than somebody who speaks Dutch.

The participant that left question 9 unanswered wrote: "I am not able to make a choice because I am equally interested in both languages".

Only one advanced learner used the space available to write down additional comments concerning part one. The opinion she formulated is relevant to the subject matter of this dissertation and read as follows: "I have not come across the distinction between the Dutch language and the Flemish language before. The dissimilarity has been rather described as different accents of the same Dutch language".

5.2.2. Part Two of the questionnaire

In the second part of the questionnaire the respondents were asked, among others, to assess the Dutch (question 1) and the Flemish (question 3) on 18 personality traits. A 5-point bipolar adaptation of the so-called 'semantic-differential scales' was used with opposite extremes of the traits on each end of the poles.

Even though all the mean scores differ from each other, there are no statistically significant differences between how the beginners and the advanced learners assessed the Dutch (Table 31). It must be stressed, however, that there is one trend towards significance, namely in the assessment of the Dutch as cultured/ill-mannered. The mean score for the beginners was 1.84, while the ratings by the advanced learners generated a mean score of 2.33, giving a p value of .052.

Table 31. Assessment of the Dutch by beginners and advanced learners in the second part of the questionnaire.

The Dutch are …	Beginners			Advanced learners			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / dumb	18	2.00	.594	15	2.20	.561	.988	.331
kind / unkind	18	2.28	.958	15	2.53	1.187	.685	.499
strong / weak	19	2.53	.841	15	2.67	1.047	.434	.667
hard-working / lazy	19	2.11	.658	14	1.93	1.072	-.586	.562
good / bad	19	2.42	.769	15	2.40	.737	-.081	.936
open / closed	19	2.63	1.342	15	2.40	1.404	-.490	.628
self-confident / insecure	19	1.58	.607	15	1.40	.632	-.838	.408
cheerful / sad	19	2.21	.855	15	2.20	.676	-.039	.969
educated / uneducated	19	1.74	.653	15	2.00	.756	1.088	.285
tolerant / intolerant	19	1.58	1.017	15	2.07	.961	1.422	.165
natural / unnatural	19	2.42	1.121	15	2.53	.990	.305	.762
emotional / reserved	19	3.58	.961	15	3.67	1.175	.240	.812
sincere / insincere	19	2.11	.737	15	2.47	1.356	.993	.328
gentle / aggressive	19	2.42	.607	15	2.67	1.175	.789	.436
cultured / ill-mannered	19	1.84	.602	15	2.33	.816	2.020	.052
patriotic / unpatriotic	19	2.89	.994	15	2.93	1.223	.102	.920
pragmatic / unpragmatic	19	2.05	.911	15	2.13	.915	.256	.800
independent / dependent	19	1.84	.765	15	1.93	.799	.339	.737

When comparing the results under the six headings outlined in Section 4.3.1.5[53] (Table 20) and looking only at the mean scores, it must be concluded that the beginners assessed the Dutch more favorably on competence-related and feelings-related adjectives as well as those pertaining to personal sympathy and social attractiveness (see Table 31). Also the two ungrouped personality traits, namely patriotic/unpatriotic and

[53] These headings are: competence-related (intelligent - dumb, educated - uneducated), personal sympathy (kind - unkind, natural - unnatural, sincere - insincere), personal integrity (strong - weak, hard-working - lazy, self-confident - insecure, independent - dependent), social attractiveness (good - bad, open - closed, cheerful - sad, tolerant - intolerant, cultured - ill-mannered), feelings-related (emotional - reserved, gentle - aggressive) and others (patriotic - unpatriotic, pragmatic - unpragmatic).

pragmatic/unpragmatic, received more favorable scores from the beginners. The advanced learners, on the other hand, assessed the Dutch more favorably, albeit slightly, on adjectives related to personal integrity. However, none of these differences are statistically significant[54].

From the mean scores presented in Table 31, it is clear that advanced learners see the Dutch mainly as self-confident, hard-working and independent, while beginners see them chiefly as self-confident and tolerant. This last personality trait, tolerance, also generates a slight discrepancy in that the advanced learners, with more exposure to the Dutch, seem less likely to view the Dutch as such (with a mean score of 2.07 versus 1.58 for the beginners). This is not in line with a generally accepted stereotype of the Dutch as a tolerant nation or with some earlier findings (see, for instance, de Louw 2006).

Interestingly, both beginners and advanced learners were very consistent in assessing, and therefore viewing, the Dutch as not very emotional, or even reserved, with significantly less favorable scores of 3.58 and 3.67 respectively.

In the assessment of the Flemish (Table 32), there is one statistically significant difference between the beginners and the advanced learners on strong/weak, with the mean score for the latter being considerably more favorable (2.68) than for the former (3.20), and a *p* value of .034. None of the other differences are statistically significant.

The means scores show that the beginners assessed the Flemish more favorably on competence-related adjectives and those pertaining to personal sympathy but less favorably than the advanced learners on adjectives related to personal integrity, social attractiveness and, by a small margin, feelings. Also, the Flemish are seen as more patriotic by the beginners and more pragmatic by the advanced learners. However, once again these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 32. Assessment of the Flemish by beginners and advanced learners in the second part of the questionnaire.

The Flemish are …	Beginners			Advanced learners			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / dumb	19	2.00	.535	15	2.21	.535	-1.139	.263
kind / unkind	19	1.67	.617	15	2.00	.745	-1.394	.173
strong / weak	19	3.20	.561	15	2.68	.749	2.218	.034

[54] All the variables were standardized in Statistica to enable comparisons. The same goes for all the other statistical computations for grouped adjectives in later sections.

hard-working / lazy	19	2.20	.941	15	2.58	.838	-1.240	.224
good / bad	19	2.13	.743	15	1.89	.809	.884	.383
open / closed	19	2.80	1.265	15	2.84	1.214	-.099	.922
self-confident / insecure	19	2.67	.976	15	2.47	1.219	.499	.621
cheerful / sad	19	2.47	1.060	15	2.21	.976	.731	.470
educated / uneducated	19	2.13	.743	15	2.16	.898	-.085	.933
tolerant / intolerant	19	2.27	1.033	15	2.63	1.065	-1.005	.322
natural / unnatural	19	2.07	.799	15	2.42	.838	-1.250	.220
emotional / reserved	19	2.73	1.335	15	2.89	1.100	-3.87	.702
sincere / insincere	19	2.27	.799	15	2.26	.933	.012	.991
gentle / aggressive	19	2.13	.834	15	1.89	.875	.806	.426
cultured / ill-mannered	19	2.27	.799	15	1.84	.688	1.664	.106
patriotic / unpatriotic	19	2.13	1.356	15	2.74	1.195	-1.378	.178
pragmatic / unpragmatic	19	2.73	.704	15	2.47	.841	.959	.345
independent / dependent	19	2.53	1.125	15	2.21	1.032	.870	.391

In general, the mean scores presented in Table 32 show the Flemish are seen as kind by beginners and as good, gentle and cultured by advanced learners. In terms of sociably undesirable personality traits, beginners see the Flemish as weak, while advanced learners see them as closed and reserved[55].

Tables 33 and 34 show all the scores by participants' gender, with there being no statistically significant differences between females and males in their assessment of the Dutch or the Flemish.

Table 33. Assessment of the Dutch by female and male participants in the second part of the questionnaire.

The Dutch are …	Females			Males			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / dumb	18	2.06	.539	15	2.13	.640	-.379	.707

[55] Since the scale ranges from 1 to 5 with 1 indicating the socially desirable trait, the lower the score, the more favorable the rating. The higher the score, the less favorable the rating. The same goes for all the other comparisons of this type in later sections. Only those highest and lowest scores that somehow stand out are taken into account, which is why sometimes only one trait is mentioned, while on other occasions up to three.

kind / unkind	18	2.11	1.079	15	2.73	.961	-.1733	.093
strong / weak	18	2.44	.984	16	2.75	.856	-.960	.344
hard-working / lazy	17	2.18	.951	16	1.88	.719	1.022	.315
good / bad	18	2.22	.808	16	2.63	.619	-1.615	.116
open / closed	18	2.39	1.378	16	2.69	1.352	-.636	.529
self-confident / insecure	18	1.44	.616	16	1.56	.629	-.552	.585
cheerful / sad	18	2.22	.808	16	2.19	.750	.129	.898
educated / uneducated	18	1.78	.647	16	1.94	.772	-.656	.516
tolerant / intolerant	18	1.72	.958	16	1.88	1.088	-.435	.666
natural / unnatural	18	2.33	1.138	16	2.63	.957	-.803	.428
emotional / reserved	18	3.56	.984	16	3.69	1.138	-.363	.719
sincere / insincere	18	2.17	1.098	16	2.38	1.025	-.570	.573
gentle / aggressive	18	2.72	.958	16	2.31	.793	1.348	.187
cultured / ill-mannered	18	2.11	.676	16	2.00	.816	.434	.667
patriotic / unpatriotic	18	3.06	.998	16	2.75	1.183	.817	.420
pragmatic / unpragmatic	18	2.28	.826	16	1.88	.957	1.317	.197
independent / dependent	18	1.72	.752	16	2.06	.772	-1.301	.203

When it comes to how females and males viewed the Dutch, the mean scores in Table 33 show the former assessed them more favorably on competence-related adjectives and those pertaining to personal sympathy, personal integrity and social attractiveness, while the males assessed the Dutch more favorably on feelings-related adjectives and both ungrouped personality traits (patriotic and pragmatic). The only difference that is statistically significant, however, is the one on adjectives related to personal sympathy (*M* for females = 2.20 with *SD* = .606, *M* for males = 2.64 with *SD* = .527; $t = -2.205$; $p = .035$).

What both groups, that is females and males, have in common is that they rated the Dutch most favorably when assessing their self-confidence (1.44 versus 1.56) and least favorably when deciding how emotional or reserved they are (3.56 versus 3.69).

Overall, the Dutch are seen as self-confident, independent, educated but rather reserved and unpatriotic by females, and self-confident, hard-working, tolerant, pragmatic but rather reserved by males.

Table 34 shows there are identical or almost identical mean scores for the Flemish as good/bad (2.0 for both groups, with a *p* value of 1.000) and emotional/reserved (2.83 for females and 2,81 for males, with a *p* value of .960).

The mean scores illustrate that the males assessed the Flemish more favorably on the competence-related adjectives, while the females on those expressing personal sympathy and feelings. The mean scores by females and males for personal integrity and social attractiveness are almost identical (2.5275 versus 2.5975 and 2.312 versus 2.352 respectively). Also, the Flemish are seen as more patriotic by males and as more pragmatic by females. None of these differences, however, are statistically significant.

Table 34. Assessment of the Flemish by female and male participants in the second part of the questionnaire.

The Flemish are …	Females			Males			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / dumb	18	2.17	.618	16	2.06	.443	.558	.581
kind / unkind	18	1.78	.647	16	1.94	.772	-.656	.516
strong / weak	18	2.94	.639	16	2.88	.806	.280	.781
hard-working / lazy	18	2.17	.786	16	2.69	.946	-1.753	.089
good / bad	18	2.00	.767	16	2.00	.816	.000	1.000
open / closed	18	3.00	1.283	16	2.63	1.147	.893	.378
self-confident / insecure	18	2.50	1.043	16	2.63	1.204	-.324	.748
cheerful / sad	18	2.22	1.166	16	2.44	.814	-.617	.542
educated / uneducated	18	2.17	.707	16	2.13	.957	.145	.885
tolerant / intolerant	18	2.28	1.127	16	2.69	.946	-1.139	.263
natural / unnatural	18	2.28	.752	16	2.25	.931	.096	.924
emotional / reserved	18	2.83	1.150	16	2.81	1.276	.050	.960
sincere / insincere	18	2.28	.958	16	2.25	.775	.092	.927
gentle / aggressive	18	2.11	.900	16	1.88	.806	.801	.429
cultured / ill-mannered	18	2.06	.802	16	2.00	.730	.210	.835

patriotic / unpatriotic	18	2.50	1.098	16	2.44	1.504	.139	.890
pragmatic / unpragmatic	18	2.39	.608	16	2.81	.911	-1.612	.117
independent / dependent	18	2.50	1.098	16	2.19	1.047	.847	.404

Overall, the females assessed the Flemish as kind but rather weak and closed, while the males viewed them as kind and gentle but rather weak, reserved and unpragmatic.

A statistical computation of the correlation patterns among the four groups' mean scores for all 18 adjective items when comparing the Dutch and the Flemish (see Table 35) shows a strong parallelism of the ratings obtained by beginners on sincere versus insincere and independent versus dependent, by advanced learners on good versus bad and self-confident versus insecure, by female participants on good versus bad, patriotic versus unpatriotic and pragmatic versus unpragmatic, and by male participants on pragmatic versus unpragmatic and independent versus dependent. Eight of the 9 correlations, with *r* between .477 and .752, are positive and range between moderate and quite strong. A distinct negative, or inverse, but significant relationship is shown to exist between how the Dutch and the Flemish were assessed on self-confidence by advanced learners. Also, there is a trend towards significance in the rating of beginners on cheerful versus sad.

Table 35. The Dutch vs. the Flemish on all adjectives in the second part of the questionnaire – correlations. Note: n.s. = not significant, i.e. $p > .05$.

The Dutch vs. the Flemish on all pairs of adjectives.	beginners		advanced learners		female participants		male participants	
	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – intelligent / dumb.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – kind / unkind.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – strong / weak.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – hard-working / lazy.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – good / bad.	n.s.		.578	.024	.694	.001	n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – open / closed.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – self-confident / insecure.	n.s.		-.529	.043	n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – cheerful / sad.	.443	.058	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	

The Dutch vs. the Flemish – educated / uneducated.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – tolerant / intolerant.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – natural / unnatural.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – emotional / reserved..	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – sincere / insincere.	.490	.033	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – gentle / aggressive.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – cultured / ill-mannered.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – patriotic / unpatriotic.	n.s.		n.s.		.543	.020	n.s.	
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – pragmatic / unpragmatic.	n.s.		n.s.		.504	.033	.552	.027
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – independent / dependent.	.477	.039	n.s.		n.s.		.752	.001

In the second part of the questionnaire, apart from assessing the Dutch and the Flemish on 18 personality traits[56], the participants were also asked to state how strongly they agreed or disagreed with a total of 36 statements about the Dutch (question 2) and the Flemish (question 4). The statements were in fact definitions of the adjectives from questions 1 and 3 and therefore served as a kind of guise. Hence, the rationale behind this task was to test how consistent the participants were in their assessment of the Dutch and the Flemish. In other words, if a participant thought the Dutch are intelligent, giving this personality trait a favorable score of 1 or 2, then he or she would have been expected to also give a rating of 1 or 2 when deciding whether the Dutch 'act rationally and use knowledge they gained to mean intelligent', which is the definition used to mean 'intelligent'.

To test this consistency for the Dutch, correlation patterns were computed to see whether the scores for the adjectives (question 1) correlate with the scores for the definitions (question 2). The results are presented in Table 36. Perhaps surprisingly, they show quite a bit of inconsistency.

The beginners were consistent only on 8 of the 36 adjective-definition comparisons (dumb, kind, weak, bad, cheerful, sad, tolerant and cultured) and the advanced learners on a mere 6 (lazy, bad, intolerant, unnatural, aggressive and patriotic). When analyzing the results by gender, the discrepancy is much bigger, with female participants being consistent on 12 adjective-definition comparisons (kind, lazy, good,

[56] The second part of the questionnaire, questions 1 and 3.

bad, self-confident, cheerful, uneducated, natural, unnatural, sincere, ill-mannered and patriotic) and the males only on 5 (bad, sad, tolerant, gentle and pragmatic). It must be added, however, that both females and males also showed some trends towards significance (in italics in the table), 1 and 4 respectively. The only adjective-definition comparison all four groups were consistent on pertained to the personality trait 'bad'. The personality trait 'ill-mannered', on the other hand, scored r_s = .000 and p = 1.000.

Table 36. The Dutch on adjectives and corresponding definitions in the second part of the questionnaire – correlations. Note: n.s. = not significant, i.e. $p > .05$.

The Dutch …	beginners		advanced learners		female participants		male participants	
	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p
…– intelligent – adjective vs. def.[57]	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– dumb – adjective vs. def.*[58]	-.639	.004	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– kind – adjective vs. def.	.652	.003	n.s.		.630	.005	n.s.	
…– unkind – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– strong – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– weak – adjective vs. def.*	-.541	.017	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– hard-working – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		.466	.069	n.s.	
…– lazy – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		-.725	.003	-.866	.000	n.s.	
…– good – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		.571	.013	n.s.	
…– bad – adjective vs. def.*	-.660	.002	-.528	.043	-.508	.031	-.787	.000
…– open – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		.483	.058
…– closed – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– self-confident – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		.482	.043	n.s.	
…– insecure – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– cheerful – adjective vs. def.	.597	.007	n.s.		.653	.003	n.s.	
…– sad – adjective vs. def.*	-.664	.002	n.s.		n.s.		-.619	.011
…– educated – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– uneducated – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		-.558	.016	n.s.	
…– tolerant – adjective vs. def.	.561	.012	n.s.		n.s		.522	.038
…– intolerant – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		.517	.049	n.s.		-.482	.059
…– natural – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		.549	.018	n.s.	
…– unnatural – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		-.679	.005	-.469	.049	-.487	.056
…– emotional – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– reserved – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– sincere – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		.593	.009	n.s.	
…– insincere – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– gentle – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		.575	.020
…– aggressive – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		-.529	.043	n.s.		n.s.	
…– cultured – adjective vs. def.	.478	.038	n.s.		n.s.		.482	.059
…– ill-mannered – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		-.527	.025	n.s.**[59]	
…– patriotic – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		.693	.004	.514	.029	n.s.	
…– unpatriotic – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– pragmatic – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		.673	.004
…– unpragmatic – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	

[57] def. = definition
[58] * = the scale direction is inverse (the scale used in question 1 goes from 1 to 5, where 1 refers to the positive adjective, for example 'intelligent', and 5 to the negative adjective, for instance 'dumb'), which accounts for the negative, or inverse, relationships.
[59] ** = r_s = .000, p = 1.000

…– independent – adjective vs. def.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
…– dependent – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Correlation patterns between the mean scores for adjectives and definitions (questions 3 and 4 respectively) were also computed for the Flemish (Table 37). Again, the results show the participants were quite inconsistent but less so than in the case of the Dutch.

Table 37. The Flemish on adjectives and corresponding definitions in the second part of the questionnaire – correlations. Note: n.s. = not significant, i.e. $p > .05$.

The Flemish …	beginners		advanced learners		female participants		male participants	
	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p
…– intelligent – adjective vs. def.[60]	n.s.		n.s.**[61]		n.s.		n.s.	
…– dumb – adjective vs. def.*[62]	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– kind – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		.573	0.26	.543	.020	n.s.	
…– unkind – adjective vs. def.*	-.433	.064	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– strong – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– weak – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– hard-working – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– lazy – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		-.478	.045	-.829	.000
…– good – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– bad – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		-.472	.065
…– open – adjective vs. def.	.607	.006	n.s.		.653	.003	n.s.	
…– closed – adjective vs. def.*	-.625	.004	-.518	.048	-.487	.040	-.719	.002
…– self-confident – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– insecure – adjective vs. def.*	-.569	.014	-.510	.052	-.583	.011	-.516	.049
…– cheerful – adjective vs. def.	.686	.001	.666	.007	.715	.001	.706	.002
…– sad – adjective vs. def.*	-.599	.007	-.799	.000	-.655	.003	-.794	.000
…– educated – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		.560	.030	n.s.		.527	.036
…– uneducated – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		-.483	.058
…– tolerant – adjective vs. def.	.825	.000	.629	.012	.807	.000	.753	.001
…– intolerant – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– natural – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		.547	.035	n.s.		n.s.	
…– unnatural – adjective vs. def.*	-.458	.049	n.s.		n.s.		-.651	.006
…– emotional – adjective vs. def.	.514	.024	.857	.000	.875	.000	.470	.066
…– reserved – adjective vs. def.*	-.542	.017	-.758	.001	-.820	.000	-.519	.039
…– sincere – adjective vs. def.	.608	.006	n.s.		.718	.001	n.s.	
…– insincere – adjective vs. def.*	-.628	.004	n.s.		n.s.		-.632	.009
…– gentle – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– aggressive – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– cultured – adjective vs. def.	.463	.046	n.s.		n.s.		.797	.000
…– ill-mannered – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
…– patriotic – adjective vs. def.	.704	.001	.746	.001	.587	.011	.728	.001
…– unpatriotic – adjective vs. def.*	-.477	.039	-.529	.043	-.594	.009	n.s.	
…– pragmatic – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	

[60] def. = definition.
[61] * = the scale direction is inverse (the scale used in question 1 goes from 1 to 5, where 1 refers to the positive adjective, for example 'intelligent', and 5 to the negative adjective, for instance 'dumb'), which accounts for the negative, or inverse, relationships.
[62] ** = $r_s = .000$, $p = 1.000$

…– unpragmatic – adjective vs. def.*	-.480	.037	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
…– independent – adjective vs. def.	n.s.		n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
…– dependent – adjective vs. def.*	n.s.		n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

The beginners were consistent on 15 of the 36 adjective-definition comparisons (open, closed, insecure, cheerful, sad, tolerant, unnatural, emotional, reserved, sincere, insincere, cultured, patriotic, unpatriotic and unpragmatic) and the advanced learners on 11 (kind, closed, cheerful, sad, educated, tolerant, natural, emotional, reserved, patriotic and unpatriotic). Both groups also showed a trend towards significance – the beginners on 'unkind' and the advanced learners on 'insecure'. When comparing the results at the level of gender, the results are quite similar as the female participants were consistent on 13 adjective-definition comparisons (kind, lazy, open, closed, insecure, cheerful, sad, tolerant, emotional, reserved, sincere, patriotic and unpatriotic) and the males on 12 (lazy, closed, insecure, cheerful, sad, educated, tolerant, unnatural, reserved, insincere, cultured and patriotic). Three of the four groups, beginners, advanced learners and males, showed a trend towards significance on 1, 1 and 3 adjective-definition comparisons respectively. Also, all four groups were consistent in their scoring of 6 adjective-definition comparisons (closed, cheerful, sad, tolerant, reserved and patriotic). The personality trait 'intelligent' scored $r_s = .000$ and $p = 1.000$.

Correlation patterns were also calculated for the four groups' mean scores for the definitions of all 18 opposite pairs of adjectives when comparing the Dutch (question 2) and the Flemish (question 4). Table 38 clearly shows there is a strong parallelism of the ratings obtained by beginners on 5 definitions of personality traits (intelligent, hard-working, unpatriotic, independent and dependent) and by advanced learners on 4 (open, educated, emotional and dependent). When comparing the results according to gender, the female participants scored consistently on 4 definitions of personality traits (self-confident, uneducated, independent and dependent) and the males on 6 (good, educated, natural, reserved, cultured and dependent). Quite a few scores show a trend towards significance (2 among the beginners, 3 among the females and 1 for the males). Also, there is one correlation that is consistent for all 4 groups, namely the one obtained on the definitions of 'dependent'.

Table 38. The Dutch vs. the Flemish on all definitions in the second part of the questionnaire - correlations. Note: n.s. = not significant, i.e. $p > .05$.

The Dutch vs. the Flemish – on the definition of …	beginners		advanced learners		female participants		male participants	
	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p	r_s	p
… – intelligent.	.497	030	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – dumb.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – kind.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – unkind.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – strong .	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – weak.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – hard-working.	.544	.016	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – lazy.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – good.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		.533	.034
… – bad.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – open.	n.s.		.604	.017	n.s.		n.s.	
… – closed.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – self-confident.	.428	.068	n.s.		.497	.036	n.s.	
… – insecure.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – cheerful.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – sad.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – educated.	n.s.		.612	.015	n.s.		.656	.006
… – uneducated.	.429	.067	n.s.		.545	.019	n.s.	
… – tolerant .	n.s.		n.s.**[63]		.442	.066	n.s.	
… – intolerant.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – natural.	n.s.		n.s.		-.445	.064	.539	.031
… – unnatural.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – emotional.	n.s.		-.549	.034	n.s.		n.s.	
… – reserved.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		-.501	.048
… – sincere.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – insincere.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – gentle.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – aggressive.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – cultured.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		.571	.021
… – ill-mannered.	n.s.		n.s.		.458	.056	n.s.	
… – patriotic.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – unpatriotic.	.629	.004	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – pragmatic.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.	
… – unpragmatic.	n.s.		n.s.		n.s.		.471	.066
… – independent.	.502	.029	n.s.		.484	.042	n.s.	
… – dependent.	.489	.034	.669	.006	.493	.037	.624	.010

Finally, to obtain a more comprehensive picture of how the mean scores for the Dutch and the Flemish compare, correlation patterns were computed for the adjectives when grouped under 5 of the 6 headings as outlined in Section 4.3.1.5 (Table 20). Also, a *t*-test was carried out. The findings are presented in Table 39.

[63] ** = $r_s = .000$, $p = 1.000$.

Table 39. Comparison of all the adjectives when grouped under 5 headings. Session One. Mean scores for each group standardized in Statistica. Correlations and *t*-test.

Adjectives grouped under 5 headings.	The Dutch		The Flemish		Correlation		*t*-test	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*r.*	*p*	*t*	*p*
Competence-related adjectives	1.985	.523	2.076	.470	.228	.203	-.845	.404
Adjectives pertaining to personal sympathy	2.404	.605	2.162	.584	.271	.127	1.939	.061
Adjectives related to personal integrity	2.008	.482	2.538	.504	.015	.935	-4.399	.000
Adjectives pertaining to social attractiveness	2.200	.485	2.329	.589	.008	.962	-.994	.328
Feelings-related adjectives	3.074	.789	2.411	.848	.033	.855	3.386	.002

As far as the *t*-test is concerned, there are two statistically significant differences, namely for adjectives pertaining to personal integrity ($p < .001$) and those that are feelings-related ($p = .002$). One result, for adjectives related to personal sympathy, approaches statistical significance ($p = .061$). There are no statistically significant results among the correlations.

5.2.3. Part Three of the questionnaire

All the data concerning the participants' demographic information as well as their exposure to and knowledge of foreign languages is presented knowledge of foreign languages (part three of the questionnaire), both about the beginners and the advanced learners, has been presented in Section 4.2.

5.3. Results - Session Two (speakers of Dutch and Flemish reading the same text)

As explained in Section 4.3.2, session two of the study consisted of two tasks, the first one of which comprised a set of 4 main questions with the first two followed by 2 supplementary questions and task two being of the verbal guise type with a replica of the 5-point bipolar semantic-differential scales used in the questionnaire. When completing the tasks, the participants assessed a selection of 24 speakers of Dutch and Flemish while listening to recordings of them reading the exact same text[64].

[64] All the details concerning the questions, text and recording have been laid out in Section 4.3.2.

5.3.1. Task One

All the results pertaining to the first question of the first task (recognition of the language variety) are presented in Tables 40-43.

Table 40. Summary of recognitions of the language – mean scores for female and male beginners.

Number of correct recognitions (presented as mean scores) of the language used by …	Female beginners (*N* = 9)	Male beginners (*N* = 10)	All beginner participants (*N* = 19)
… Flemish females (*N* = 6)	2.89	3.5	3.21
… Flemish males (*N* = 6)	2.67	3.7	3.21
… Dutch females (*N* = 6)	4.0	4.6	4.3
… Dutch males (*N* = 6)	4.11	3.9	4.0
… all speakers (*N* = 24)	13.67	15.7	14.72

It is clear from Table 40 that both female and male beginners found it easier to recognize Dutch speakers. Interestingly, among the 9 female beginners there was one who failed to recognize any of the 6 female speakers of Belgian Dutch and one that did not recognize any of the 6 male speakers of Belgian Dutch.

On the other hand, one female beginner recognized all 6 female speakers of Netherlandic Dutch, while 3 recognized all 6 male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch. Among the 10 male beginners one failed to recognize any of the Flemish females, while one recognized all 6 Flemish females and one all 6 Dutch females.

In addition, female beginners achieved a higher mean score for their recognition of Dutch males (4.11 against 3.9), while male beginners had a higher score for Dutch females (4.6 against 4.0), which means that when it comes to speakers of Netherlandic Dutch beginners recognized speakers of the opposite sex more easily.

However, this is not true for the beginners' ability to recognize speakers of Belgian Dutch as male beginners achieved a slightly higher mean score for their recognition of male speakers of Belgian Dutch (3.7 against 3.5) and so did female beginners for their recognition of female speakers of Belgian Dutch (2.89 against 2.67). With male beginners achieving higher scores in 3 categories, their overall score (15.7) was also higher than that for female beginners (13.67).

Table 41. Summary of recognitions of the language – mean scores for female and male advanced learners.

Number of recognitions (presented as mean scores) of the language used by …	Female advanced learners (*N* = 9)	Male advanced learners (*N* = 6)	All advanced participants (*N* = 15)
… Flemish females (*N* = 6)	4.22	4.83	4.47
… Flemish males (*N* = 6)	3.78	4.5	4.07
… Dutch females (*N* = 6)	5.56	5.67	5.6
… Dutch males (*N* = 6)	4.78	4.83	4.8
… all speakers (*N* = 24)	18.56	19.83	18.93

Among the advanced learners (Table 41), there are two patterns. One is in the recognitions of female speakers of Netherlandic Dutch, the mean scores for female (5.56) and male (5.67) advanced learners being almost identical and much higher than either group achieved for recognitions of any of the other categories. The other one lies in the fact that both female and male advanced learners scored more correct recognitions when listening to female speakers of both varieties – for female advanced learners the scores were 4.22 for Flemish females against 3.78 for Flemish males and 5.56 for Dutch females versus 4.78 for Dutch males, while for male advanced learners the scores were 4.83 for Flemish females against 4.5 for Flemish males and 5.67 for Dutch females versus 4.83 for Dutch males.

As far as other scores are concerned, female advanced learners did better than their male peers on their recognition of the language used by Dutch males (4.83 against 4.67) but they did worse on Flemish females (4.22 against 4.83) and Flemish males (3.78 against 4.5). This in a way gives a third pattern because with the scores for the recognitions of female speakers of Netherlandic Dutch, albeit almost identical, being slightly higher for female beginners (5.56 versus 5.67, as was mentioned before), both female and male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch are recognized slightly more easily by female advanced learners, while both female and male speakers of Belgian Dutch are recognized more easily among male advanced learners.

The overall score for male advanced learners (19.83) was higher than the one for female advanced learners (18.56).

To determine whether there is a significant statistical difference between the scores, a *Chi*-square test was run.

Table 42 Statistical analysis of the number of recognitions in session two of the study – according to level of proficiency.

Number of recognitions of …	Beginners (*N*=19)	Advanced learners (*N*=15)
… FLEMISH as Dutch.	106	50
… FLEMISH as Flemish.	122	130
Chi-square = 14.92; *df* = 1; *p* = .001*		
… DUTCH as Dutch.	158	155
… DUTCH as Flemish.	70	24
Chi-square = 16.88; *df* = 1; *p* = < .001*		
Correct answers	280	285
Incorrect answers	176	74
Chi-square = 30.55; *df* = 1; *p* = < .001*		

All comparisons of the results presented in Table 42 show statistically significant differences in the number of recognitions of both varieties among beginners and advanced learners.

However, when analyzing how many of the 24 speakers were correctly recognized, the results show that even though advanced learners outperformed beginners on 18 counts[65], they did so by a large margin only on 7 (in the case of 1 Dutch man, 3 Dutch women and 3 Flemish women). Also, beginners outperformed advanced learners on 3 counts and they performed as well as advanced learners on 3 counts as well, making the results less clear-cut than the statistical analysis indicates.

Table 43. Statistical analysis of the number of recognitions in session two of the study – according to gender.

Number of recognitions of …	Females (*N*=18)	Males (*N*=16)
… FLEMISH as Dutch.	93	63
… FLEMISH as Flemish.	123	129
Chi-square = 4.52; *df* = 1; *p* = .0336*		
… DUTCH as Dutch.	170	147
… DUTCH as Flemish.	49	45
Chi-square = 0.07; *df* = 1; *p* = .7979		
Correct answers.	293	276
Incorrect answers.	142	108

[65] one count = one speaker; all individual results can be found on a CD-ROM attached to the dissertation

Chi-square = 1.96; *df* = 1; *p* = .1611

Contrary to expectations, there is one statistically significant difference between female and male participants (Table 43), namely when comparing the number of recognitions of Flemish as Flemish and the number of misrecognitions of Flemish as Dutch. None of the other comparisons, however, give statistically significant differences.

In question 2 of the first task, the participants were asked to determine the speaker's gender (see Section 4.3.2.3). Among the beginners, only one participant, a male, misidentified a 77-year old Flemish woman as a man, giving his confidence the highest possible rating (1 on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant confident and 5 – not confident). Among the advanced learners, there were three male participants that misidentified a 19-year old Flemish woman as a man, with one confidence rating of 1, one of 2 and one of 5.

As explained in Section 4.3.2.3, question 3 in task 1 focused on the speaker's approximate age. The participants were provided with possible answers in the form of 5-point age brackets ranging from 16-20 through, for example 31-35 and 46-50, to 71 and higher band. The results are presented in Tables 44 (for beginners) and 45 (for advanced learners).

Apart from the correct age bracket, the tables also present correct age brackets ± 1. The rationale behind this lies in some of the correct ages being very close to the neighboring bracket. To exemplify, one Flemish male speaker was 21 and one 41, and two Dutch speakers were 50. If participants thought these speakers were, say 20, 40 and 51, they would have marked an age bracket either to the left or to the right of the correct one, while participants who thought they were, for example, 22, 43 and 48, would have marked the correct age bracket even though they were far from the truth. This justifies the inclusion of the 'correct age bracket ± 1' category.

One of the overall tendencies is that the older the speakers were, the more difficult it was for both the beginners and advanced learners to guess the correct age. Another trend concerns the much larger number of low scores by the advanced learners as they had more overall guesses of between 0 and 3, for example. Also, both groups

(beginners and advanced learners) found it difficult to guess, or nearly guess, the correct age of speakers aged 41-60.

Table 44. Correct age identifications by beginners (females *N* = 9, males *N* = 10).

Flemish or Dutch?	Gender	Age	Correct age bracket		Correct age bracket ± 1	
			female beginners	male beginners	female beginners	male beginners
Flemish	female	19	4	8	5	2
Flemish	female	27	2	4	3	5
Flemish	female	39	0	0	4	2
Flemish	female	52	3	2	4	6
Flemish	female	59	0	0	0	0
Flemish	female	77	0	1	3	4
All Flemish females - total and mean			9; 1.00	15; 1.50	19; 2.11	19; 1.90
Flemish	male	21	1	4	0	2
Flemish	male	30	0	2	4	6
Flemish	male	41	1	0	0	1
Flemish	male	44	0	0	1	0
Flemish	male	50	2	1	2	2
Flemish	male	60	1	0	1	2
All Flemish males - total and mean			5; 0.56	7; 0.70	8; 0.89	13; 1.30
All Flemish speakers - total and mean			14; 1.56	22; 2.20	27; 3.00	32. 3.20
Dutch	female	21	6	2	3	6
Dutch	female	30	3	4	3	3
Dutch	female	46	2	3	3	3
Dutch	female	48	0	1	3	5
Dutch	female	50	0	0	0	0
Dutch	female	60	1	0	1	1
All Dutch females - total and mean			12; 1.33	10; 1.00	13; 1.44	18; 1.80
Dutch	male	17	2	5	2	2
Dutch	male	24	2	1	3	1
Dutch	male	43	5	0	3	5
Dutch	male	46	1	1	1	2
Dutch	male	50	1	0	2	3
Dutch	male	79	2	1	1	1
All Dutch males - total and mean			13; 1.44	8; 0.80	12; 1.33	14; 1.40
All Dutch speakers - total and mean			25; 2.78	18; 1.80	25; 2.78	32; 3.20

As far as the scores for the beginners are concerned (Table 44), one speaker's age, namely that of the 19-year-old Flemish female, was guessed by all participants[66]. There were 2 speakers whose age was not guessed by any of the participants: that of a 59-year-old Flemish female and a 50-year-old Dutch female.

[66] If the 'correct age bracket ± 1' category is taken into account as well.

Table 45. Correct age identifications by advanced learners (females $N = 9$, males $N = 6$).

Flemish or Dutch?	Gender	Age	Correct age bracket		Correct age bracket ± 1	
			female adv. lear.	male adv. lear.	female adv. lear.	male adv. lear.
Flemish	female	19	5	5	3	0
Flemish	female	27	2	1	7	2
Flemish	female	39	2	2	5	2
Flemish	female	52	1	2	3	0
Flemish	female	59	0	0	0	1
Flemish	female	77	0	0	0	0
All Flemish females - total and mean			10; 1.11	10; 1.67	18; 2.00	5; 0.83
Flemish	male	21	3	4	6	0
Flemish	male	30	4	2	2	3
Flemish	male	41	0	0	1	0
Flemish	male	44	0	0	0	0
Flemish	male	50	0	0	3	1
Flemish	male	60	0	0	1	1
All Flemish males - total and mean			7; 0.78	6; 1.00	13; 1.44	5; 0.83
All Flemish speakers - total and mean			17; 1.89	16; 2.67	31; 3.44	10; 1.67
Dutch	female	21	6	4	2	1
Dutch	female	30	2	3	5	2
Dutch	female	46	0	2	5	2
Dutch	female	48	1	0	0	2
Dutch	female	50	0	0	0	0
Dutch	female	60	0	0	0	0
All Dutch females - total and mean			9; 1.00	9; 1.50	12; 1.33	7; 1.17
Dutch	male	17	1	2	4	2
Dutch	male	24	1	4	2	1
Dutch	male	43	1	2	0	1
Dutch	male	46	0	0	1	2
Dutch	male	50	1	1	4	2
Dutch	male	79	0	0	3	2
All Dutch males - total and mean			4; 0.44	9; 1.50	14; 1.56	10; 1.67
All Dutch speakers - total and mean			13; 1.44	18; 3.00	26; 2.89	17; 2.83

As far as the scores for the advanced learners are concerned (Table 45), the age of 4 speakers was not guessed by any of the participants: that of the 77-year-old Flemish female, 44-year-old Flemish male, 50-year-old Dutch female and the 60-year-old Dutch female. No speaker's age was guessed by all participants.

When comparing the total scores according to the gender of the speakers, it can be deduced that both female and male advanced learners were better at guessing the age of Flemish females, Flemish males and Dutch males. The situation is reversed, however, when Dutch females are taken into account, with beginners outscoring the advanced learners.

On scrutinizing the overall results for speakers of Belgian Dutch, it must be concluded that the advanced learners were more aware of their ages than the beginners

were with the exception of the score on the 'correct age bracket ± 1' category, where the male beginners scored a much higher mean score than the advanced learners. The overall scores for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch differ in that female beginners and male advanced learners were better at guessing their age. Again, though, the male beginners outscored advanced learners when the 'correct age bracket ± 1' category is considered.

Knowing the results for questions 1, 2 and 3 of task 1, it is essential to scrutinize the overall recognitions of all 3 variables, that is language, gender and age, first as obtained by the beginners and then the advanced learners.

Table 46. Summary of all correct recognitions, i.e. recognitions of the language, gender and age in task 1 of session 2 – beginners.

Number of correct recognitions (presented as mean scores) of the language, gender and age of …	Female beginners (*N* = 9)	Male beginners (*N* = 10)	All beginner participants (*N* = 19)
… Flemish females (*N* = 6)	0.22	0.8	0.53
… Flemish males (*N* = 6)	0.33	0.3	0.32
… Dutch females (*N* = 6)	1.0	0.6	0.79
… Dutch males (*N* = 6)	1.11	0.6	0.84
… all speakers (*N* = 24)	2.67	2.3	2.47

Table 46 shows that on average female beginners achieved a higher mean score on full recognitions. They were also better at recognizing the language, gender and age of Dutch females and males. However, male beginners were better at achieving full recognitions on Flemish females. The mean scores on Flemish males were almost identical for female and male beginners. The same is true for the scores of female beginners on Flemish females and males as well as Dutch females and males. Male beginners achieved the exact same score on Dutch females and males.

In most cases, none of the female beginners or male beginners was able to make correct recognitions of all 3 variables (language, gender and age). The majority of those that were did so only on one count and some on 2. However, there were 2 participants, both females, that achieved 3 correct recognitions on more than 2 counts, namely of female speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (on 4 counts) and of male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (on 3 counts).

Table 47 shows a considerable discrepancy between how good the male and female advanced learners were at recognizing the speakers' language, gender and age, in favor of the former (*M* = 4.33 for male advanced learners and *M* = 2.22 for female advanced learners). In fact, the male participants outscored the females across the board.

Table 47. Summary of correct recognitions of the language, gender and age in task 1 of part 2 – advanced learners.

Number of correct recognitions (presented as mean scores) of the language, gender and age of …	Female advanced learners (*N* = 9)	Male advanced learners (*N* = 6)	All advanced learners (*N* = 15)
… Flemish females (*N* = 6)	0.67	1.0	0.87
… Flemish males (*N* = 6)	0.33	0.67	0.47
… Dutch females (*N* = 6)	0.89	1.5	1.13
… Dutch males (*N* = 6)	0.33	1.17	0.67
… all speakers (*N* = 24)	2.22	4.33	3.00

In most cases, none of the female beginners or male beginners was able to make correct recognitions of all 3 variables (language, gender and age). The majority of those that were did so only on one count and some on 2. However, 3 males scored more: one male recognized 3 out of 6 Flemish females, one 3 out of 6 Dutch females and one 3 out of 6 Dutch males.

Table 48. Assessment of Flemish and Dutch on 4 qualities (*the speaker spoke clearly* or *unclearly*, *carefully* or *carelessly*, *nicely or not nicely*, *comprehensibly or incomprehensibly*) – part 2, task 1, question 4.

	Task 1, question 4 – Flemish				Task 1, question 4 – Dutch			
All 4 qualities treated collectively (mean rating on all 4 qualities)	beginners		adv. learners		beginners		adv. learners	
	2.563		2.624		2.763		2.275	
	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male
	2.597	2.531	2.391	2.858	2.799	2.731	2.324	2.226

Table 48 presents the mean scores in the assessment of the speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch on all 4 qualities[67] (task 1, question 4). Of considerable importance, these qualities are treated collectively and taken as indicative of the varieties the speakers represent. The results show that the beginners assessed Belgian Dutch more favorably across the board. The advanced learners did likewise with Netherlandic Dutch.

5.3.2. Task Two

The 5-point bipolar adaptation of the so-called 'semantic-differential scales' mentioned earlier was, again, used with opposite extremes of 18 personality traits on each end of the poles. These were the same adjectives as the ones used in the second part of the questionnaire (see Section 4.3.1.5). The participants were asked to put a cross in one of the boxes to show how strongly they felt a given trait was generally true for the speaker they were listening to.

It is of importance to note that the order of the speakers in task two was randomized (see Section 4.3.2.3). Also, the participants were not made aware of the fact that the speakers in the two tasks were the same.

To compare the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch, all the mean scores for the individual speakers of each variety had to be added up. The accumulated scores were then analyzed statistically to look for significant differences.

Table 49. All Netherlandic Dutch speakers in the second task of session two (persons 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20). *t*-test results with all 12 individual mean scores for each trait added up – beginners and advanced learners.

Participants thought the Dutch speakers were …	Beginners			Advanced learners			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	19	31.74	4.370	15	32.13	4.470	.260	.796
kind / unkind	19	31.95	6.169	15	32.20	5.031	.128	.899
strong / weak	19	33.42	6.003	15	32.80	4.379	-.336	.739
hard-working / lazy	19	32.26	4.569	15	30.87	4.764	-.869	.392
good / bad	19	28.58	5.124	15	30.07	5.244	.832	.412

[67] the speaker spoke clearly or unclearly, carefully or carelessly, nicely or not nicely, comprehensibly or incomprehensibly

open / closed	19	34.37	5.679	15	33.80	3.840	-.332	.742
self-confident / insecure	19	32.84	3.452	15	29.80	4.395	-2.263	.031
cheerful / sad	19	37.79	4.984	15	36.27	3.990	-.963	.343
educated / uneducated	19	31.21	4.791	15	31.73	4.713	.318	.752
tolerant / intolerant	19	31.21	5.583	15	32.60	4.469	.785	.438
natural / unnatural	19	28.11	6.008	15	28.53	4.103	.236	.815
emotional / reserved	19	39.58	5.167	15	37.67	4.169	-1.164	.253
sincere / insincere	19	30.63	6.273	15	30.00	4.053	-.338	.738
gentle / aggressive	19	27.68	5.588	15	30.67	6.455	1.443	.159
cultured / ill-mannered	19	27.58	5.994	15	29.20	5.361	.820	.418
patriotic / unpatriotic	19	33.42	6.049	15	34.47	6.151	.497	.623
pragmatic / unpragmatic	19	32.53	5.660	15	33.20	3.802	.395	.695
independent / dependent	19	30.37	6.273	15	31.40	4.687	.530	.600

When looking at all 18 pairs of adjectives as personality traits of the 12 Netherlandic Dutch speakers (see Table 49), only one, that is self-confident/insecure, turned out to generate a statistically significant difference at the level of proficiency, with the accumulated mean score for beginners being 32.84 and for advanced learners 29.80, giving a *p* value of .031. None of the other values for the beginners and advanced learners are statistically different, nor do they give high comparability between the scores by being (almost) identical.

When the results are compared under the six headings outlined in Section 4.3.1.5[68] and a look is taken only at the accumulated scores, it must be concluded that the beginners assessed the Dutch more favorably on feelings-related adjectives as well as those pertaining to personal sympathy and social attractiveness. Also the two ungrouped personality traits, namely patriotic/unpatriotic and pragmatic/unpragmatic, received more favorable scores from the beginners. The advanced learners, on the other hand, assessed the Dutch more favorably on competence-related adjectives and those related to personal integrity. None of these differences, however, are statistically significant.

[68] These headings are: competence-related, personal sympathy, personal integrity, social attractiveness, feelings-related and others.

The scores presented in Table 49 show that advanced learners see the Dutch mainly as natural, while beginners see them chiefly as cultured, gentle and natural.

Both beginners and advanced learners were very consistent in assessing, and therefore viewing, the Dutch as not very emotional, or even reserved, and not very cheerful, or even sad.

Table 50. All Belgian Dutch speakers in the second task of session two (persons 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 21, 22, 23, and 24). *t*-test results with all 12 individual mean scores for each trait added up – beginners and advanced learners.

Participants thought the Flemish speakers were …	Beginners			Advanced learners			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	19	30.68	4.631	15	33.73	5.147	1.815	.079
kind / unkind	19	31.63	6.898	15	31.60	5.514	-.014	.989
strong / weak	19	34.16	5.728	15	35.80	4.411	.916	.367
hard-working / lazy	19	31.21	5.094	15	31.00	4.209	-.129	.898
good / bad	19	29.00	5.627	15	29.27	5.625	.137	.892
open / closed	19	33.58	4.788	15	35.40	3.376	1.247	.222
self-confident / insecure	19	33.32	4.865	15	33.93	5.849	.336	.739
cheerful / sad	19	37.79	4.662	15	37.87	4.642	.048	.962
educated / uneducated	19	31.37	6.139	15	33.07	5.049	.864	.394
tolerant / intolerant	19	31.79	5.544	15	31.93	4.773	.080	.937
natural / unnatural	19	29.47	6.577	15	32.00	7.280	1.061	.297
emotional / reserved	19	37.79	6.528	15	38.07	4.698	.138	.891
sincere / insincere	19	31.79	5.808	15	30.53	3.563	-.734	.468
gentle / aggressive	19	27.21	5.978	15	30.87	6.221	1.740	.092
cultured / ill-mannered	19	27.79	5.711	15	28.13	5.097	.183	.856
patriotic / unpatriotic	19	33.79	6.356	15	34.67	3.773	.472	.640
pragmatic / unpragmatic	19	32.05	5.482	15	34.40	4.032	1.387	.175
independent / dependent	19	32.74	4.942	15	34.40	4.256	1.035	.309

The results obtained for the Flemish speakers show a very similar assessment on kind/unkind and cheerful/sad by the beginners and advanced learners (see Table 50),

with a mean score of 31.63 versus 31.60 and a *p* value of .989 for the former pair of personality traits and 37.79 versus 37.87 and a *p* value of .962 for the latter.

The beginners assessed the Flemish more favorably across the board, that is on competence-related and feeling-related adjectives as well as those pertaining to personal sympathy, personal integrity and social attractiveness. Also, the Flemish are seen as more patriotic and pragmatic by beginners. However, these differences are not significant statistically.

In general, the scores presented in Table 50 show that the Flemish are seen as gentle and cultured by the beginners and as cultured by the advanced learners. In terms of the sociably undesirable personality traits, both the beginners and advanced learners see the Flemish as sad and reserved.

When results for the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch are analyzed by gender (see Table 51), there are no statistically significant differences. There are, however, two pairs of adjectives for which the accumulated mean scores were identical in one case and almost identical in the other. Interestingly enough, the pair with a *p* value of 1.000 (and a *t* value of .000) is again self-confident/insecure, the mean scores for both groups being 31.50. The other pair is pragmatic/unpragmatic, with a mean score of 32.83 for females, a mean score for male participants of 32.81 and a *p* value of .990.

Table 51. All Netherlandic Dutch speakers in the second task of session two (persons 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20). *t*-test results with all 12 mean scores for each trait added up – females and males.

Participants thought the Dutch speakers were …	Females			Males			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	18	31.17	3.650	16	32.75	5.013	-1.061	.297
kind / unkind	18	32.78	3.843	16	31.25	7.160	.762	.454
strong / weak	18	33.06	5.000	16	33.25	5.745	-.106	.917
hard-working / lazy	18	32.50	4.246	16	30.69	5.003	1.143	.262
good / bad	18	30.17	4.805	16	28.19	5.480	1.122	.270
open / closed	18	34.67	3.413	16	33.50	6.218	.689	.496
self-confident / insecure	18	31.50	3.417	16	31.50	4.926	.000	1.000
cheerful / sad	18	36.61	5.043	16	37.69	4.062	-.680	.502
educated / uneducated	18	32.00	4.284	16	30.81	5.180	.731	.470

tolerant / intolerant	18	32.39	3.728	16	31.19	6.369	.681	.501
natural / unnatural	18	29.17	4.829	16	27.31	5.546	1.042	.305
emotional / reserved	18	40.00	3.911	16	37.31	5.375	1.680	.103
sincere / insincere	18	31.67	3.395	16	28.88	6.732	1.553	.130
gentle / aggressive	18	29.89	5.561	16	28.00	6.653	.902	.374
cultured / ill-mannered	18	28.11	5.603	16	28.50	5.978	-.196	.846
patriotic / unpatriotic	18	33.67	4.875	16	34.13	7.265	-.218	.829
pragmatic / unpragmatic	18	32.83	3.944	16	32.81	5.879	.012	.990
independent / dependent	18	30.17	5.148	16	31.56	6.099	-.724	.475

When it comes to how females and males viewed the Dutch, the accumulated mean scores presented in Table 51 show the former assessed them more favorably only on competence-related adjectives (though the discrepancy between how they assessed the speakers on how intelligent and how educated they are is quite big), while the males assessed the Dutch more favorably on feelings-related adjectives, those pertaining to personal sympathy, personal integrity and social attractiveness, and, albeit by a very small margin, on how pragmatic they are. Once again, however, none of these differences are statistically significant.

What both groups, that is females and males, have in common is that they rated the Dutch most favorably when assessing how cultured they are and least favorably when deciding how emotional or cheerful they are.

Overall, the Dutch are seen as cultured but rather reserved and sad by females, and natural, gentle, good, cultured and sincere but, again, rather sad and reserved by males.

Table 52. All Belgian Dutch speakers in the second task of session two (persons 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 21, 22, 23, and 24). *t*-test results with all 12 mean scores for each trait added up – females and males.

Participants thought the Flemish speakers were …	Females			Males			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	18	31.33	4.728	16	32.81	5.394	-.852	.400
kind / unkind	18	31.39	4.877	16	31.88	7.641	-.224	.824
strong / weak	18	34.78	4.466	16	35.00	6.033	-.123	.903
hard-working / lazy	18	31.17	4.218	16	31.06	5.247	.064	.949

good / bad	18	29.44	5.128	16	28.75	6.072	.360	.721
open / closed	18	33.89	2.720	16	34.94	5.567	-.710	.483
self-confident / insecure	18	33.28	4.350	16	33.94	6.234	-.361	.720
cheerful / sad	18	37.61	5.553	16	38.06	3.336	-.283	.779
educated / uneducated	18	32.44	4.246	16	31.75	7.066	.352	.727
tolerant / intolerant	18	31.67	3.678	16	32.06	6.537	-.221	.827
natural / unnatural	18	32.06	7.008	16	28.94	6.618	1.329	.193
emotional / reserved	18	39.78	5.298	16	35.81	5.576	2.125	.041
sincere / insincere	18	32.11	4.057	16	30.25	5.710	1.105	.277
gentle / aggressive	18	28.83	5.238	16	28.81	7.441	.010	.992
cultured / ill-mannered	18	27.56	4.033	16	28.38	6.682	-.439	.664
patriotic / unpatriotic	18	34.50	3.451	16	33.81	6.959	.371	.713
pragmatic / unpragmatic	18	33.39	3.415	16	32.75	6.393	.369	.714
independent / dependent	18	33.33	4.284	16	33.63	5.188	-.179	.859

Viewing the results for speakers of Belgian Dutch (see Table 52), only one pair of adjectives with high comparability can be distinguished, namely gentle/aggressive. Females scored 28.83, with males obtaining 28.81, giving a *p* value .992. There is, however, also one pair on which the two groups differed to such an extent that the difference is statistically significant (emotional / reserved): with a mean score for the females of 39.78 and for males of 35.81, statistical analysis has given a *p* value of .041.

Females assessed the Flemish more favorably on competence-related adjectives, those pertaining to social attractiveness and, by a very small margin, to personal integrity, while males chose those adjectives expressing personal sympathy and feelings. Also, the Flemish are seen as more patriotic and more pragmatic by males. Nevertheless, these differences are not significant statistically.

Overall, the females assessed the Flemish as cultured and gentle but rather sad and reserved, while the males viewed them as cultured, gentle and natural but rather reserved and sad, giving almost identical views at the opposite ends of the assessment.

What seems surprising in how the beginners, advanced learners, females and males assessed the speakers of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch is that tolerance, a much discussed trait in the deliberation of the results obtained in the second part of the

questionnaire (Section 5.1.2), received middle-of-the-scale scores. This can be put down to the participants not being explicitly aware of the fact they were assessing Dutch speakers in the verbal guise task, whereas in the questionnaire, when specifically asked to rate the Dutch and the Flemish, they may have followed stereotypes more.

To obtain a more comprehensive picture of how the mean scores for the Dutch and the Flemish compare, correlation patterns were computed for all 18 adjective pairs on all 34 participants. Also, a *t*-test was carried out. The findings are presented in Table 53.

The statistical computation of the correlation patterns shows a parallelism of the ratings obtained on all adjective pairs, with good/bad, tolerant/intolerant, gentle/aggressive and cultured/ill-mannered being strong (with *r* above .800), the one on self-confident/insecure quite weak (with *r* at .383) and all the others moderate (with *r* between .548 and .778).

In terms of the *t*-test results, there are statistically significant differences in the ratings of the Dutch and the Flemish on strong/weak, self-confident/insecure, natural/ unnatural and independent/dependent. Also, the participants did not really see any difference between how tolerant or intolerant the Dutch and the Flemish were, with a cumulated mean score for the former of 31.82 and the latter of 31.85, giving a *p* value of .952.

Table 53. Ratings of all participants (*N* = 34) of all Netherlandic Dutch vs. all Belgian Dutch speakers on all personality traits respectively. Mean scores for each group added up. Correlations and *t*-test (*df* = 33).

The Dutch vs. the Flemish on all pairs of adjectives.	The Dutch		The Flemish		Correlation		*t*-test	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*r.*	*p*	*t*	*p*
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – intelligent / dumb.	31.91	4.351	32.03	5.030	.662	.000	-.176	.862
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – kind / unkind.	32.06	5.614	31.62	6.233	.631	.000	.503	.619
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – strong / weak.	33.15	5.281	34.88	5.180	.673	.000	-2.392	.023
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – hard-working / lazy.	31.65	4.638	31.12	4.656	.664	.000	.811	.423
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – good / bad.	29.24	5.153	29.12	5.542	.810	.000	.207	.838
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – open / closed.	34.12	4.891	34.38	4.264	.566	.000	-.359	.722
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – self-confident / insecure.	31.50	4.129	33.59	5.246	.383	.025	-2.303	.028
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – cheerful / sad.	37.12	4.571	37.82	4.582	.778	.000	-1.349	.186
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – educated / uneducated.	31.44	4.692	32.12	5.666	.699	.000	-.958	.345
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – tolerant / intolerant.	31.82	5.096	31.85	5.141	.848	.000	-.061	.952

The Dutch vs. the Flemish – natural / unnatural.	28.29	5.185	30.59	6.907	.743	.000	-2.894	.007
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – emotional / reserved.	38.74	4.782	37.91	5.712	.714	.000	1.182	.246
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – sincere / insincere.	30.35	5.342	31.24	4.918	.759	.000	-1.436	.160
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – gentle / aggressive.	29.00	6.080	28.82	6.269	.842	.000	.296	.769
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – cultured / ill-mannered.	28.29	5.697	27.94	5.371	.833	.000	.639	.527
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – patriotic / unpatriotic.	33.88	6.024	34.18	5.317	.829	.000	-.507	.615
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – pragmatic / unpragmatic.	32.82	4.871	33.09	4.969	.610	.000	-.355	.725
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – independent / dependent.	30.82	5.573	33.47	4.660	.548	.001	-3.131	.004

Finally, to obtain a more comprehensive picture of how the mean scores for the Dutch and the Flemish compare, correlation patterns were computed for the adjectives when grouped under 5 of the 6 headings as outlined in Section 4.3.1.5 (Table 20). Also, a *t*-test was carried out. The findings are presented in Table 54.

Table 54. Comparison of all the adjectives when grouped under 5 headings. Session Two. Mean scores for each group standardized in Statistica. Correlations and *t*-test.

Adjectives grouped under 5 headings.	The Dutch		The Flemish		Correlation		*t*-test	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*r.*	*p*	*t*	*p*
Competence-related adjectives	2.704	.295	2.727	.396	.625	.000	-.407	.687
Adjectives pertaining to personal sympathy	2.506	.372	2.581	.406	.769	.000	-1.616	.116
Adjectives related to personal integrity	2.643	.320	2.771	.340	.633	.000	-2.430	.022
Adjectives pertaining to social attractiveness	2.639	.334	2.651	.332	.864	.000	-.345	.733
Feelings-related adjectives	2.811	.365	2.777	.362	.840	.000	.954	.347

As far as the *t*-test is concerned, there is only one statistically significant difference, namely for adjectives pertaining to personal integrity (p = .022). However, all comparisons on correlations generated statistically significant results (all with $p < .001$).

Apart from the overall results presented above, the individual scores obtained for each of the 24 speakers from the recordings used in session two of the study can be scrutinized as well (see Table 55). Only statistically significant scores are presented in Table 55.

Table 55. Statistically significant individual scores in the second task of session two of the study.

Speaker	Comparison	Pair of adjectives	Statistical analysis[69]
1. Flemish woman aged 59	female vs. male participants	strong/weak	*M* for females = 4.22; *SD* = .647; *M* for males = 3.63; *SD* = .885; *t* = 2.264; *df* = 32; *p* = .030
		pragmatic/unpragmatic	*M* for females = 3.06; *SD* = .639; *M* for males = 2.44; *SD* = .814; *t* = 2.477; *df* = 32; *p* = .019
2. Dutch man aged 17	female vs. male participants	kind/unkind	*M* for females = 3.39; *SD* = .502; *M* for males = 2.81; *SD* = 1.047; *t* = 2.085; *df* = 32; *p* = .045
		good/bad	*M* for females = 3.00; *SD* = .485; *M* for males = 2.44; *SD* = .814; *t* = 2.481; *df* = 32; *p* = .019
		natural/ unnatural	*M* for females = 3.06; *SD* = .873; *M* for males = 2.19; *SD* = 1.109; *t* = 2.551; *df* = 32; *p* = .016
		emotional/reserved	*M* for females = 4.17; *SD* = .857; *M* for males = 3.38; *SD* = 1.204; *t* = 2.227; *df* = 32; *p* = .033
3. Dutch man aged 46	female vs. male participants	natural/unnatural	*M* for females = 2.83; *SD* = .924; *M* for males = 2.19; *SD* = .911; *t* = 2.049; *df* = 32; *p* = .049
		gentle/aggressive	*M* for females = 2.61; *SD* = .916; *M* for males = 1.94; *SD* = .680; *t* = 2.408; *df* = 32; *p* = .022
4. Dutch man aged 24	beginners vs. advanced participants	open/closed	*M* for beg. = 2.63; *SD* = 1.065; *M* for adv. = 1.93; *SD* = .799; *t* = -2.184; *df* = 31.940; *p* = .036
5. Dutch woman aged 21	beginners vs. advanced participants	natural/unnatural	*M* for beg. = 1.84; *SD* = .958; *M* for adv. = 1.27; *SD* = .458; *t* = -2.136; *df* = 32; *p* = .040
6. Flemish woman aged 27	female vs. male participants	natural/unnatural	*M* for females = 2.61; *SD* = 1.290; *M* for males = 1.81; *SD* = .911; *t* = 2.061; *df* = 32; *p* = .048
		emotional/reserved	*M* for females = 2.89; *SD* = 1.278; *M* for males = 2.00; *SD* = 1.134; *t* = 2.092; *df* = 31; *p* = .045
7. Flemish woman aged 19	beginners vs. advanced participants	kind/unkind	*M* for beg. = 1.63; *SD* = .761; *M* for adv. = 2.27; *SD* = .961; *t* = 2.152; *df* = 32; *p* = .039
		good/bad	*M* for beg. = 1.79; *SD* = .713; *M* for adv. = 2.60; *SD* = 1.056; *t* = 2.688; *df* = 32; *p* = .012
		gentle/aggressive	*M* for beg. = 1.63; *SD* = .831; *M* for adv. = 2.53; *SD* = 1.246; *t* = 2.527; *df* = 32; *p* = .017
8. Flemish woman aged 39	beginners vs. advanced participants	sincere/insincere	*M* for beg. = 2.95; *SD* = .911; *M* for adv. = 2.00; *SD* = .655; *t* = -3.390; *df* = 32; *p* = .002
9. Dutch woman aged 60	beginners vs. advanced participants	open/closed	*M* for beg. = 2.07; *SD* = .799; *M* for adv. = 2.68; *SD* = .885; *t* = -2.107; *df* = 32; *p* = .043
	beginners vs. advanced	strong/weak	*M* for beg. = 2.32; *SD* = .820; *M* for adv. = 3.33; *SD* = .816;

[69] beg. = beginners; adv. = advanced learners.

10. Flemish man aged 44	participants		*t* = 3.599; *df* = 32; *p* = .001
	female vs. male participants	patriotic/unpatriotic	*M* for females = 2.78; *SD* = .647; *M* for males = 3.31; *SD* = .873; *t* = -2.044; *df* = 32; *p* = .049
11. Flemish man aged 60	female vs. male participants	pragmatic/unpragmatic	*M* for females = 2.83; *SD* = .786; *M* for males = 2.19; *SD* = .750; *t* = 2.433; *df* = 32; *p* = .020
12. Dutch woman aged 46	beginners vs. advanced participants	strong/weak	*M* for beg. = 3.21; *SD* = 1.032; *M* for adv. = 2.07; *SD* = 1.033; *t* = -3.209; *df* = 32; *p* = .003
		self-confident/insecure	*M* for beg. = 3.21; *SD* = 1.437; *M* for adv. = 2.13; *SD* = .834; *t* = -2.576; *df* = 32; *p* = .015
13. Flemish man aged 41	beginners vs. advanced participants	tolerant/intolerant	*M* for beg. = 2.17; *SD* = .786; *M* for adv. = 2.87; *SD* = .743; *t* = 2.611; *df* = 31; *p* = .014
		independent/dependent	*M* for beg. = 2.63; *SD* = .895; *M* for adv. = 3.40; *SD* = .632; *t* = 2.813; *df* = 32; *p* = .008
14. Dutch woman aged 50	beginners vs. advanced participants	strong/weak	*M* for beg. = 3.78; *SD* = .732; *M* for adv. = 3.00; *SD* = 1.000; *t* = -2.577; *df* = 31; *p* = .015
		self-confident/insecure	*M* for beg. = 4.05; *SD* = .705; *M* for adv. = 3.00; *SD* = .877; *t* = -3.823; *df* = 31; *p* = .001
	female vs. male participants	open/closed	*M* for females = 3.83; *SD* = .786; *M* for males = 2.88; *SD* = .806; *t* = 3.506; *df* = 32; *p* = .001
		sincere/insincere	*M* for females = 2.89; *SD* = .676; *M* for males = 2.25; *SD* = .856; *t* = 2.427; *df* = 32; *p* = .021
16. Dutch man aged 43	beginners vs. advanced participants	strong/weak	*M* for beg. = 2.67; *SD* = .724; *M* for adv. = 1.95; *SD* = .848; *t* = 2.616; *df* = 31; *p* = .013
		self-confident/insecure	*M* for beg. = 2.00; *SD* = .926; *M* for adv. = 1.42; *SD* = .607; *t* = 2.197; *df* = 32; *p* = .035
	female vs. male participants	independent/dependent	*M* for females = 1.83; *SD* = .786; *M* for males = 2.63; *SD* = 1.088; *t* = -2.452; *df* = 32; *p* = .020
17. Flemish man aged 21	beginners vs. advanced participants	strong/weak	*M* for beg. = 3.42; *SD* = .961; *M* for adv. = 2.73; *SD* = .961; *t* = -2.071; *df* = 32; *p* = .046
		emotional/reserved	*M* for beg. = 3.84; *SD* = .834; *M* for adv. = 3.27; *SD* = .799; *t* = -2.034; *df* = 32; *p* = .050
		independent/dependent	*M* for beg. = 2.47; *SD* = 1.124; *M* for adv. = 3.27; *SD* = .884; *t* = 2.238; *df* = 32; *p* = .032
18. Flemish woman aged 77	female vs. male participants	natural/ unnatural	*M* for females = 3.11; *SD* = 1.183; *M* for males = 2.25; *SD* = 1.000; *t* = 2.277; *df* = 32; *p* = .030
		sincere/insincere	*M* for females = 2.94; *SD* = 1.056; *M* for males = 2.06; *SD* = .929; *t* = 2.572; *df* = 32; *p* = .015
19. Dutch man aged 79	female vs. male participants	intelligent/stupid	*M* for females = 2.39; *SD* = .698; *M* for males = 3.00; *SD* = .894; *t* = -2.234; *df* = 32; *p* = .033
		intelligent/stupid	*M* for beg. = 1.95; *SD* = .621;

20. Flemish woman aged 52	beginners vs. advanced participants		*M* for adv. = 2.60; *SD* = .910; *t* = 2.374; *df* = 23.698; *p* = .026
		educated/uneducated	*M* for beg. = 1.63; *SD* = .761; *M* for adv. = 2.33; *SD* = .976; *t* = 2.358; *df* = 32; *p* = .025
21. Dutch woman aged 48	beginners vs. advanced participants	sincere/insincere	*M* for beg. = 2.95; *SD* = .848; *M* for adv. = 2.27; *SD* = .799; *t* = -2.383; *df* = 32; *p* = .023
22. Dutch woman aged 30	female vs. male participants	kind/unkind	*M* for females = 1.78; *SD* = .647; *M* for males = 2.31; *SD* = .873; *t* = -2.044; *df* = 32; *p* = .049
		gentle/aggressive	*M* for females = 2.00; *SD* = .594; *M* for males = 2.63; *SD* = 1.088; *t* = -2.111; *df* = 32; *p* = .043
24. Dutch man aged 50	beginners vs. advanced participants	self-confident/insecure	*M* for beg. = 3.95; *SD* = 1.079; *M* for adv. = 3.13; *SD* = 1.187; *t* = -2.090; *df* = 32; *p* = .045
		educated/uneducated	*M* for beg. = 3.56; *SD* = .784; *M* for adv. = 2.93; *SD* = .704; *t* = -2.377; *df* = 31; *p* = .024
	female vs. male participants	kind/unkind	*M* for females = 4.00; *SD* = .485; *M* for males = 3.44; *SD* = .814; *t* = 2.410; *df* = 23.867; *p* = .024

There are not any statistically significant individual scores for two speakers, both Flemish males (number 15, a Flemish man aged 30, and number 23, a Flemish man aged 50).

Finally, the individual results obtained in both tasks of session two for all 24 speakers can be found on a CD-ROM attached to the dissertation.

5.4. Results – Session Three (Dutch and Flemish actors playing the same roles)

As explained in Section 4.3.3, session three of the study consisted of two tasks, the first of which comprised a set of 3 main questions with the first two followed by 2 supplementary questions and task two being a replica of the 5-point bipolar semantic-differential scales used both in the questionnaire and in the second task in session two. The participants were asked to assess 12 Dutch and Flemish actors starring in 4 films[70].

5.4.1. Task One

All the results pertaining to the first question of the first task (recognition of the language variety) are presented in Tables 56-59.

[70] The details concerning the questions, recordings and films have been laid out in Section 4.3.3.

Table 56. Correct recognitions of the language variety – mean scores for female and male beginners.

Number of recognitions (presented as mean scores) of the language used by …	Female beginners (*N* = 9)	Male beginners (*N* = 10)	All beginner participants (*N* = 19)
… Flemish females (*N* = 3)	1.11	1.3	1.21
… Flemish males (*N* = 3)	1.11	1.4	1.26
… Dutch females (*N* = 3)	2.22	2.0	2.11
… Dutch males (*N* = 3)	2.0	1.8	1.89
… all speakers (*N* = 12)	6.44	6.5	6.47

Both female and male beginners found it easier to recognize Dutch speakers. In addition, female beginners scored higher than males on recognitions of female and male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch. However, male beginners scored higher than their female peers on recognitions of male and female speakers of Belgian Dutch.

Interestingly, among the 9 female beginners and 10 male beginners, there were quite a few participants who failed to recognize any of the speakers of Belgian Dutch, female or male. However, none of the participants, female or male, failed to recognize any of the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch. In fact, among the female beginners, 5 out of 9 recognized all 3 Dutch females and 3 did likewise with all 3 Dutch males, while only one female beginner recognized all 3 Flemish females and none the Flemish males. Among the male beginners, there were fewer full scores with 1 recognizing all Flemish females, 1 all Flemish males, 1 all Dutch females and 2 all Dutch males.

The mean number of correct recognitions of the language variety spoken by the 12 speakers for male beginners (6.5) and female beginners (6.44) was almost identical.

Table 57. Correct recognitions of the language variety – mean scores for female and male advanced learners.

Number of recognitions (presented as mean scores) of the language used by …	Female advanced learners (*N* = 9)	Male advanced learners (*N* = 6)	All Advanced learners (*N* = 15)
… Flemish females (*N* = 3)	2.22	2.33	2.27
… Flemish males (*N* = 3)	2.33	1.67	2.07
… Dutch females (*N* =3)	2.44	3.0	2.67
… Dutch males (*N* = 3)	2.44	1.67	2.13
… all speakers (*N* = 12)	9.44	8.67	9.13

Among the advanced learners, again, two patterns are discernable. One is that there is very little within-group variation among the female advanced learners with scores ranging from 2.22 to 2.44, while the scores for male advanced learners ranged from 1.67 to 3.0.

The other pattern lies in the male advanced learners being much better at recognizing female speakers of both Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch (2.33 and 3.0 respectively) than the male peers (1.67 and 1.67 respectively).

It is interesting to note that all 6 male advanced learners were able to recognize all 3 Dutch females.

The overall score for female advanced learners (9.44) was higher than that for male advanced learners (8.67).

In question 2 of the first task, the participants were asked to determine the speaker's gender (see Section 4.3.3). Among the beginners, one male and one female misidentified a Dutch woman, the mother in *Alles is Liefde*, as a man, and two males and two females misidentified a Flemish woman, the organizer in *Zot van A*., as a man, with confidence ratings ranging from 1 to 4 (on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 means very confident). Among advanced learners, only two females misidentified the same Dutch woman, the mother in *Alles is Liefde*, as a man, with confidence ratings of 1 and 3.

Unlike session two of the study, session three did not include a question on age (as explained in Section 4.3.3.2). With almost all participants guessing the speakers' gender, an overall summary of all correct recognitions is rendered futile and is therefore not included in the analysis of the results obtained in session three of the study.

To determine whether there is a significant statistical difference between the scores presented in Tables 56 and 57, a *Chi*-square test was run.

Table 58. Statistical analysis of the number of recognitions in session two of the study – according to level of proficiency

Number of recognitions of …	Beginners (*N*=19)	Advanced learners (*N*=15)
… FLEMISH as Dutch.	65	25
… FLEMISH as Flemish.	49	66
Chi-square = 17.44; *df* = 1; *p* = < .001*		
… DUTCH as Dutch.	78	73
… DUTCH as Flemish.	36	17
Chi-square = 4.21; *df* = 1; *p* = .0402*		
Correct answers.	127	138

Incorrect answers.	101	42
Chi square = 19.42; *df* = 1; *p* = .< 0001*		

All comparisons for beginners and advanced learners (Table 58) show statistically significant differences.

However, when analyzing how many of the 12 speakers were correctly recognized, the results show that advanced learners outperformed beginners only on 7 counts[71], including 5 by a large margin (Dutch Woman – 1; Flemish woman – 2; Flemish man – 2). With beginners outperforming advanced learners on one count and performing just as well as advanced learners on 4 counts, the conclusion is the same as before: the results are less straightforward than is indicated by statistical analysis.

Table 59. Statistical analysis of the number of recognitions in session two of the study – according to gender.

Number of recognitions of …	Females (*N*=18)	Males (*N*=16)
… FLEMISH as Dutch.	46	43
… FLEMISH as Flemish.	62	53
Chi square = 0.1; *df* = 1; *p* = .7519		
… DUTCH as Dutch.	84	67
… DUTCH as Flemish.	24	29
Chi square = 1.69; *df* = 1; *p* = .1942		
Correct answers.	146	120
Incorrect answers.	70	72
Chi-square = 1.16; *df* = 1; *p* = .2811		

None of the comparisons for females and males give statistically significant differences (Table 59).

[71] one count = one speaker; all individual results can be found on a CD-ROM attached to the dissertation

Table 60. Assessment of Flemish and Dutch on 4 qualities (*the speaker spoke clearly* or *unclearly*, *carefully* or *carelessly*, *nicely or not*, *comprehensibly or not*).

	Task 1, question 3 - Flemish				Task 1, question 3 - Dutch			
All 4 qualities treated collectively (mean scores)	beginners		adv. learners		beginners		adv. learners	
	2.919		3.014		2.912		2.597	
	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male
	2.889	2.946	2.833	3.285	2.787	3.025	2.542	2.681

Table 60 presents the mean scores in the assessment of speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch on all 4 qualities[72] (task 1, question 3). What is noteworthy is that these qualities are treated collectively and taken as indicative of the varieties the speakers represent.

The advanced learners expressed a clear preference for Dutch. The results for all beginners in general are comparable, with male beginners assessing Flemish slightly more favorably.

5.4.2. Task Two

Once more, the 5-point bipolar adaptation of the so-called 'semantic-differential scales' was used with opposite extremes of 18 personality traits on each end of the poles. These were the same adjectives used in the second part of the questionnaire (see Section 4.3.1.5) and in session two of the study (see Section 4.3.2.3). The participants were required to put a cross in one of the boxes to show how strongly they felt a given trait was generally true for the speaker they were listening to.

It is important to note that the order of the speakers in task two was randomized (see Section 4.3.3.2). And again, the participants were not made aware of the fact that the speakers in the two tasks were the same.

To compare the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch, all the mean scores for the individual speakers of each variety had to be added up. The accumulated scores were then analyzed statistically to look for significant differences.

[72] the speaker spoke clearly or unclearly, carefully or carelessly, nicely or not nicely, comprehensibly or incomprehensibly

Table 61. All Dutch speakers in the second task of session three (persons A, B, E, G, H and K). *t*-test results with all 6 individual mean scores for each trait added up – beginners and advanced learners.

Participants thought the Dutch speakers were …	Beginners			Advanced learners			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	19	15.79	3.137	15	16.47	2.825	.653	.519
kind / unkind	19	16.89	3.017	15	17.07	2.789	.171	.866
strong / weak	19	15.68	2.496	15	14.87	3.662	-.740	.467
hard-working / lazy	19	14.95	2.272	15	15.20	2.793	.292	.772
good / bad	19	14.63	3.253	15	14.93	1.981	.316	.754
open / closed	19	13.74	3.649	15	14.60	3.719	.679	.502
self-confident / insecure	19	14.11	2.807	15	12.87	4.103	-1.044	.304
cheerful / sad	19	19.26	2.806	15	17.87	3.292	-1.335	.191
educated / uneducated	19	16.42	2.501	15	16.87	2.875	.483	.632
tolerant / intolerant	19	17.79	2.275	15	17.80	2.808	.012	.990
natural / unnatural	19	11.89	2.826	15	14.07	4.026	1.847	.074
emotional / reserved	19	11.47	2.389	15	10.67	3.016	-.871	.390
sincere / insincere	19	12.95	3.535	15	13.07	4.267	.089	.929
gentle / aggressive	19	17.58	2.854	15	18.20	4.039	.525	.603
cultured / ill-mannered	19	16.89	2.865	15	16.00	3.317	-.844	.405
patriotic / unpatriotic	19	17.05	3.880	15	16.07	2.187	-.878	.386
pragmatic / unpragmatic	19	15.89	2.726	15	16.67	3.478	.726	.473
independent / dependent	19	15.63	2.833	15	15.87	4.207	.194	.847

Out of all 18 pairs of adjectives as personality traits of the 6 Netherlandic Dutch speakers (see Table 61), none generate statistically significant differences between the beginners and the advanced learners. One, however, gives high comparability between the scores by being (almost) identical. This concerns the pair tolerant/intolerant, with an accumulated mean score for the beginners of 17.79 and for the advanced learners of 17.80, giving a *p* value of .990.

When the results are compared under the six headings outlined in Section 4.3.1.5[73] and a look is taken at the accumulated scores, it must be concluded that beginners assessed the Dutch more favorably on competence-related adjectives as well as those pertaining to personal sympathy and, though slightly, social attractiveness. The advanced learners assessed the Dutch more favorably on feelings-related adjectives and those related to personal integrity. One of the two ungrouped personality traits, patriotic/unpatriotic, received more favorable scores from advanced learners; the other one, pragmatic/unpragmatic, from beginners. However, none of these differences turned out to be statistically significant.

From the scores presented in Table 61, it is clear that advanced learners see the Dutch mainly as emotional and self-confident, while beginners see them chiefly as emotional, natural and sincere. In terms of the sociably less desirable traits, both beginners and advanced learners were very consistent in assessing, and therefore viewing, the Dutch as not very tolerant, or even intolerant, not very gentle, or even aggressive, and not very cheerful, or even sad.

Table 62. All Flemish speakers in the second task of session three (persons C, D, F, I, J and L). *t*-test results with all 6 individual mean scores for each trait added up –beginners and advanced learners.

Participants thought the Flemish speakers were …	Beginners			Advanced learners			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	19	14.89	1.941	15	15.20	3.075	.353	.726
kind / unkind	19	15.37	1.707	15	15.27	2.520	-.140	.889
strong / weak	19	15.42	2.090	15	14.67	3.658	-.712	.484
hard-working / lazy	19	15.53	2.038	15	14.73	2.604	-.997	.326
good / bad	19	15.00	2.028	15	15.00	2.507	.000	1.000
open / closed	19	15.53	3.133	15	15.53	3.335	.006	.995
self-confident / insecure	19	13.37	3.166	15	13.60	3.814	.194	.848
cheerful / sad	19	18.21	2.507	15	16.80	2.455	-1.644	.110
educated / uneducated	19	15.53	2.038	15	16.40	2.923	1.026	.312
tolerant / intolerant	19	17.68	2.335	15	17.07	2.789	-.703	.487

[73] These headings are: competence-related, personal sympathy, personal integrity, social attractiveness, feelings-related and others.

natural / unnatural	19	14.00	3.930	15	13.20	3.668	-.607	.548
emotional / reserved	19	14.00	2.789	15	13.13	3.833	-.763	.451
sincere / insincere	19	13.89	2.767	15	13.93	3.575	.036	.972
gentle / aggressive	19	16.00	2.055	15	17.73	3.845	1.577	.130
cultured / ill-mannered	19	15.42	3.150	15	16.67	3.331	1.116	.273
patriotic / unpatriotic	19	17.68	3.334	15	17.20	2.426	-.472	.640
pragmatic / unpragmatic	19	15.84	2.754	15	16.27	2.987	.430	.670
independent / dependent	19	14.16	2.433	15	15.47	3.777	1.225	.230

The results obtained for the Flemish speakers generate no statistically significant differences. They do, however, show a very similar assessment on kind/unkind and open/closed and sincere/insincere by the beginners and advanced learners (see Table 62), with an accumulated mean score of 15.53 for both beginners and advanced learners and a *p* value of .995 for the former pair of personality traits and 13.89 and 13.93 versus 37.79 with a *p* value of .972 for the latter. Also, the ratings for good/bad were identical with a mean score of 15.00 and *p* at 1.000. None of the pairs generated statistically significant differences.

The beginners assessed the Flemish more favorably on adjectives related to competence, feelings and pragmatism, while the advanced learners did so on personal sympathy, social attractiveness and patriotism. When it comes to personal integrity, the overall ratings of beginner and advanced learners were identical.

In general, the scores presented in Table 62 show the Flemish are seen as self-confident but rather intolerant, unpatriotic and sad by beginners and as emotional and natural but rather aggressive by advanced learners.

Table 63. All Dutch speakers in the second task of session three (persons A, B, E, G, H and K). *t*-test results with all 6 mean scores for each trait added up - females and males.

Participants thought the Dutch speakers were …	Females			Males			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	18	15.50	2.854	16	16.75	3.066	-1.231	.227
kind / unkind	18	15.94	2.645	16	18.13	2.754	-2.353	.025
strong / weak	18	15.11	3.411	16	15.56	2.658	-.426	.673

hard-working / lazy	18	14.67	2.744	16	15.50	2.129	-.980	.334
good / bad	18	14.11	2.298	16	15.50	3.055	-1.508	.141
open / closed	18	13.06	3.506	16	15.31	3.535	-1.866	.071
self-confident / insecure	18	13.22	3.889	16	13.94	2.932	-.599	.553
cheerful / sad	18	17.17	2.834	16	20.31	2.442	-3.446	.002
educated / uneducated	18	16.17	3.053	16	17.13	2.062	-1.058	.298
tolerant / intolerant	18	17.50	1.978	16	18.13	2.986	-.727	.472
natural / unnatural	18	12.67	3.726	16	13.06	3.395	-.322	.749
emotional / reserved	18	10.83	3.053	16	11.44	2.220	-.652	.519
sincere / insincere	18	12.33	3.464	16	13.75	4.155	-1.084	.286
gentle / aggressive	18	16.78	3.335	16	19.06	3.108	-2.058	.048
cultured / ill-mannered	18	15.33	2.722	16	17.81	2.949	-2.549	.016
patriotic / unpatriotic	18	16.72	1.994	16	16.50	4.305	.189	.852
pragmatic / unpragmatic	18	16.61	2.227	16	15.81	3.816	.756	.455
independent / dependent	18	15.33	3.068	16	16.19	3.885	-.715	.480

When comparing the results for the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch at the level of gender (see Table 63), there are a total of 4 statistically significant differences: cheerful/sad (with an accumulated mean score of 17.17 for the females and 20.31 for the males, giving a *p* value of .002), cultured/ill-mannered (with an accumulated mean score of 15.33 for the females and 17.81 for the males, giving a *p* value of .016), kind/unkind (with an accumulated mean score of 15.94 for the females and 18.13 for the males, giving a *p* value of .025) and gentle/aggressive (with an accumulated mean score of 16.78 for the females and 19.06 for the males, giving a *p* value of .048)

When it comes to how females and males viewed the Dutch, the scores in Table 63 show the former assessed them more favorably on adjectives related to competence, feelings, personal integrity and, by quite a large margin, personal sympathy and social attractiveness, while the males assessed the Dutch more favorably only on how patriotic and pragmatic they are. However, only two of these differences are statistically significant, namely the one on adjectives pertaining to social attractiveness (*M* for females = 2.58 with *SD* = .312, *M* for males = 2.91 with *SD* = .391; *t* = -2.678; *p* = .012)

and the one on feelings-related adjectives (*M* for females = 2.30 with *SD* = .355, *M* for males = 2.54 with *SD* = .293; *t* = -2.139; *p* = .040).

What both groups, that is females and males, have in common is that they rated the Dutch most favorably when assessing how emotional they are.

Overall, the Dutch are seen as emotional and sincere but rather intolerant by the females, and emotional but rather aggressive and sad by the males.

Table 64. All Flemish speakers in the second task of session three (persons C, D, F, I, J and L). *t*-test results with all 6 mean scores for each trait added up - females and males.

Participants thought the Flemish speakers were …	Females			Males			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
intelligent / stupid	18	14.83	2.149	16	15.25	2.840	-.486	.631
kind / unkind	18	14.83	1.790	16	15.88	2.277	-1.491	.146
strong / weak	18	14.83	2.065	16	15.38	3.612	-.528	.603
hard-working / lazy	18	15.11	2.026	16	15.25	2.646	-.173	.864
good / bad	18	14.61	1.852	16	15.44	2.555	-1.089	.284
open / closed	18	14.39	2.852	16	16.81	3.103	-2.373	.024
self-confident / insecure	18	12.44	3.329	16	14.63	3.222	-1.935	.062
cheerful / sad	18	16.94	2.363	16	18.31	2.626	-1.599	.120
educated / uneducated	18	15.33	1.970	16	16.56	2.851	-1.476	.150
tolerant / intolerant	18	16.72	2.164	16	18.19	2.738	-1.741	.091
natural / unnatural	18	12.72	3.739	16	14.69	3.665	-1.544	.132
emotional / reserved	18	13.17	3.034	16	14.13	3.538	-.850	.401
sincere / insincere	18	12.67	2.931	16	15.31	2.726	-2.715	.011
gentle / aggressive	18	16.22	3.021	16	17.38	3.074	-1.102	.279
cultured / ill-mannered	18	15.17	3.258	16	16.88	3.074	-1.567	.127
patriotic / unpatriotic	18	17.33	2.058	16	17.63	3.757	-.276	.785
pragmatic / unpragmatic	18	16.11	2.139	16	15.94	3.511	.176	.861
independent / dependent	18	15.00	2.951	16	14.44	3.366	.519	.607

As far as the results for the speakers of Belgian Dutch go (see Table 64), two pairs of adjectives with statistically significant differences can be distinguished:

sincere/insincere (with an accumulated mean score of 12.67 for the females and 15.31 for the males, giving a *p* value of .011) and open/closed (with an accumulated mean score of 14.39 for the females and 16.81 for the males, giving a *p* value of .024).

When comparing the accumulated scores, it is clear that the females assessed the Flemish more favorably on almost all groups of adjectives, that is those pertaining to competence, feelings, personal integrity, social attractiveness and personal sympathy, most by a large margin. They also saw them as more patriotic than did the males. This was reversed when it came to assessing the Flemish speakers' pragmatism. However, only two of these differences are statistically significant, namely the one on adjectives pertaining to personal sympathy (*M* for females = 2.29 with *SD* = .357, *M* for males = 2.59 with *SD* = .322; $t = -2.395$; $p = .023$) and the one on adjectives related to social attractiveness (*M* for females = 2.60 with *SD* = .277, *M* for males = 2.83 with *SD* = .321; $t = -2.169$; $p = .038$).

Overall, females assessed the Flemish as self-confident, sincere and natural but rather unpatriotic, while the males as emotional but rather intolerant and sad.

As much as it seemed surprising that the speakers of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch received middle-of-the-scale scores on tolerance in session two of the study, the fact that in session three they were sometimes rated as quite or very intolerant seems to be even more remarkable and go against expectations even more. However, the explanation might be as simple as these ratings being more indicative of how the characters these particular actors and actresses played were perceived.

To obtain a more comprehensive picture of how the mean scores for the Dutch and the Flemish compare, correlation patterns were computed for all 18 adjective pairs for all 34 participants. Also, a *t*-test was carried out. The findings are presented in Table 65.

The statistical computation of the correlation patterns shows a parallelism of the ratings obtained on most adjective pairs, the exceptions being kind/unkind, hard-working/lazy and tolerant/intolerant. With *r* between .419 and .722, the statistically significant correlation patterns were all moderate.

In terms of the *t*-test results, there are statistically significant differences in the ratings of the Dutch and the Flemish on as many as 7 adjective pairs: intelligent/dumb, kind/unkind, open/closed, cheerful/sad, emotional/reserved (with $p < .001$), gentle/aggressive and patriotic/unpatriotic.

Table 65. Ratings of all participants (N = 34) in the second task of session three on all Dutch and Flemish speakers on all personality traits respectively. Mean scores for each group are added up. Correlations and t-test results (df = 33).

The Dutch vs. the Flemish on all pairs of adjectives.	Dutch		Flemish		Correlation		t-test	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	corr.	*p*	*t*	*p*
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – intelligent / dumb.	16.09	2.978	15.03	2.468	.552	.001	2.360	.024
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – kind / unkind.	16.97	2.876	15.32	2.070	.287	.100	3.176	.003
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – strong / weak.	15.32	3.042	15.09	2.864	.473	.005	.452	.654
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – hard-working / lazy.	15.06	2.473	15.18	2.302	.317	.067	-.246	.808
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – good / bad.	14.76	2.731	15.00	2.216	.586	.000	-.597	.554
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – open / closed.	14.12	3.650	15.53	3.174	.722	.000	-3.187	.003
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – self-confident / insecure.	13.56	3.439	13.47	3.413	.609	.000	.170	.866
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – cheerful / sad.	18.65	3.064	17.59	2.548	.563	.001	2.319	.027
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – educated / uneducated.	16.62	2.640	15.91	2.466	.469	.005	1.562	.128
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – tolerant / intolerant.	17.79	2.484	17.41	2.524	.289	.097	.747	.460
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – natural / unnatural.	12.85	3.526	13.65	3.781	.567	.000	-1.358	.184
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – emotional / reserved..	11.12	2.672	13.62	3.266	.547	.001	-5.073	.000
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – sincere / insincere.	13.00	3.814	13.91	3.098	.549	.001	-1.590	.121
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – gentle / aggressive.	17.85	3.386	16.76	3.056	.547	.001	2.061	.047
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – cultured / ill-mannered.	16.50	3.058	15.97	3.243	.564	.001	1.048	.302
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – patriotic / unpatriotic.	16.62	3.238	17.47	2.936	.692	.000	-2.039	.049
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – pragmatic / unpragmatic.	16.24	3.056	16.03	2.823	.565	.001	.437	.665
The Dutch vs. the Flemish – independent / dependent.	15.74	3.449	14.74	3.117	.419	.014	1.642	.110

Finally, to obtain a more comprehensive picture of how the mean scores for the Dutch and the Flemish compare, correlation patterns were computed for the adjectives when grouped under 5 of the 6 headings as outlined in Section 4.3.1.5 (Table 20). Also, a t-test was carried out. The findings are presented in Table 66.

Table 66. Comparison of all the adjectives when grouped under 5 headings. Session Three. Mean scores for each group standardized in Statistica. Correlations and *t*-test.

Adjectives grouped under 5 headings	The Dutch		The Flemish		Correlation		*t*-test	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*r.*	*p*	*t*	*p*
Competence-related adjectives	2.725	.434	2.568	.376	.572	.001	2.377	.024
Adjectives pertaining to personal sympathy	2.410	.495	2.434	.367	.564	.001	-.311	.758
Adjectives related to personal integrity	2.519	.362	2.454	.328	.369	.041	.925	.363
Adjectives pertaining to social attractiveness	2.737	.388	2.721	.293	.623	.000	.277	.784
Feelings-related adjectives	2.422	.347	2.548	.362	.607	.000	-2.305	.028

As far as the *t*-test is concerned, there are two statistically significant differences, namely for adjectives pertaining to competence (p = .024) and those that are feelings-related (p = .028). On the other hand, all 5 correlations generated statistically significant results.

Apart from the overall results presented above, the individual scores obtained for 10 of the 12 speakers from the films used in session two of the study can be scrutinized as well (see Table 67). Since only statistically significant scores are presented in Table 67, speakers F and I, whose results were all statistically insignificant, are not included.

Table 67. Statistically significant individual scores in the second task of session three of the study.

Speaker	Comparison	Pair of adjectives	Statistical analysis[74]
A. Mother from *Alles is Liefde*	female vs. male participants	cheerful/sad	*M* for females = 2.11; *SD* = .900; *M* for males = 2.88; *SD* = 1.025; *t* = -2.314; *df* = 32; *p* = .027
B. Prostitute from the Flemish *Loft*	beginners vs. advanced participants	gentle/aggressive	*M* for beg. = 1.74; *SD* = .733; *M* for adv. = 2.33; *SD* = .733; *t* = 2.036; *df* = 32; *p* = .050
	female vs. male participants	self-confident/insecure	*M* for females = 2.33; *SD* = 1.188; *M* for males = 3.19; *SD* = .911; *t* = -2.330; *df* = 32; *p* = .026
		cheerful/sad	*M* for females = 3.12; *SD* = .857; *M* for males = 3.81; *SD* = 1.047; *t* = -2.092; *df* = 31; *p* = .045
C. Gay from *Alles is Liefde*	beginners vs. advanced participants	kind/unkind	*M* for beg. = 2.89; *SD* = .937; *M* for adv. = 3.67; *SD* = .724; *t* = 2.629; *df* = 32; *p* = .013
		gentle/aggressive	*M* for beg. = 2.68; *SD* = .946; *M* for adv. = 3.40; *SD* = .737; *t* = 2.408; *df* = 32; *p* = .022

[74] beg. = beginners; adv. = advanced learners.

D. Suicide victim from the Dutch *Loft*	beginners vs. advanced participants	tolerant/intolerant	*M* for beg. = 3.37; *SD* = .684; *M* for adv. = 2.80; *SD* = .941; *t* = -2.040; *df* = 32; *p* = .050
		gentle/aggressive	*M* for beg. = 4.00; *SD* = .816; *M* for adv. = 3.27; *SD* = 1.163; *t* = -2.159; *df* = 32; *p* = .038
	female vs. male participants	cheerful/sad	*M* for females = 3.56; *SD* = .616; *M* for males = 4.06; *SD* = .680; *t* = -2.282; *df* = 32; *p* = .029
E. Organizer from *Zot van A.*	female vs. male participants	open/closed	*M* for females = 1.39; *SD* = .502; *M* for males = 2.00; *SD* = .816; *t* = -2.663; *df* = 32; *p* = .012
		self-confident/insecure	*M* for females = 1.78; *SD* = .878; *M* for males = 2.69; *SD* = 1.195; *t* = -2.548; *df* = 32; *p* = .016
		sincere/insincere	*M* for females = 1.61; *SD* = .608; *M* for males = 2.38; *SD* = 1.025; 3*t* = -2.680; *df* = 32; *p* = .012
G. Prostitute from the Dutch *Loft*	female vs. male participants	cheerful/sad	*M* for females = 2.89; *SD* = 1.132; *M* for males = 3.88; *SD* = .885; *t* = -2.804; *df* = 32; *p* = .009
H. Gay from *Zot van A.*	beginners vs. advanced participants	tolerant/intolerant	*M* for beg. = 1.95; *SD* = .621; *M* for adv. = 2.67; *SD* = 1.047; *t* = 2.355; *df* = 21.575; *p* = .028
J. Mother from *Zot van A.*	beginners vs. advanced participants	patriotic/unpatriotic	*M* for beg. = 3.16; *SD* = .765; *M* for adv. = 2.53; *SD* = .743; *t* = -2.394; *df* = 32; *p* = .023
	female vs. male participants	open/closed	*M* for females = 1.33; *SD* = .485; *M* for males = 2.25; *SD* = 1.342; *t* = -2.711; *df* = 32; *p* = .011
		tolerant/intolerant	*M* for females = 2.67; *SD* = .767; *M* for males = 3.56; *SD* = .814; *t* = -3.303; *df* = 32; *p* = .002
		natural/ unnatural	*M* for females = 1.67; *SD* = .840; *M* for males = 2.56; *SD* = 1.413; *t* = -2.277; *df* = 32; *p* = .030
		sincere/insincere	*M* for females = 1.78; *SD* = .732; *M* for males = 2.56; *SD* = 1.365; *t* = -2.123; *df* = 32; *p* = .042
K. Main character from the Dutch *Loft*	beginners vs. advanced participants	hard-working/lazy	*M* for beg. = 2.89; *SD* = .583; *M* for adv.= 2.33; *SD* = .816; *t* = -2.276; *df* = 31; *p* = .030
	female vs. male participants	gentle/aggressive	*M* for females = 3.28; *SD* = 1.127; *M* for males = 4.13; *SD* = .619; *t* = -2.755; *df* = 26.972; *p* = .010
		cultured/ill-mannered	*M* for females = 2.72; *SD* = .752; *M* for males = 3.25; *SD* = .683; *t* = -2.132; *df* = 32; *p* = .041
		intelligent/lazy	*M* for beg. = 2.47; *SD* = .697; *M* for adv. = 3.07; *SD* = .961; *t* = 2.086; *df* = 32; *p* = .045
		good/bad	*M* for beg. = 1.63; *SD* = .597;

L. Organizer from *Alles is Liefde*	beginners vs. advanced participants		*M* for adv. = 2.20; *SD* = 1.014; *t* = 2.040; *df* = 32; *p* = .050
		self-confident/insecure	*M* for beg. = 2.53; *SD* = .697; *M* for adv. = 1.73; *SD* = .884; *t* = -2.928; *df* = 32; *p* = .006
		emotional/reserved	*M* for beg. = 2.00; *SD* = .667; *M* for adv. =1.53; *SD* = .640; *t* = -2.062; *df* = 32; *p* = .047
		gentle/aggressive	*M* for beg. = 2.21; *SD* = .855; *M* for adv. = 3.00; *SD* = 1.309; *t* = 2.121; *df* = 32; *p* = .042
	female vs. male participants	hard-working/lazy	*M* for females = 2.33; *SD* = .767; *M* for males = 2.94; *SD* = .772; *t* = -2.286; *df* = 32; *p* = .029

There are not any statistically significant individual scores for two speakers, both Flemish males (person F, the main character from the Flemish *Loft*, and person I, the suicider from the Flemish *Loft*).

Finally, the individual results obtained in both tasks of session three for all 12 speakers can be found on a CD-ROM attached to the dissertation.

5.5. On how relevant tasks and questions from Sessions One, Two and Three of the study compare

With the results of all three sessions of the study described in detail in Sections 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4, it is now of utmost importance to compare the relevant tasks and questions of these sessions with each other to see how they correlate, both at the level of language variety and at the level of speakers of these varieties.

To enable comparisons, first the results for all the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch respectively were grouped and then, with there being no speakers in session one and a different number of speakers in sessions two and three, all the variables were standardized in Statistica.

The participants expressed their view of Netherlandic Dutch in all three sessions of the study: when they were asked to assess Netherlandic Dutch specifically by putting a cross on a continuum with 5 opposite descriptions[75] on either side in question 7 of the first part in session one of the study (the questionnaire) and when they had to rate the

[75] pleasant to listen to vs. unpleasant to listen to, easy to learn vs. difficult to learn, easy to understand vs. difficult to understand, rich in vocabulary vs. with poor vocabulary, and rich in grammar structures vs. without rich grammatical structures.

reading/speaking style of speakers of the Dutch language[76] in general in question 4 of the first task in session two and question 3 of the first task in session three, not knowing whether these speakers were Dutch or Flemish[77]. The assessment of these reading and/or speaking styles were then taken as indicative of how the participants felt about the particular language variety. The correlation patterns for Netherlandic Dutch are presented in Table 68.

The procedure was exactly the same for Belgian Dutch with the exception that in the first part of the questionnaire question 8, rather than question 7, was concerned with this particular variety. The correlation patterns for Belgian Dutch are presented in Table 69.

Table 68. Correlation patterns for Netherlandic Dutch as a result of comparing the findings in 3 sessions of the study (session one, part one, question 7; session two, task one, question 4; session three, task one, question 3).

About Dutch and Dutch speakers	Statistical analysis	Session one, part one, question 7	Session two, task one, question 4	Session three, task one, question 3
Session one, part one, question 7	*r*	1.000	.170	.114
	p	-	.335	.520
	N	34	34	34
Session two, task one, question 4	*r*	.170	1.000	.664**
	p	.335	-	.000
	N	34	34	34
Session three, task one, question 3	*r*	.114	.664**	1.000
	p	.520	.000	-
	N	34	34	34

Table 68 clearly shows a moderate correlation pattern between how Netherlandic Dutch was rated by the participants in question 4 of the first task of part two of the study (assessment of native speakers reading the exact same text) and in question 3 of the first

[76] They were to decide whether the speaker read/spoke (part two) or spoke (part three) clearly or unclearly, carefully or carelessly, nicely or not nicely, and comprehensibly or incomprehensibly.
[77] For more details on all three tasks, see Sections 4.3.1.4, 4.3.2.3 and 4.3.3.2.

task of part three of the study (actors and actresses playing the same roles in Flemish and Dutch versions of 2 films [78]), with *r* at .664 and $p < .001$.

An identical conclusion can be drawn about how Belgian Dutch was rated by the participants in exactly the same parts of the study, with *r* at .648 and $p < .001$ (see Table 68).

These two findings show a lack in consistency, with the participants' proclaimed language variety preferences (questionnaire) not being fully in line with how they assessed them when listening to native speakers in two different verbal guise tasks. This may be put down to participants not being fully aware of the differences between the two varieties. In other words, what they think (they prefer) is dissimilar from what they hear. This will be further discussed in later sections.

Table 69. Correlation patterns for Belgian Dutch as a result of comparing the findings in 3 parts of the study (session one, part one, question 8; session two, task one, question 4; session three, task one, question 3).

About Flemish and Flemish speakers	Statistical analysis	Session one, part one, question 8	Session two, task one, question 4	Session three, task one, question 3
Session one, part one, question 8	*r*	1.000	-.224	.050
	p	-	.203	.778
	N	34	34	34
Session two, task one, question 4	*r*	-.224	1.000	.648**
	p	.203	-	.000
	N	34	34	34
Session three, task one, question 3	*r*	.050	.648**	1.000
	p	.778	.000	-
	N	34	34	34

In addition to expressing their view on two varieties of the Dutch language, Netherlandic and Belgian, multiple times, the participants also assessed the speakers of these varieties in all three sessions of the study: when putting a cross in one of the boxes with opposite extremes of 18 personality traits on each end of the poles of a 5-point bipolar adaptation of the so-called 'semantic-differential scales' to show how strongly they felt a given trait was generally true for either the Dutch or the Flemish in the second

[78] The films were: the Flemish Loft, the Dutch Loft, Alles is Liefde (Dutch) and Zot van A. (Flemish).

part of session one of the study (with question 1 being about the Dutch and question 3 about the Flemish), the second task of session two of the study and the second task of session three of the study[79]. Again, in sessions two and three of the study, the participants were not told which variety was represented by which speaker. The correlation patterns for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch are presented in Table 70, while those for speakers of Belgian Dutch in Table 71.

Again, there are moderate correlation patterns between how the participants rated the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch in sessions two and three only, with their conscious assessment (in the second part of the questionnaire) not correlated at all.

As far as the assessment of the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch is concerned, the correlation pattern between the second task of session two and the second task of session three has an *r* value of .568 and $p < .001$.

Table 70. Correlation patterns for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch as a result of comparing the findings in three sessions of the study (session one, part two, question 1; session two, task two; session three, task two).

About speakers of Netherlandic Dutch	Statistical analysis	Session one, part two, question 1	Session two, task two	Session three, task two
Session one, part two, question 1	*r*	1.000	.011	-.064
	p	-	.950	.721
	N	34	34	34
Session two, task two	*r*	.011	1.000	.568**
	p	.950	-	.000
	N	34	34	34
Session three, task two	*r*	-.064	.568**	1000
	p	.721	.000	-
	N	34	34	34

[79] For detailed descriptions, see Sections 4.3.1.5, 4.3.2.3 and 4.3.3.2.

Table 71. Correlation patterns for speakers of Belgian Dutch as a result of comparing the findings in three sessions of the study (session one, part two, question 3; session two, task two; session three, task two).

About speakers of Belgian Dutch	Statistical analysis	Session one, part two, question 3	Session two, task two	Session three, task two
Session one, part two, question 3	*r*	1.000	.074	.229
	p	-	.677	.193
	N	34	34	34
Session two, task two	*r*	.074	1.000	.523**
	p	.677	-	.002
	N	34	34	34
Session three, task two	*r*	.229	.523**	1.000
	p	.193	.002	-
	N	34	34	34

When it comes to the ratings for the speakers of Belgian Dutch, the correlation pattern between the second task of session two and the second task of session three has an *r* value of .523 and *p* = .002.

To test for statistically significant differences, the correlations described above have been supplemented by a *t*-test for all the standardized findings, with a division into level of proficiency (beginners versus advanced learners) and gender (females versus males). The results are presented in Tables 72 and 73 respectively.

Table 72. *t*-test results for beginners and advanced learners on all standardized variables.

	Beginners			Advanced learners			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*[80]	*SD*	*N*	*M*[81]	*SD*		
Session one, part one, question 7 (about Dutch)	19	-.07710	.86873	15	.09766	1.1698	.500	.620
Session one, part one, question 8 (about Flemish)	19	-.05987	1.1284	15	.07583	.84203	.388	.701
Session two, task one, question 4 (about Dutch)	19	.44525	.85742	15	-.56398	.89558	-3.342	.002

[80] All the variables were standardized in Statistica to enable comparisons.
[81] ibid.

Session two, task one, question 4 (about Flemish)	19	-.03414	.92677	15	.04325	1.1176	.221	.827
Session three, task one, question 3 (about Dutch)	19	.29637	1.0741	15	-.37540	.77683	-2.035	.050
Session three, task one, question 3 (about Flemish)	19	-.07484	.88741	15	.09480	1.1521	.485	.631
Session one, part two, question 1 (about the Dutch)	19	-.19767	1.0079	15	.25038	.96467	1.311	.199
Session one, part two, question 3 (about the Flemish)	19	.00161	.90804	15	-.00203	1.1388	-.010	.992
Session two, task two (about the Dutch)	19	-.01474	1.1183	15	.01868	.86519	.843	.405
Session two, task two (about the Flemish)	19	-.12909	1.1182	15	.16352	.83561	.095	.925
Session three, task two (about the Dutch)	19	-.00655	.94537	15	.00830	1.0990	.042	.967
Session three, task two (about the Flemish)	19	-.00499	.81069	15	.00632	1.2296	.032	.974

When the standardized results obtained for beginners and advanced learners are compared (Table 72), it is clear that only two tasks generated statistically significant differences, that is question 4 of the first task in session two, where the participants were asked to assess Netherlandic Dutch in the sense of rating the reading/speaking style of speakers of this variety (with a *p* value of .002), and question 3 of the first task in session three, where the participants, again, were required to assess Netherlandic Dutch in the sense of rating the speaking style of speakers of this variety (with a *p* value of .050).

It is also worth mentioning that the scores obtained in question 3 of the second part in session one (assessment of the Flemish) and twice the second task in session three, once with reference to the Dutch and once to the Flemish. These show high comparability with a *p* value of .992, .967 and .974 respectively.

None of the other results give statistically significant findings.

When the same results are compared by gender, no statistically significant differences or examples of high comparability can be found (see Table 73). There is,

however, one trend towards statistical significance in how speakers of Belgian Dutch were assessed by females and males in the second task of session three.

Table 73. *t*-test results for females and males on all standardized variables.

	Females			Males			*t*	*p*
	N	*M*[82]	*SD*	*N*	*M*[83]	*SD*		
Session one, part one, question 7 (about Dutch)	18	-.01146	1.1106	16	.01290	.895389	-.070	.945
Session one, part one, question 8 (about Flemish)	18	-.06448	1.2299	16	.07255	.689223	-.406	.688
Session two, task one, question 4 (about Dutch)	18	.01513	.99398	16	-.01702	1.039079	.092	.927
Session two, task one, question 4 (about Flemish)	18	-.13874	.97888	16	.15609	1.031955	-.955	.399
Session three, task one, question 3 (about Dutch)	18	-.24476	.90734	16	.27535	1.055548	-1.545	.132
Session three, task one, question 3 (about Flemish)	18	-.15096	.81804	16	.16983	1.1762	-.932	.358
Session one, part two, question 1 (about the Dutch)	18	-.12299	.82562	16	.13837	1.178504	-.756	.455
Session one, part two, question 3 (about the Flemish)	18	-.04237	1.1501	16	.04767	.834383	-.258	.798
Session two, task two (about the Dutch)	18	.09583	.63769	16	-.10781	1.3098	.255	.800
Session two, task two (about the Flemish)	18	.04186	.62877	16	-.04709	1.3219	.587	.561
Session three, task two (about the Dutch)	18	-.28988	.81947	16	.32611	1.1066	-1.858	.072

[82] All the variables were standardized in Statistica to enable comparisons.
[83] ibid.

Session three, task two (about the Flemish)	18	-.30693	.86630	16	.34530	1.0531	-1.981	.056

To learn more about the interconnectedness of the three sessions of the study and to further examine what factors (may) influence awareness and attitudes, the data from each participant have been analyzed qualitatively in a case-study fashion (Abbuhl and Mackey 2008). For this purpose, the answer sheets have been coded with the beginners marked from 1BA1 to 1BA19 and the advanced learners, here divided into two groups according to their year of studies, from 3BA1 to 3BA9 and from 1MA1 to 1MA6. These qualitative data have been included as Appendix E.

For reasons of clarity, each description starts from general information taken from the third part of session one of the study, the questionnaire (see Sections 4.3.1.6 and 5.2.3). This information refers to the time the different sessions of the study were administered.

Conclusions from this analysis will be presented in the discussion of the results.

5.6. Summary and discussion of results

5.6.1. Introductory comments

In the Introduction it was stated that very early on in their Practical Dutch course, students of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University not only become aware of lexical differences between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch by being exposed to two equivalents for the English word 'beer/a pint', *pintje* and *pilsje* respectively, but they also seem to be willing and able to make conscious choices by opting for Belgian Dutch when asked which variety they prefer. This preference for, or, in other words, positive attitude towards Belgian Dutch, however, is not always in line with the word choice they then make (*pilsje* rather than *pintje*).

Two of the aforementioned notions, that is language awareness and language attitudes, underlie the present study, whose main research questions were:

1. How aware are (34) Polish students of Dutch of the differences between two varieties of the Dutch language, namely Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch?

2. What are the participants' attitudes towards Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch and towards speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch?
3. What factors may influence the participants' language awareness and attitudes?
4. Does applying a multi-method approach to studying language attitudes give a clearer insight into these attitudes?

These questions were supported by a number of supplementary questions and followed by hypotheses, all of which are presented in Section 4.1. The multi-method approach adopted included a detailed questionnaire and 2 extended tasks of the verbal guise type.

In the first two parts of session one, the questionnaire, the participants had to rely on stereotypes as well as their experience with and exposure to the two varieties, Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, and their speakers. In these parts they were asked to state what their reading, watching and listening habits were, whether they knew and kept in touch with anybody from or had been to the Netherlands and Flanders, which variety they preferred and what their opinion of the Dutch and the Flemish was. In the third part, they were asked to provide information concerning their age, gender and matters related to their knowledge of foreign languages.

In the first task of session two of the study, in which the participants were asked to identify the variety used by 24 speakers that read exactly the same text, determine their gender and age and rate them on a set of 4 characteristics, and in the second task, in which the speakers had to be rated on a set of 18 adjective pairs, the participants could only rely on the way words, or even individual sounds, were pronounced. Possible additional hints included hesitations and/or attempts at self-repairs.

In session three of the study (identifying the language variety used, assessing the speakers on 4 characteristics and rating them on a set of 18 adjective pairs), apart from relying on phonetic hints, the participants could also refer to grammatical and lexical clues while listening to 12 actors/actresses playing their roles.

Each session addressed the main research questions in its own way, or even in a variety of ways, so in order to provide answers to them, cross-referencing between the supporting questions, hypotheses and the actual results is imperative.

5.6.2. Language awareness

To determine the level of awareness, the participants were asked to identify speakers of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch in question 1 of the first task of session two of the study and in question 1 of the first task of session three of the study. In the former, the participants listened to 6 female and 6 male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch as well as 6 female and 6 male speakers of Belgian Dutch read exactly the same text. In the latter, they listened to 3 female and 3 male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch as well as 3 female and 3 male speakers of Belgian Dutch, all of whom were actors acting in Dutch and Flemish versions of the same 2 films. The results have been analyzed by participants' language proficiency and gender and tested for consistency.

The hypotheses were that advanced learners would notice the various linguistic hints in the text (pronunciation) and films (pronunciation, grammar and lexis) and hence outperform the beginners across the board by identifying more speakers of Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch correctly. In addition, those with more experience with and better self-reported knowledge of foreign languages would be better at recognizing the correct variety. Furthermore, the participants would have no problems identifying the gender of the speakers but might struggle guessing the correct age. Finally, there would not be any between-gender variation in awareness, and the respondents would be consistent in their choices and answers.

The answer to the question whether Polish students of Dutch are able to distinguish between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, which are typologically close but differ substantially in terms of pronunciation, lexis and grammar (see Chapter 3), is a very tentative yes. The reluctance in providing a fully affirmative answer lies in the fact that even though the participants correctly identified at least half of the speakers, their overall score on all 36 speakers is a mere 68.2%. Furthermore, with the number of clues present in the text and the films, phonetic ones in the case of the former and phonetic, grammatical and lexical ones in the case of the latter (see Section 4.3.2.2 for a list of clues in the text and Section 3.3 for a comprehensive outline of differences between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch), the participants, in particular the advanced ones, should have been able to make a greater number of correct recognitions while at the same time proving to be more aware of the varieties used by the speakers.

Regarding the level of proficiency, all the differences between advanced learners and beginners on the number of correct recognitions versus the number of

misrecognitions are statistically significant. Nevertheless, advanced learners did not outperform beginners across the board, which they were expected to do. In fact, on some counts *they* were outperformed.

One explanation for advanced learners not always outperforming beginners could be that the latter, for whom the content of both the text and the films was beyond full comprehension, based their answers on one or two hints they did manage to pick out, whereas the advanced learners heard too many clues, which could have made them confused. Also, if a participant was mainly used to Netherlandic Dutch, then everything that sounded different could have automatically been taken as Belgian Dutch. And vice versa.

Another assumption was that there would be little, if any, between-gender variation in awareness. Surprisingly, however, there in fact is a statistically significant difference in the number of recognitions of Flemish speakers by females and males in part two.

In terms of correctly identifying the speakers' gender, mistakes were made in sessions two and three, which goes against expectations. All 4 mistakes in session two concern the misrecognition of Flemish female speakers as males by male participants, 1 among beginners and 3 among advanced learners. In part three, 1 Dutch female speaker and 1 Flemish female speaker were misidentified as males by a total of 6 male and female participants among the beginners. Two female advanced learners misidentified the same female speaker of Netherlandic Dutch as a man. The explanation may lie in whether syllables are lengthened, sounds pronounced more gently and the speech comes from the throat or hard palate, all of which seem to be feminine patterns. If female speakers lack such features and they speak more from the chest or simply in a low voice, they may be mistaken for men.

As predicted and notwithstanding some patterns and individual differences (see Section 5.2.1), the participants struggled to guess the speakers' age in session two. In fact, with overall scores of 18.3% for beginners and, perhaps surprisingly, an even lower 14.8% for advanced learners, it can safely be concluded that these participants were not able to determine how old the speakers were by just listening to them. Adjusting or extending the age bracket by ± 1 does not alter these findings significantly.

The participants' problems with identifying the speakers' age may be put down to the age brackets being too narrow or age simply being difficult to determine, especially among older speakers. Also, the participants may have struggled to identify the

speakers' age and gender because they may have involuntarily concentrated on content, as is often the case when listening to somebody speak a foreign language, even if the task at hand was different. The same reasoning could be used to explain inconsistencies between the findings in session one, the questionnaire, in which no listening took place, and sessions two and three, in which participants did have to listen.

A further hypothesis was that participants who had (had) more experience with and better self-reported knowledge of foreign languages would be better at recognizing the correct variety. This proved partly true. Among beginners, participant 1BA17, having learned more languages, including varieties of the same language, than any participant, at either level, indeed scored better on recognitions than all other beginners and as well as the best advanced learners. On the other hand, the scores of participants 1BA6, who had (had) the most exposure to the Dutch language and experience with the target-language community, and 1BA12, who knew more than 3 foreign languages well, were average. Among advanced learners, the scores of participant 3BA8, who knew the most foreign languages well, are among the highest. From the two participants that had spent a whole semester studying at a Flemish university, 3BA2 and 3BA5, where they were exposed to speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch as well as those who spoke 'tussentaal' (see Chapter 3) on a daily basis, and who were therefore expected to be good at recognizing varieties of Dutch, only student 3BA5 indeed was.

Other comparisons, both between groups and within individual ratings and answers, also indicate some inconsistencies. One example concerns male participants performing better than their female peers on recognizing the appropriate language variety used by the speakers when comparing the summaries of recognitions for beginners and advanced learners in session two and for beginners in session three but not when scrutinizing the mean scores for advanced learners in part three.

Inconsistencies do not only concern the number of correct recognitions. When the scores of two randomly chosen participants, 1BA1 and 1BA2, are compared, it must be concluded that individual results and answers can confirm the overall inconsistencies. Participant 1BA, unlike participant 1BA2, did little work outside the classroom, did not know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders, had spent very little time in the 2 places and yet their scores on recognitions are comparable. On the other hand, when the results of participant 1BA1 only are scrutinized, it must be stated that she was better at recognizing Belgian Dutch speakers but inconsistent in her assessment. Therefore her results in the experimental sessions were neither in line with what she proclaimed in the

questionnaire nor with each other. She was, however, consistent in her characteristic-definition comparisons.

Participant 1BA5's marking Dutch rather than Flemish on 35 out of 36[84] occasions constitutes another example of inconsistency. Nevertheless, in a debriefing interview, this student asserted her answers reflected her beliefs at the time of the study and hence were indicative of how aware she was, making them relevant.

Though unintentionally, linguistic awareness, or lack thereof, appears also to have been examined, albeit to some extent only, in session one of the study, the questionnaire. In its first part (questions 9 and 10), participants were asked to state whether they would prefer to study Belgian or Netherlandic Dutch if given the choice and to justify their answer. Some of the answers exhibit a lack of awareness. For instance, participant 1BA12, having been exposed to native speakers of both varieties and having been explicitly acquainted with at least one lexical difference, claimed it was difficult to choose which variety he preferred since he knew nothing about the differences between the two. Participant 3BA1, after about 2.5 years of studying Dutch, stated that Dutch to her meant the Dutch that is spoken on the news, adding that she had never heard of other varieties. Last but not least, participant 1MA3, a fourth-year student of Dutch at the time, declared she did not know there was a division into Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch. Then again, it could be argued that such a view is consistent with Kellerman's psychotypology, according to which languages that are similar to each other are seen as the same (Kellerman 1977).

Some answers to questions 9 and 10 of the first part of the questionnaire were clear indications of the participants' awareness of language varieties. For instance, participant 1BA14, a beginner, called Netherlandic Dutch the standard variety when justifying the choice he made in reply to question 9.

A different type of linguistic awareness was exhibited by participant 1BA6, who argued it was easier to focus on vocabulary extension when listening rather than watching for the simple reason of there being no distractors in the former.

Overall, though there are exceptions, the results show that the 34 students of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University exhibit a lack of awareness of the two varieties of the language they study, that is Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch. Apparently, mere exposure to native speaker teachers of either variety is not sufficient to make them

[84] This total (36) is the sum of 24 (speakers from session two) and 12 (speakers from session three).

conscious (de Louw 2013). Exposing students to the two varieties through the use of two main course books, one for each variety, in Practical Dutch classes or individual work done by the students outside the classroom, visits to the Netherlands and/or Flanders or maintaining a relationship with people from one or both places may not guarantee a score above average, either.

The findings can also be discussed within the framework of explicit versus implicit knowledge.

Explicit and implicit knowledge can, among others, be distinguished by looking at systematicity, which in the case of the former refers to anomalous and inconsistent knowledge and in the case of the latter to variable but systematic knowledge, and at awareness, which in implicit knowledge is intuitive and in explicit knowledge conscious (R. Ellis 2005a). The implications for this present study may be that overall the participants exhibit a weak interface position between explicit and implicit knowledge (R. Ellis 2005a), with some participants able to more or less consciously make use of the knowledge they have of the differences between the two varieties[85], exhibiting declarative knowledge this way, while others, especially those with very little exposure to either variety, had to rely on intuition, that is their implicit knowledge, more. Also, some participants were good at identifying speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch correctly in one task but not in another, which may be indicative of their knowledge being inconsistent, which is a feature of explicit knowledge.

Paradis (2004, 2009) stresses the importance of consciousness in his explanations of how knowledge and competence operate. Other scholars (R. Ellis 1994; S. Andrews 2007; Svalberg 2007) also focus on the role consciousness plays in language learning. Following Schmidt's taxonomy (1990), one of the three senses of the term, that is consciousness as awareness, can function at three levels: perception, noticing and understanding. In other words, a learner needs to perceive, albeit on a rather subliminal level, notice, or register, and then understand to become aware. When applying this theory to the findings in the present study, a possible explanation of the participants' lack of awareness may simply be that students of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University do not do enough conscious work on the differences and similarities between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch to be aware of them. And if they do or think they do, it may in fact have little to do with Netherlandic and/or Belgian Dutch stimuli.

[85] For example, participant 1BA17, who made notes on why he had circled 'Flemish' or 'Dutch' in the tasks on recognizing langauge variety.

For instance, when they listen to or watch a music program, with most, if not all, songs in English and the DJ or VJ either not saying much apart from names and titles or speaking a different language than Dutch, the experience does not really raise awareness. Another reason might be that they lack metacommunicative awareness (Scollon and Scollon 2001) as they fail to notice the contextual or linguistic clues present in an interaction. This could be because they lack the ability "to concentrate on some things while ignoring others" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 38). Put differently, they do not pay attention. After all, attention, a notion Schmidt (2001) adds to the discussion on consciousness and SLA, is needed for long-term memory storage. Leow posits "that little, if any, learning can take place without attention" (2006: 125).

Furthermore, the findings seem to support Fairclough's view that work on awareness cannot be limited to the classroom setting (1996). Though he refers more to metalinguistic knowledge, the argument seems to hold for the ability to differentiate between varieties of a language as well, which is why he calls for Critical Language Awareness, where 'critical' means 'careful' or 'thoughtful'. This, in turn, underlines the value of explicit knowledge.

Since more attention leads to more learning, it is axiomatic that the level of consciousness must be raised in order to facilitate this process. Therefore, ways in which the present study's participants' awareness, or consciousness, could be raised, either in or outside the classroom, will be discussed in later sections.

Finally, the findings on awareness bear relevance on one of the five domains of Language Awareness[86] (James and Garrett 1991; Baker and Prys Jones 1998), that is the affective domain. It relates to the awakening and/or development of, among others, attention, a notion already discussed in the context of (raising) consciousness, and attitudes, which, alongside language awareness, constitute the second notion that underlies the present study, namely language attitudes.

5.6.3. Language attitudes

To determine the participants' attitudes towards Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, the participants were asked to complete 3 ratings, one in each session of the study. In the questionnaire, the participants rated Netherlandic Dutch (question 7 in the first part) and

[86] The five domains are: affective, social, 'power', cognitive and performance (see Section 1.4.1).

Belgian Dutch (question 8 in the first part) on a scale from 1 to 5, with opposite characteristics on each end of the scale, where 1 referred to the positive, or more desirable, counterpart. In sessions two (question 4 of the first task) and three (question 3 of the first task) of the study, the participants rated the manner in which speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch read or spoke. These ratings were then taken as indicative of how the given variety itself was seen. Similarly, when determining the participants' attitudes towards speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch by obliging them to rate the Dutch and Flemish on a set of 18 opposite adjectives, again on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 was ascribed to the positive, or sociably desirable, personality trait, the attitudes expressed this way in fact reflected how the respondents felt about the corresponding language variety. The rationale behind this lies in the very nature of verbal guise tasks (see Section 2.3.4).

All the results, which have proven not as robust as was hoped for, have been analyzed by participant's language proficiency level and gender and tested for consistency.

One of the hypotheses was that those with more exposure to one of the two varieties would have more positive attitudes to that variety (as shown by Zhang and Hu 2008). The other ones were that participants would be consistent both in their choices or preferences and ratings, allowing for correlations between the 3 sessions of the study, that there would not be any between-gender variation, and that the attitudes expressed by advanced learners would not differ substantially from those obtained for beginners.

Scrutiny of all the results by looking at the attitudes of individual participants as expressed in all three sessions of the study has provided an answer to the supporting questions connected with the second research question, such as whether the participants demonstrate a clear preference for one of the varieties and how consistent they were in their ratings, either at the level of gender or at the level of proficiency. To obtain a comprehensive view of the participants' attitudes, this analysis of individual results has been complemented by an examination of the findings as obtained through computing correlation patterns and other forms of statistical analysis.

With many participants being quite inconsistent in expressing their preferences and attitudes by rating Belgian Dutch more favorably in one task and Netherlandic Dutch in another, the findings do not seem to corroborate Zhang and Hu's (2008) earlier findings. This is reinforced by examples such as both participants that had spent 1 semester at a Flemish university (3BA2 and 3BA5) expressing a much more positive

attitude towards Netherlandic Dutch. On the other hand, a comparison of the ratings by the randomly chosen beginners discussed earlier in this section, 1BA1 and 1BA2, shows exposure may in fact be a determinant of attitudes. Participant 1BA2 consistently rated the variety she had (had) more experience with, that is Netherlandic Dutch, more favorably than Belgian Dutch. Participant 1BA1, with very little exposure to either variety, was much more inconsistent in her ratings.

Another example of inconsistency lies in the adjective-definition comparisons from the second part of the questionnaire, where there are correlations between some but not between other ratings, placing certain attitudes as expressed through the ratings on the adjective pairs in juxtaposition to those obtained by reacting to the corresponding definitions. Also, there are differences in the individual scores in the second task of sessions 2 and 3 in that they are more varied, with preferences in the latter leaning towards Flemish much more.

Even though there are few statistically significant differences in the overall ratings obtained in all three sessions when analyzing the results by participants' gender, there is variation in the attitudes expressed by the females and males. In session two of the study, for instance, the Dutch were seen as cultured by the females and natural, gentle, good, cultured and sincere by the males. In session three they were seen as sincere but rather intolerant by the females and as not so gentle or cheerful by the males. This could be put down to the material for listening being different in both sessions. At the same time, however, what the females and males had in common is that they saw the Dutch as cultured but rather sad in session two and as emotional in session three.

The same conclusion can be drawn for the findings, and therefore attitudes, at the level of proficiency. Despite there being few statistically significant differences in the overall ratings obtained in all three sessions of the study, there is variation in the attitudes expressed by the beginners and advanced learners. To illustrate with an example of the Flemish, in session three beginners saw them as self-confident, intolerant, unpatriotic and sad but advanced learners saw them as emotional, natural and aggressive. However, in session two both beginners and advanced learners rated them as mainly cultured, sad and reserved.

To take the deliberations on similarities and differences when analyzing the results by participants' gender and language proficiency level a step further, there seem to be few, if any, overall patterns in the ratings. To substantiate, no personality trait, whether sociably desirable or not, is associated with the Dutch or Flemish in all three sessions of

the study. As a result, the answer to the question whether the participants demonstrate a clear preference for one of the varieties is negative.

A possible explanation for the inconsistencies, particularly when the answers to questions 7 and 8 are compared with the replies to questions 9 and 10 from the first part of the questionnaire[87], could be that the participants' beliefs did not coincide with their preferences. Also, choosing, for example, Netherlandic Dutch over Flemish may have been determined by which variety they found easier or more difficult rather than by which one they liked more.

Nevertheless, some patterns do emerge when comparing two, rather than three, sessions of the study. Both beginners and advanced learners saw the Dutch as reserved in sessions one and two, while they assessed them as sad in sessions two and three. The Dutch were also seen as natural in sessions two and three by the beginners, who also saw the Flemish as sad in sessions two and three and as reserved in sessions one and two. The predominant personality traits in all three sessions of the study at the level of proficiency were 'reserved' and 'sad'. When analyzing the results by gender, the Dutch were seen as reserved in sessions one and two by the females and males, while the males saw the Flemish as gentle in sessions one and two and as sad in sessions two and three. Interestingly, none of these comparisons show any overlap between sessions one and three on the most dominant personality traits, showing once again how much the emotions conveyed in films (part three) differ from the ones people have when rating without any input (session one, the questionnaire).

There is a further pattern in how different the most dominant positively and negatively loaded personality traits are in sessions two and three of the study. For example, advanced learners saw the Flemish as cultured, sad and reserved in session two but as emotional, natural and aggressive in session three.

Also, when comparing the Dutch and Flemish on all 18 pairs of personality traits, there is a parallelism of the ratings obtained on one adjective pair in session one (pragmatic/unpragmatic), on all 18 in session two and on 15 in session three (the exceptions being kind/unkind, hard-working/lazy and tolerant/intolerant).

[87] In questions 7 and 8 they rated Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch on a set of 5 characteristics; in question 9 they were asked to choose which variety they would prefer to study, justifying the choice in question 10.

Moreover, there are patterns in the ratings on the grouped adjectives[88], both at the level of proficiency and by gender. In all three sessions of the study, the females, for example, rated the Dutch more favorably than did the males on adjectives related to competence. The reverse is true for patriotism and pragmatism, which received more favorable ratings from the males in all three sessions. With regards to the Flemish, there are no clear patterns in the ratings by females and males. At the level of proficiency, there are more patterns. Beginners rated the Dutch more favorably than did advanced learners on adjectives pertaining to personal sympathy, social attractiveness and pragmatism in all three sessions of the study. The Flemish received more favorable ratings on competence-related adjectives also by the beginners.

To see details on how relevant tasks and questions from sessions one, two and three compare, see Section 5.5.

As explained, inconsistencies between session one, in which no listening took place, and sessions two and three, in which participants did have to listen, may have derived from the participants involuntarily focusing on the context in the verbal guise tasks. There is another explanation, however. They may also have been guided by emotions and associations in session one. For example, if a participant had fond memories from a stay in Flanders, they could have been more likely to evaluate the Flemish as well as Belgian Dutch more favorably in the questionnaire; something they could not consciously do in sessions two and three.

Also, as it is, the findings do not seem to support the claim made by some scholars (see Jarvella et al. 2001; Lybaert 2011) that more positive attitudes should be expected towards standard varieties, in this case Netherlandic Dutch, unless Dutch is taken as a "pluricentric language with two centres of standardization" (Vanderkerckhove 2005: 394), one in the Netherlands and one in Flanders, in which case this argument no longer holds.

The findings on attitudes can be discussed within the framework of the very nature of attitudes in general and language attitudes in particular.

"Attitudes are not static, i.e. they are not fixed in the minds of individuals and easily retrieved" (Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain 2009: 217). Besides, they are often expressed under the influence of the situational context, which also may account for the differences between sessions two and three and the lack of correlations between sessions

[88] The groups are: competence-related, personal sympathy, personal integrity, social attractiveness, feelings-related and others.

one and three. Another explanation is of a threefold nature. Attitudes are said to develop through socialization, especially during childhood and adolescence (McKenzie 2010), and from the questionnaires it is known that among the participants, all of whom were adults at the time of the study, quite a few participants did not know, let alone keep in touch with, people from the Netherlands or Flanders, nor had they been to either place. To put it differently, their attitudes, especially ones held by the beginners, were still being developed, or shaped.

Attitudes have three components: cognitive, affective, and conative (see, for instance, Fasold 1987; Münstermann and van Hout 1988; Baker 1992; Bohner and Wänke 2002; Garrett et al. 2003). The cognitive element concerns information, beliefs, thoughts and knowledge (Garrett 2010). An attitude is affective if it involves emotional reactions, that is feelings, towards the attitude object, and the conative component concerns reactions, actions, and "behavioral tendencies related to the object of the attitude" (McGroarty 1996: 5). To put it more succinctly, when a person believes or knows something (the cognitive component), they have some feelings about it (the affective component) and can therefore be expected to act on this basis (the conative component).

This tripartite model suggests a useful way for conceptualizing language attitudes in terms of cognitive, affective, and conative elements being hypothetical classes of response to the attitude object. "In this model, the three components are defined independently and yet comprise, at a higher level of abstraction, the single construct of attitude" (Ajzen 1988: 20-21), with attitudes therefore always being inferred from specific responses to the attitude object. Therefore, Breckler suggests "attitude researchers are advised either to measure each of the three components or to specify which of the three is of focal concern" (1984: 1203).

In the present study, only two components, cognition and affect, were addressed. They proved to be strongly linked, not to say inseparable, which seems to confirm findings and postulates by Bohner and Wänke (2002) and Erwin (2001).

The findings also seem to confirm the concerns expressed in Section 2.2.2 pertaining to the confusing nature of attitudes in that they are often mistaken for closely related concepts. In fact, sometimes participants themselves made reference to some of them, especially in the debriefing interviews. Participant 1BA5, for instance, mentioned

beliefs when explaining why she marked Dutch rather than Flemish on 35 out of 36[89] occasions.

Another concept is that of stereotypes, which, in fact, may be more than just a notion that overlaps with the notion of attitudes. In the present study, the overgeneralizations or qualities the participants assigned to certain groups of people, in this case the Flemish and the Dutch, influenced their attitudes to a large extent, as the participants themselves reported in the questionnaires and debriefing interviews. Some of these overgeneralizations, or qualities, were also assigned to Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, which means that stereotypes may concern not only people but the language (variety) they speak as well. Stereotypes, hence, must be seen as an important determinant of language attitudes, which was foreseen prior to the study.

5.6.4. Influence on language awareness and language attitudes

A further aim of the study was to learn about other factors that (may) influence the participants' language awareness and attitudes and as a result they were asked to fill in a questionnaire, of which most of the first part and most of the third part bore relevance to this research question. The aim being to determine the amount and type of the participants' exposure to the Dutch language in general, the two varieties in particular and speakers of the two varieties as well as the participants' previous language learning experience and self-reported proficiency in other foreign languages. Thus they were asked to answer a number of questions under certain headings in the first part (reading, watching, listening and contact with the Netherlands and Flanders) and pertaining to how long they had been learning Dutch/Flemish, which other foreign languages they knew and how well they knew them in the third part. As outlined in Section 4.1, there were 4 supporting questions[90].

The findings presented in earlier sections of Chapter 5 reveal that all participants provided themselves with ample opportunities for exposure to the Dutch language in a variety of ways, ranging from reading articles on the internet, through watching

[89] This total (36) is the sum of 24 (speakers from session two) and 12 (speakers from session three).
[90] How much exposure to and experience with the Dutch language and its speakers in general and Belgian Dutch, Netherlandic Dutch, the Flemish and the Dutch in particular do the participants have outside the classroom setting? Does this exposure possibly have an influence on the obtained results and therefore on the participants' language awareness and attitudes? Are experience with and self-reported proficiency in other foreign language factors influencing the obtained results and therefore the participants' language awareness and attitudes? What other factors may influence awareness and attitudes?

commercials on TV to listening to music programs on the radio. Interestingly, fewer participants listened than read or watched. A considerable number of participants also kept in touch with people they knew from the Netherlands and/or Flanders. Many of them had also been to either the Netherlands or Flanders, or both. In general, however, they had (had) more exposure to the Netherlands and Netherlandic Dutch. Finally, all knew at least one other foreign language, English, and most self-reported proficiency in their best other foreign language as a 2 on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant native-speaker-like proficiency. More than half of the participants, 18, reported to have learned at least 3 other foreign languages.

Surprisingly, not many set patterns emerge from these findings, so little, if any, inference can be made in terms of determining what factors might influence attitudes and awareness.

In terms of awareness, as much as the scores obtained by those participants that had the largest number of recognitions on language variety in session two of the study (1BA17 and 1BA9 among the beginners and 3BA9 and 3BA5 among the advanced learners) are in line with these participants' knowledge of foreign languages and their exposure to Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch and their speakers, this pattern is not the same among those that scored the fewest recognitions, especially the beginners. Participant 1BA6, for example, had the lowest score of all on correct recognitions of the language variety in session two of the study and yet she had had more exposure to the Dutch language than any other beginner. As far as session three is concerned, the converse is true, that is the participants with the lowest number of recognitions on language variety were indeed those with little exposure to the Dutch language outside the classroom (1BA3 and 1BA7 among the beginners; 3BA and 1MA2 among the advanced learners). However, some of those with the highest number of recognitions either did not have much exposure to Belgian and/or Netherlandic Dutch outside the classroom (1BA10 and 1BA15) or were very much focused on only one of the varieties (1BA2 and 3BA8). This may suggest that awareness of one variety can also develop or be strengthened by a lack of or limited exposure to the other. Put differently, when deciding whether a speaker is Flemish or Dutch, participants may provide the right answer by first eliminating the wrong one. If they are used to (speakers of) Netherlandic Dutch, for instance, they may label any speaker whose language differs substantially from the variety they are used to as Belgian. Similarly, this may, but does not have to, generate a more positive attitude towards that particular variety.

Besides, the fact that a participant stays in touch with people from the Netherlands and/or Flanders does not have to be paramount to them communicating with each other in (Netherlandic or Belgian) Dutch. If another language is their language of communication, the participant's exposure to the target language will be limited if not non-existent. The participants in this particular study were not asked to state what their language of communication with people from the Netherlands and/or Flanders was, which may be regarded as an oversight. This criticism is reinforced by what one participant, 1BA10, wrote in the additional space following the first part of the questionnaire. In this comment, he explained that at the time of the study he communicated with the only Dutch person he knew in English. To that explanation he added the words "for now" and a smiley, clearly indicating he was hoping for this habit to change and for Dutch to eventually become their means of communication. However, even if the language of communication was not Dutch, participants did learn more about the culture of the Netherlands and/or Flanders, in this way creating or further developing and stabilizing their attitudes towards the language variety and its speakers.

Moreover, some participants, for example 3BA8, found it necessary to specify when exactly they had stopped learning certain foreign languages, seemingly ignoring the fact that not having lessons does not necessarily mean there is no learning taking place. When watching a film, reading a book or listening to music in a foreign language, we may also be developing our language skills, improving our pronunciation or learning more about, and hence develop an attitude towards, the culture and speakers of that language. Greater awareness would most likely have allowed these participants to develop implicit learning (see, for example, Bolitho et al. 2003; Rebuschat and Williams 2012).

Finally, the inconsistent expressions of attitude presented earlier in this chapter do not generate any overall patterns. In consequence, the answer to supporting questions 1, 2 and 3 is that even though the influence of exposure to the two varieties outside the classroom and experience with and self-reported proficiency in other foreign languages is very much limited, these factors may well have a bearing on both awareness and attitude. This confirms findings by Baker (1992, discussed in Section 2.2.8).

All the obtained data as well as the debriefing interviews seem to suggest other factors may influence awareness and/or attitudes as well.

In addition to stereotypes, which as a determinant of attitudes were discussed earlier in this Chapter, beliefs, as a cognitive influence (Maio and Haddock 2010), have

been mentioned already as well. The findings also seem to confirm other theories proposed by Maio and Haddock (2010), who posit that both emotions (the affect) and behavioral factors shape attitudes. However, they do not provide any evidence to support claims made by Knops and van Hout (1988), as the focus of the present study was not on linguistic and social determinants of the type they mention (see Section 2.2.8).

Garrett (2010) suggests that the gender and age of the speakers (in a verbal guise task, for instance) may also have an effect on attitudes. This seems not to have been the case in the present study. To begin with, the speakers underwent a careful selection process, in which Flemish and Dutch women and men of different ages were chosen (see Section 4.3). Besides, the results on the participants' recognitions on age especially show a lot of variance as well as inconsistencies. Finally, not only the individual but also the overall ratings were taken into account, giving a comprehensive view of the participants' attitudes.

Awareness may be determined, or at least influenced, by language aptitude, predispositions and having an ear for languages, which collectively may perhaps be labeled 'language intelligence'.

Furthermore, what not only awareness but also attitudes are determined by is the socialization process (Baker 1992). Socialization is here understood as relationships with other people, influence by the mass media, exposure to speakers of a certain language (variety), involvement in cultural activities connected with the place where this language (variety) is spoken, and such like.

Both awareness and attitudes seem to be influenced by emotions, tastes but also experience and the associations or assumptions we make. For example, if we know somebody is from Flanders, we will automatically assume the language they speak is Belgian Dutch. Likewise, if we have been to both the Netherlands and Flanders and we had a much better time in the former, our attitude towards the Flemish and Belgian Dutch may be less favorable.

Finally, one may determine the other, that is (language) awareness may well influence (language) attitudes. After all, the more conscious and hence knowledgeable an individual is of a language as well as its speakers, culture and varieties, the more stable, educated and perhaps even objective the attitudes he or she may develop.

5.6.5. Applying a multiple-method approach to (measuring) language attitudes

To answer the fourth and final research question, applying a multiple-method approach to (measuring) attitudes indeed does give a clearer insight into these attitudes in addition to showing how methods can complement each other and verify the results (Garrett 2010). This particular study, in which the results from the questionnaire do not translate into the findings obtained in the verbal guise type tasks in addition to there being a notable lack of correlations and patterns between the indirect measures themselves, supports such a stance. Had only one or two methods been applied, the findings would not have brought forward the same inconsistencies, nor would they have highlighted the fact that most participants did, or do, not have fully developed, stable or educated attitudes towards the two varieties of Dutch in question.

In fact, the same conclusion can be drawn for measuring language awareness. N. Ellis (2008), in his overview of research into implicit and explicit knowledge about language, calls for interdisciplinary collaboration in the development of theory and empirical methods. By extension, this may well be applied to language attitudes as well.

The pedagogical implications of all the findings presented in this section as well as the limitations of the present study and recommendations for future work are outlined in Sections 5.6.6 and 5.6.7.

5.6.6. Pedagogical implications

The overall results, which have been described in detail in Sections 5.1 – 5.5 and discussed in Sections 5.6.1 – 5.6.5, call for consciousness, or awareness, raising and the creation of more opportunities for the participants to develop stable and educated attitudes towards Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch as well as the speakers of these two varieties.

From the discussion in Chapter 1, it is clear that awareness is raised best when different cognitive strategies are employed (see, for instance, Schmidt 2001 or Leow 2006). These include, among others, noticing, solving problems and restructuring. If the aim of Language Awareness is to let students discover, investigate and understand, this can be attempted through either explicit or implicit means. Explicit (intentional) learning involves "learning language items by means of overt strategies, such as techniques of memorization", whereas implicit (unintentional) learning "refers to

learning primarily by means of unconscious exposure to input" (Richards and Schmidt 2010: 210-211). Most researchers seem to agree, however, that when a language user communicates confidently and fluently, it is because of implicit knowledge, which R. Ellis (2005a) calls the ultimate goal of any instructional program. That being true, in the present study, awareness, rather than focusing on communication skills or metalinguistic knowledge, was taken to mean the ability to distinguish between, and hence an awareness of, varieties of the same language.

The fact that the participants found it more difficult than anticipated to identify speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch correctly in addition to being quite inconsistent in their ratings in the three sessions of the study may well necessitate some curriculum adaptations. One idea could be to introduce more awareness-raising activities during Practical Dutch classes. As suggested before, these may be realized and ultimately achieved through both explicit and implicit means, where implicit learning refers to "a process during which participants derive knowledge from a complex, rule-governed stimulus domain without intending to and without becoming aware of the knowledge they have acquired" (Rebuschat and Williams 2012: 829), whereas explicit learning refers to intentional learning resulting in conscious knowledge.

In general, also with reference to developing more stable and educated attitudes towards Flemish, Dutch and speakers of these language varieties, problem-solving, different types of matching tasks, comparing and/or observing differences and/or similarities with focus on both form and use, inductive grammar teaching or learning, learners detecting connotations and alternative meanings of words or phrases they already are familiar with, learners discovering fixed phrases, and many more could be employed (de Louw 2013). This is in line with L. Andrews' Language Exploration and Awareness approach to teaching and learning, as discussed in Section 1.2.

What follows are a few practical examples. In a Conversation or General Dutch class students could complete a table with Netherlandic Dutch words given and their Belgian Dutch equivalents missing while listening to and/or watching a Flemish news program. This could also be a homework assignment, with students then being able to play the item as often as they need to obtain the right answers. Exposure to the news allows learners to become and be more familiar with various current events, the names of political parties and politicians, different social notions, and such like. In the context of the present study this could mean, for example, that if the participants had been exposed to current events more, they would have noticed instances of Flemish speakers

mispronouncing the names of Dutch politicians. This would then have allowed them to classify a given speaker as Flemish and not Dutch.

In a Practical Grammar class, for example, their attention could explicitly be drawn to the Belgian Dutch equivalents[91] of the Netherlandic Dutch pronouns 'jij/je' (singular you). This could also be done more implicitly, with students having to discover the equivalents for themselves by the use of a handout and a book on theory. If they are then tested on this and the tests are later discussed as well, they get exposed to this linguistic difference as many as 3 times. Noticing, a prerequisite for learning to take place (Schmidt 1990, 2001), is bound to occur.

A good source for any awareness raising activities are commercials, which were listed quite often in the questionnaire as something participants watched in their free time. An undervalued learning and therefore teaching aid, whose power lies in their simplicity and recognizability, commercials could be exploited more by language teachers in class and language learners at their own discretion.

Consciousness-raising does not have to take place in Practical Dutch classes only. It can also be attempted and achieved in other courses students take, such as Literature, Culture Studies, and perhaps even more so Contrastive Grammar, a class which lends itself very well to drawing learners' attention to differences and similarities between varieties of Dutch.

Also, since students of English have a choice between British and American English pronunciation, perhaps students of Dutch should be able to choose between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch as well, especially since some clearly expressed a preference for one or the other of the varieties. As much as the inconsistent and sometimes statistically insignificant answers in sessions two and three of the study may not be straightforward enough to draw any clearcut conclusions, the attitudes, and therefore preferences, reported in the questionnaire might be indicative of such a need, especially because "knowing learners' attitudes to a language is valuable in language education and language-related policymaking" (Zhang and Hu 2008: 342).

Finally, there could be a separate course introduced, whose aim would be to focus solely on the different varieties of Dutch, ranging from Standard Dutch as spoken in the Netherlands, through Belgian Dutch to Afrikaans and the variety spoken in Suriname.

[91] 'gij/ge'

However, a fundamental question remains unanswered: do language learners in general and students of Dutch specifically really have to be(come) (more) linguistically aware?

By stating they were mainly guided by stereotypes when completing the questionnaire, participants 3BA3 and 3BA4 obviously ignored the fact that they had (had) classes with speakers of both varieties and that they were exposed to the varieties and their speakers in Practical Dutch classes, when reading literature and watching the news, for instance. In other words, participants themselves are indirectly calling for their awareness to be raised, making the answer to the aforementioned question in the affirmative.

By becoming more aware, students of Dutch will, or at least might, notice cultural and linguistic differences between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch more easily (for example, level of formality, phonology, lexical variations, and such like), pay closer attention to (varieties of) other languages they learn, be able to make their implicit knowledge of their first language (more) explicit, and simply learn more as "most learners learn best whilst affectively engaged" (Bolitho et al. 2003: 252). It would make them more curious, which, in turn, would influence their attitudes. After all, the more exposure they have, be it of the explicit or implicit type, the higher the chance of language learners developing a more stable and educated attitude towards language or language varieties. Besides, the two main sources of attitudes are observational and instrumental learning. By interacting with the language varieties and their speakers more, learners may observe and notice the benefits of certain attitudes they may have or feel they need to develop.

There are more advantages. When raising learners' awareness, teachers themselves may become more inquisitive and knowledgeable. This, in turn, may contribute to their Teacher Language Awareness (Thornbury 1997), making them more effective instructors. Besides, the more variety there is in the classroom, the more interesting the classes may become. There are also cross-curricular benefits as students might see beyond the scope of a single class by noticing that certain aspects are discussed in different classes. Furthermore, they may also notice cooperation between teachers, which, in turn, offers security and generates trust. Finally, promotion of the understanding of the role of awareness "may potentially contribute to L2 development" (Leow 2006: 125).

With so many of these ideas drawing on explicit knowledge, perhaps awareness raising activities of the type described above may, to some extent, exemplify the role of explicit knowledge in the process of developing implicit knowledge and by doing so contribute to the consensus-less discussion on how implicit knowledge can indeed be developed.

5.6.7. Limitations and recommendations for further research

The present study is not free from flaws. By highlighting them, an attempt is made at providing recommendations for future work.

Some of the inconsistencies, replies and results outlined in Sections 5.1 – 5.5 may be put down to fatigue and lapses in concentration. Perhaps the questionnaire should have been shorter or administered in 2 sessions. After all, some sources suggest they should be no longer than 4 pages and take half an hour at the most (Codó 2008). Similarly, each of the other 2 sessions of the study could have been administered either with a break between them[92] or on 2 separate days.

Further modifications to the questionnaire could have included a division into written and spoken language in questions 7 and 8 of the first part. Participant 1BA12 rightly argued that for those who know a typologically similar language, the written form of Dutch may be much easier to comprehend than its spoken counterparts. Had such a division been made in the present study, the results might be more consistent.

In the second part of the questionnaire, a more careful selection of the adjectives might add perspective to the findings. The adjectives should be more varied and more 'groupable'[93]. As it is, patriotic/unpatriotic and pragmatic/unpragmatic were left ungrouped. Also, some of the definitions do not seem appropriate. For instance, 'self-confidence' is defined as the ability to make decisions easily, which may sound more like a description of the word 'decisive'. Furthermore, some participants (for example 1BA4) complained in a debriefing that the definitions sounded more extreme than the corresponding adjectives, which may account for all the inconsistencies on adjective-statement comparisons. After all, the negatively loaded, that is sociably undesirable,

[92] For example, the first task of session two of the study – a 10-minute break – the second task of session two of the study.
[93] These changes would then also concern the second task in sessions two and three of the study.

adjectives often evoked more extreme reactions[94] than their adjectival counterparts, which did not get 5s as often. Two alternatives would be to better word the definitions or to incorporate either adjective pairs or definitions, not both, into the research tool used.

In the third part of the questionnaire, the question about knowledge of other languages should have allowed respondents to indicate whether they were still learning the language(s) or whether formalized instruction stopped at least a year earlier. Had this been done in the present study, some participants would not have been as confused as they were and the results would have been more comparable. As it is, some added a comment that they stopped learning a language a certain number of years prior to completing the questionnaire, while others did not. A similar ambiguity exists in regards to the level of proficiency – does it refer to the time of filling in the questionnaire or the time the learning stopped? Moreover, the participants could have been asked to self-report their level of proficiency in Dutch to discover a pattern in their other ratings. If a beginner, for instance, gave themselves a 3[95], this would have been too high, so other ratings of a similar type would have (had) to be taken with caution. Problems with the self-reported proficiency level of other languages justify such a modification. By way of explanation, when self-assessing how good their English was, most participants gave themselves a 2, regardless of how long they had studied the language. This included participants who already had a BA in English Studies as well as students straight out of high school whose results in their final exams in English were only barely good enough to get them accepted at university.

With respect to session two of the study, the age categories, if included at all, should have been changed into an open question about the speaker's age. As it stands, calculating the results becomes very confusing (see, for example, Section 5.2). As regards the recordings, they were not made in a sound-proof booth, which goes against common practice (see Clemente 2008). However, this would have been impossible in the present study, where speakers from different parts of the Netherlands and Flanders were approached. To minimize problems, the recordings were made in identical conditions with as little surrounding noise as possible and the speakers speaking directly into the microphone. Besides, from 56 recordings, only 24 were selected for the experiment. What could have been done, however, was to ask each speaker to perform

[94] 5s = I fully disagree.
[95] A 3 on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 means native-speaker-like proficiency is too high after 3-4 months of studying a language.

as many takes as necessary to obtain natural-sounding speech. This could have discouraged the speakers though. Aside from that, this way natural-sounding reading would not have been obtained. Another criticism that could be leveled at this study is that ratings of speakers' nativeness (Zhang and Hu 2008) was not done. Yet this seems justified as such a practice concerns matched guise tasks more than verbal guise ones.

The speech (signal) used in session three of the study could have been edited in Praat, computer software used for acoustic analysis, in order to minimize or eradicate some of the hindrances listed in Table 24. Also, the obtained ratings may be more indicative of how the characters these particular actors and actresses played were perceived. Acting involves the expression of emotions and voice modulation, which may account both for the differences in ratings between sessions three and two and for the lack of correlations between sessions three and one.

Perhaps instead of scenes from films, discourse-based approaches could have been used. Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) enumerate three types: content-based approaches, turn-internal semantic and pragmatic approaches, and interactional approaches. In content-based approaches, researchers examine a large corpus of data for stretches of conversation in which attitudes are expressed, whereas in turn-internal semantic and pragmatic approaches, they analyze the specifics of the linguistic features present in these expressions of attitude, and in interactional approaches analysts also look at features such as interruptions, intensity changes and laughter, to name but a few (Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain 2009).

Garrett (2010) seconds this view by arguing that instead of or in addition to examining 'whole' languages or social and regional accents within a language, researchers could analyze communication features, speaker variables, communication/speaker interactions, hearer variables and context as well.

Building on this, another solution could be to use a conceptual mode of presentation, in which respondents either evaluate the varieties presented by names only or do so by first providing the names themselves (Garrett et al. 2005). This could also be an alternative to the second part as well as questions 7 and 8 from the first part of the questionnaire. Alternatively, such an approach could be used as a preliminary to the designing of the semantic differential scales used in the present, or any, study. "By eliciting rapid responses from respondents to open-ended questions, this type of questionnaire aims to capture spontaneous emotional and cognitive responses" (Evans and Imai 2011: 317). By doing so, it avoids both the aforementioned problem of

respondent fatigue and "some of the problems with scalar response format questions such as culturally differing values of and the limiting nature of the response format anchor keywords" (Evans and Imai 2011: 318). Instead, respondents can provide the researcher with concepts they themselves find salient. "While an approach with verbal guises or rating questions predefined by the researcher may yield more reliable measurements" (Evans and Imai 2011: 318), getting the respondents to provide the researcher with the keywords may facilitate the identification of the attitudes.

Returning to the measurement of language awareness, in (the) tasks on recognizing the appropriate variety of Dutch, it seems paramount to get participants to name specific differences between the 2 varieties in question, namely Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch. This will make it clear whether the students are aware of the differences but only fail to recognize instances of practical use when confronted with them in a verbal or matched guise task. Also, if done prior to the experiment(s), it can raise the participants' schemata, which, in turn, may enhance their chances of noticing and recognizing more. An alternative solution would be to ask participants to state why they think a speaker is Dutch or Flemish (R. Ellis 2005a). Such source attribution was in fact attempted by one of the participants, 1BA17, who took notes on the answer sheets. For instance, he put [g] next to 'Flemish' when the speaker was indeed from Flanders.

Further modifications may include reversing the scaling used. As it is, 1 refers to the sociably desirable personality traits, to doing something every day, to positive descriptions of language varieties, to agreeing with statements and to positive descriptions of how speakers read/spoke. Instead, the lowest value (1) should indicate something negative or not done, while the highest value (5) something that is positive or done always (see Dörnyei 2003). Applying such scales would have made it easier to describe the conclusions as statements such as "The Dutch scored higher on …" could have been made as well.

On a different note, Garrett argues that "the affective state of hearers can also have an impact on their evaluative judgements of others" (2010: 99), the underlying thought being that it might be useful to check what mood the 'judges' are in. Also, it is often argued that questionnaires, for one, should be anonymous (Codó 2008). In the present study, however, participants were asked to write their names on the questionnaires for the simple reason that debriefing interviews were planned.

As for the results of the study, further investigation would be desirable specifically regarding the attitudes of the participants. This could be achieved by

employing one of the aforementioned alternatives, which would then complement the present findings. Also, the number of participants would have to be increased. This could be achieved by involving all students of Dutch at Adam Mickiewicz University. Group division could then be supported by language competence tests. Alternatively or additionally, students of Dutch from two other Polish universities, in Lublin and Wrocław, could be approached. Following a current trend and with the purpose of checking whether the results will be the same as the findings within a Polish context, the study could also be extended to a more Eastern-European setting, with students majoring in Dutch from the Czech Republic, Slovakia and possibly Hungary partaking as well. After all, "the true test of any analytic method is its replicability across research settings and contexts, as well as its ability to continue to produce insightful results" (Soukop 2009: 172).

5.7. Conclusion

The participants were able to distinguish between the two varieties but only to some extent. Besides, they were quite inconsistent in their answers. As a result, some hypotheses connected with language awareness were not (fully) supported. For example, there was some between-gender variation and the participants struggled to identify the speakers' age.

The participants were also quite inconsistent in expressing their attitudes. Consequently, the results show some between-gender variation. However, some patterns do emerge from the findings. For instance, both the females and the males saw the Dutch as reserved and there is a parallelism between how the Dutch and the Flemish were rated on being (un-)pragmatic. Again, some other hypotheses were not supported, either. To exemplify, those with more exposure to a variety did not neceessarily have a more positive attitude to it.

What influences awareness and attitudes are exposure to language, emotions and the socialization process, to name but a few. Also, perhaps unexpectedly and surprisingly, (language) awareness and (language) attitudes appear to be each other's determinants.

Finally, the findings attest to a multiple-method approach indeed giving more conclusive results.

Conclusions

This dissertation reports on a study of language awareness and language attitudes among 34 Polish students of Dutch towards two of its varieties, Belgian and Netherlandic. It is divided into two parts: a theoretical part (Chapters 1–3) and an empirical one (Chapters 4 and 5).

Chapter 1 presented Language Awareness (LA) with all its intricacies. The notion of Language Awareness has various definitions, including a very general one offered by James and Garrett "a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life" (1991: 4) and a much more detailed one given by Bolitho et al. "a mental attribute which develops through paying motivated attention to language in use, and which enables language learners to gradually gain insights into how languages work. It is also a pedagogic approach that aims to help learners to gain such control" (2003: 251). One of the main reasons for such a multitude and variety of definitions is that work on LA is grounded in a wide range of fields of study. This may account for Language Awareness now covering a broader scope than ever before as it can simply mean 'being aware' of any aspect of language, including the differences between two varieties of the same language, which is the focal point of the empirical part of this dissertation.

There are five domains within the concept of Language Awareness – affective, social, 'power', cognitive and performance. In addition to determining the learner's language competence and understanding, they provide a way to clarify the meaning of the concept of language awareness irrespective of its point of reference. This point of reference along with the scope of interest in language awareness has been extended to take on other forms and led to alternative names and approaches, such as Critical Language Awareness, Knowledge About Language or Teacher Language Awareness.

Since all definitions of LA seem to have the notion of explicit knowledge in common (see Section 1.2), 'being aware' of language cannot be discussed without referring to explicit knowledge, its unconscious counterpart, implicit knowledge, or the relationship between them. Explicit knowledge is conscious, learnable, verbalizable and declarative, whereas implicit knowledge is unconscious, tacit, intuitive and procedural. However, different as they may seem, neither notion can be defined or fully understood without the other, so the relationship between them has received widespread attention in recent years. This relationship, traditionally referred to as the 'interface hypothesis', is usually discussed in terms of the interface between them. R. Ellis (2005a, 2005b) distinguishes three interface positions: the non-interface, strong interface and weak interface position. There is little agreement among scholars as to which position is dominant or, for that matter, the only correct one. Even though most argue for consciousness, and by extension consciousness raising, being at the base of the interface between the implicit and explicit learning/knowledge, there are some, like Paradis (2009), who see no connection, hence arguing for a strong non-interface position.

Language Awareness, or explicit and implicit knowledge, can be measured through verbal, or retrospective, reports, subjective measures, such as confidence ratings and source attribution, and recognition tasks. And it is these recognition tasks, as part of two extended verbal guise tasks (see Chapters 2 and 4), that were employed in the present study.

Finally, regardless of the scope, role of consciousness and the interface between explicit and implicit knowledge, since the ultimate goal of Language Awareness is to let learners discover, investigate and understand, awareness is best raised when different cognitive strategies are employed.

Chapter 2 focused on attitudes in general and language attitudes in particular. The definitions of (language) attitudes show less variation that those of Language Awareness as they all use a pro-con distinction through which they highlight the generally accepted evaluative nature of attitudes. An example is: "a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event" (Ajzen 1988: 4). However, because the definitions are quite general, attitudes, which can be behaviorist or mentalist by nature, tend to be confused with other terms, such as beliefs, opinions, ideology, habits, values, social stereotypes, motive and trait.

Attitudes have three attitude components: cognitive, affective, and conative. The cognitive element concerns information, beliefs, thoughts and knowledge, the affective component involves emotional reactions, or feelings, while the conative subpart pertains to

reactions, actions and behavioral tendencies. Although the three components of this triadic model are to at least some extent interconnected, one has generated more controversy and has therefore been studied more extensively than the other two – behavior. This is hardly surprising since there often is a discrepancy between what people say their attitudes are and how they behave in reality. Nevertheless, there is a clear link between attitudes and behavior and scholars have managed to investigate when and how attitudes do predict behavior. When attitudes predict behavior is dependent on such variables as the correspondence between attitudinal and behavioral measures, the domain of behavior, the function of the attitude, the strength of the attitude, the person, and the situation. How attitudes predict behavior is explained by different theories, including the theory of reasoned action, the theory of planned behavior, the MODE model, and the composite model.

There are other characteristics worth mentioning, such as the dual nature of (language) attitudes, which means they can function as both input into and output from social action. Also, there are various cognitive, affective and behavioral determinants of language attitudes. Cognitive influences refer mainly to beliefs about the attitude object, affective ones to feelings connected with the object and behavioral ones to the behavior we engage in as a result. Other determinants include language choices made, socioeconomic status, age, sex, cultural background and suchlike.

Finally, language attitudes can be measured through analysis of the social treatment or, in other words, scrutiny of media treatment and policy documents, direct measures, such as questionnaires and interviews, and indirect measures like the matched guise technique and the verbal guise technique. Furthermore, since no single method is exhaustive, the application of a multiple-method approach to studying (language) attitudes is recommended. Such an approach, with a mixture of indirect and direct measures, was adopted in the present study.

Chapter 3 looked at Dutch, which in Europe is the language of all of the Netherlands and the northern part of Belgium, called Flanders. It is therefore often referred to as "a pluricentric language with two centres of standardization" (Vandekerckhove 2005: 394). In literature and everyday speech there is a number of terms used to name these two varieties. The one spoken in the Netherlands can be referred to as Netherlandic Dutch, Dutch Dutch or simply Dutch, while the one spoken in Flanders as Belgian Dutch or Flemish. Of importance, Belgian Dutch includes *Schoon Vlaams* 'clean or pure Flemish', which is also called *tussentaal* 'intermediate language' or 'interlanguage', a Flemish substandard variant.

There are a number of consistent grammatical, lexical and phonetic differences that make distinguishing between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch possible. This was, of course, a prerequisite for the empirical part of the study presented in this dissertation (see Chapter 4 and 5). Examples of grammatical differences include the pronoun *gij/ge* for the second person singular in Belgian Dutch (instead of *jij/je* in Netherlandic Dutch), the gender of some nouns, diminutive suffixes, the declension of words in attributive position before nouns (such as articles, pronouns and adjectives), the use of the verb *gaan* 'to go' in Belgian Dutch to refer to the future, the superfluous use of both the word *dat* 'that' after a subordinate conjunction and the past or perfect participle in Belgian Dutch, and the word order. Examples of lexical differences include French words and phrases being used more often in Belgian Dutch, Belgian Dutch purisms, words and phrases that have entered Belgian Dutch from Flemish dialects, and different slang used by Flemish and Dutch university students. Also, there are differences at the level of formality. In other words, what is formal in Netherlandic Dutch may be informal in the Belgian variety. And there are certain words that exist in both varieties of Dutch but are sometimes misused by speakers of Belgian Dutch, the reason being interference from French or Flemish dialects. Examples of phonetic differences include making the short /i/ and /u/ longer in Belgian Dutch, dropping the final letters *t* and *d* in Belgian Dutch, /ʋ/ being to be labiodental in Netherlandic Dutch and bilabial in Belgian Dutch, the dropping of /h/ in Belgian Dutch, the diphthongization of long vowels and voiceless /g/, /v/ and /z/ in Netherlandic Dutch, and others.

Finally, Dutch Studies and language courses in Dutch, either Netherlandic or Belgian, are offered at universities and schools throughout the world. One such institution is Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, Poland, at which the present study was conducted.

Chapters 4 and 5 presented the research questions, sampling procedures, a description of the participants, the hypotheses, methodology (Chapter 4), results and a detailed discussion of the findings, including a description of how relevant tasks and questions from the three sessions of the study compared, a research-question-based discussion of these results, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study and recommendations for further research (Chapter 5).

The participants, all of whom were students that majored in Dutch Studies at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, represented three groups – 1BA (19 students), 3BA (9 students) and 1MA (6 students) – with the latter two groups treated as one collectively labeled 'advanced learners' (and therefore comprising 5 participants), while the 1BA group constituted the 'beginners' (19 participants). These students took part in three sessions,

which, by complementing and verifying each other, were believed to give a clearer overall picture of the participants' awareness and attitudes. They included a questionnaire (session one) and two extended verbal guise tasks (sessions two and three). These tools were utilized to find answers to four main research questions:

1. How aware are Polish students of Dutch of the differences between two varieties of the Dutch language, namely Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch?
2. What are the participants' attitudes towards Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch and towards speakers of these two varieties?
3. What factors may influence the participants' language awareness and attitudes?
4. Does applying a multi-method approach to studying language attitudes give a clearer insight into these attitudes?

The results of the study, presented in detail in Sections 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4, were first compared (Section 5.5). These comparisons proved there were moderate or no correlation patterns between how Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch as well as speakers of these two varieties were rated by the participants in different parts of all three sessions. However, there are some correlations between sessions two and three, which shows the participants do tend to behave consistently though not necessarily in line with what they declared in the questionnaire. Also, only a few statistically significant differences were found. These findings show a discrepancy between what the participants' proclaimed language variety preferences were in session one (the questionnaire) and how they assessed the two varieties and their speakers in the two extended verbal guise tasks (sessions two and three). This can be explained in terms of (lack of) (language) awareness of the two varieties.

Next, the results were discussed under four headings (Section 5.6), each one of which corresponded to the relevant main research question.

In terms of language awareness, even though Polish students of Dutch were able to distinguish between Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch to some extent, the findings tend to go against some of the hypotheses with, for example, advanced learners not always performing better than the beginners, there being some between-gender variation and those with more experience and better self-reported knowledge of foreign languages not always being better at recognizing the correct variety. Also, there were quite a few inconsistencies in the participants' answers. On the other hand, some participants exhibited linguistic awareness, or lack thereof, in unexpected parts of the study, such as questions 9 and 10 in the questionnaire in which one admitted to not being conscious of the two varieties of Dutch and one referring to Netherlandic Dutch as the standard variety. The overall findings, which

were then discussed within the framework of explicit and implicit knowledge, attest to a weak interface between the two and stress the importance of consciousness in language learning. Moreover, they support the view that work on awareness cannot be limited to the classroom setting.

As far as language attitudes are concerned, the findings show the participants were quite inconsistent in expressing their preferences and attitudes, with there being quite some variation in the adjective-definition comparisons and in the analysis of the results by both level of proficiency and gender. Besides, when comparing the results in all three sessions, the participants did not demonstrate a clear preference for one of the two varieties in question. However, when comparing only two sessions, be it one and two or two and three (but not one and three), some patterns do emerge, an example being the assessment of the Dutch as sad by both the advanced learners and beginners. Also, there are patterns in the ratings of the grouped adjectives, with, for example, the Flemish receiving more favorable scores on competence-related adjectives by the beginners. The overall findings, which were then discussed within the framework of the very nature of (language) attitudes, demonstrated that (language) attitudes are not static, they are expressed under the influence of the situational context and they develop through socialization. Also, from the three components of attitudes (cognitive, affective and conative), two, that is cognition and affect, proved to be strongly linked. Moreover, sometimes attitudes are indeed confused with related terms, such as beliefs or stereotypes, both of which also turned out to be determinants of (language) attitudes.

When it comes to (other) factors influencing language awareness and language attitudes, the findings confirm that exposure to the language, whether by watching TV, reading articles on the Internet or keeping in touch with native speakers in the target language, for instance, may well have a bearing. Other factors that can influence both language awareness and language attitudes are the socialization process, emotions, tastes, experience, associations and the assumptions we make. The findings also show that attitudes can be influenced by emotions and behavioral factors but, contrary to what some scholars suggest, not by gender and age, while awareness may be determined by language aptitude. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, (language) awareness may well influence (language) attitudes.

The fourth research question concerned the application of a multiple-method approach to (measuring) language attitudes. The findings confirm that such an approach indeed does give a clearer insight into (language) attitudes because it allows methods both to

complement each other and to verify the results. To take that a step further, the results also imply that a multiple-method approach should be used when measuring (language) awareness.

Furthermore, the study has put forward various pedagogical implications, most of which revolve around consciousness, or awareness, raising, which, in turn, may also lead to the development of stable and educated (language) attitudes. Awareness can be raised when cognitive strategies, such as noticing and solving problems, are employed. To achieve that, use can be made of matching tasks, inductive grammar teaching or learning, language exploration activities and the explicit or implicit drawing of the learners' attention to specific differences between the two varieties, that is Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, both in Practical Dutch classes and other courses. There are many advantages of students becoming more aware. They might, for example, notice cultural and linguistic differences more easily. Also, teachers may themselves become more inquisitive and knowledgeable. Finally, learners and teachers must become more cognizant of (language) awareness and (language) attitudes and the important role both play in the development of L2.

Summary in Polish (Streszczenie)

Niniejsza rozprawa doktorska podejmuje próbę zbadania świadomości językowej i postawy językowej wobec dwóch odmian języka niderlandzkiego, tj. holenderskiej i belgijskiej, wśród polskich studentów niderlandystyki, a konkretnie studentów niderlandystyki na Uniwersytecie Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu.

Przedłożona praca składa się ze wstępu, pięciu rozdziałów, zakończenia i pięciu załączników.

W rozdziale pierwszym przedstawiono pojęcie świadomości językowej (*language awareness*), którą można zdefiniować jako „cechę umysłową, która się rozwija poprzez zwracanie uwagi na język w użyciu i który umożliwia uczącym się zdobycie wglądu w to jak język działa. To też podejście pedagogiczne, które ma na celu pomóc uczącym się zdobyć taką kontrolę" (Bolitho et al. 2003: 251). Definicji świadomości językowej jest jednak wiele i czasami nie są one nawet podobne do siebie, co spowodowane jest tym, że prace nad świadomością osadzone są w różnych dziedzinach nauki, od psychologii społecznej po lingwistykę. W tej rozprawie świadomość językowa odnosi się do bycia świadomym zarówno istnienia różnic jak i samych różnic między holenderską a belgijską odmianą języka niderlandzkiego.

Świadomość (językową), w tym wiedzę jawną (*explicit knowledge*) i ukrytą (*implicit knowledge*), można zbadać poprzez zastosowanie różnych narzędzi, takich jak:

- tak zwane „verbal reports", które polegają na tym, iż uczestnicy werbalizują po badaniu czy i jakie zauważyli reguły lub prawidłowości,
- środki subiektywne (*subjective measures*), takie jak ocena pewności siebie (*confidence rating*) i przypisanie źródła (*source attribution*), oraz
- zadania na rozpoznanie.

W niniejszej rozprawie zastosowano to ostatnie narzędzie, to jest zadania na rozpoznanie.

Rozdział drugi koncentruje się na pojęciu postaw (*attitudes*), a w szczególności postawy językowej, czy też stosunku do języka (*language attitude*). Postawa to sumaryczna ocena obiektu, gdzie obiekt to rzecz, osoba lub grupa, którą można rozróżnić, lub o której można pomyśleć. Postawa językowa odnosi się zatem do tego, jak ktoś odbiera dany język lub odmianę danego języka, korzystnie lub niekorzystnie. Definicje postaw (językowych) są z jednej strony bardziej spójne niż definicje świadomości językowej, zaś z drugiej na tyle ogólne, że postawy często są mylone z podobnymi terminami, jak na przykład z poglądami, ideologią i stereotypami.

Postawy (językowe) można zbadać poprzez:

- metodę zwaną „analysis of social treatment", która polega na przyjrzeniu się, jaki jest odbiór w mediach i społeczeństwie,
- miary bezpośrednie (*direct measures*), takie jak aniety i wywiady, oraz
- miary pośrednie (*indirect measures*), takie jak metoda zwana „the matched guise" polegająca na użyciu nagrania, na którym osoba czytająca czyta tekst przynajmniej dwukrotnie, ale w taki sposób, że czytania różnią się między sobą pod przynajmniej jednym względem, oraz metoda zwana „the verbal guise", która różni się tym, iż do każde czytanie jest wykonane przez inną osobę.

Ze względu na to, iż żadne narzędzie nie jest wyczerpujące, zaleca się podejście scalające kilka metod (*multi-method approach*). Takie też zastosowano w niniejszej pracy.

Tematem rozdziału trzeciego jest język niderlandzki i jego dwie odmiany, holenderska i belgijska. Belgijska odmiana języka niderlandzkiego nazywana jest językiem flamandzkim. Rozdział ten wyjaśnia, jakie są różnice gramatyczne, leksykalne i fonologiczne między tymi odmianami oraz skąd te różnice się biorą. Przedstawia też krótki opis filologii niderlandzkiej na Uniwersytecie Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu.

Rozdział czwarty przedstawia pytania badawcze oraz opis uczestników i zastosowanych narzędzi.

Pytania badawcze to:

- Na ile świadomi są polscy studenci niderlandystyki różnic między holenderską i belgijską odmianą języka niderlandzkiego?
- Jaki jest stosunek polskich studentów niderlandystyki do tych odmian?
- Jakie czynniki mają wpływ na świadomość i postawę językową?

- Czy zastosowanie podejścia scalającego różne metody daje bardziej przejrzyste wyniki w badaniach nad postawą językową?

Zastosowane narzędzia to kwestionariusz oraz dwa rozbudowane zadania typu *verbal guise*, w tym wykorzystanie dialogów z filmów.

Rozdział piąty to opis i analiza wyników oraz wnioski, w tym przesłanki dla nauczania języka obcego i sugestie dotyczące przyszłych prac nad świadomością i postawą językową.

Na podstawie przeprowadzonych badań stwierdzono, iż polscy studenci niderlandystyki są świadomi różnic między holenderską a belgijską odmianą języka niderlandzkiego, ale tylko w ograniczonym stopniu. Ponadto, nie wszystkie hipotezy zostały potwierdzone, gdyż, na przykład, w niektórych zadaniach były znaczące różnice między mężczyznami a kobietami, a osoby z lepszą znajomością języków obcych nie zawsze były lepsze w odgadywaniu danej odmiany języka niderlandzkiego. Uczestnicy byli też bardzo niekonsekwentni w swoich odpowiedziach. Z drugiej strony, badani wykazali się świadomością językową w częściach do tego nie przeznaczonych, na przykład w pytaniu 9 i 10 kwestionariusza. Ogólnie rzecz biorąc, wyniki pokazują, iż należy zwracać większą uwagę na budowanie świadomości w procesie nauczania języków.

Jeśli chodzi o postawy językowe, to uczestnicy byli niekonsekwentni w swoich odpowiedziach, co w połączeniu z faktem, iż porównania wyników wszystkich trzech części badania nie dały żadnych prawidłowości, ich stosunek do obu odmian języka niderlandzkiego okazał się niejednoznaczny. Z drugiej strony, gdy porównuje się wyniki dwóch części, na przykład pierwszej i drugiej czy też drugiej i trzeciej, takie prawidłowości są. Na przykład, początkujący ocenili Flamandów bardziej korzystnie jeśli chodzi o przymiotniki odnoszące się do kompetencji. Badania pokazały też, iż postawy (językowe) faktycznie bywają mylone z innymi terminami, na przykład ze stereotypami.

Czynniki wpływające na świadomość i postawę (językową) to między innymi kontakt z językiem, emocje, doświadczenie i skojarzenia. Należy też podkreślić, iż świadomość (językowa) może wpłynąć na postawę (językową) i to być może jest najważniejszym wnioskiem z badań.

Wreszcie, zastosowanie podejścia scalającego różne metody badawcze faktycznie daje pełniejszy obraz w badaniach nad postawami (językowymi). Z takiego podejścia powinno się również korzystać w badaniach nad świadomością (językową).

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APPENDIX A

SESSION ONE

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Imię i nazwisko: ..... Rok studiów: ..... Data: .....

KWESTIONARIUSZ

Proszę o ***uważne przeczytanie pytań i poleceń***. Dane będą wykorzystane do pracy naukowej, więc ***zależy mi na szczerych i dokładnych odpowiedziach***.

Kwestionariusz składa się z trzech części.

Na pytania pomocnicze (a-c, a-b, a-e) odpowiadaj tylko w przypadku, gdy na dane pytanie zasadnicze (1-6 w części 1, zaś 4 w części 3) odpowiedziałeś/-aś TAK.

CZĘŚĆ 1

Czytanie

1. Czy czytasz po niderlandzku/flamandzku poza obowiązkowymi tekstami?

TAK / NIE

a. Dlaczego? Ponumeruj odpowiedzi od najważniejszego powodu (1) do najmniej ważnego.

A. dla przyjemności – _____
B. dla poszerzenia słownictwa – _____
C. dla poznania kultury krajów, w których się używa języka niderlandzkiego – _____
D. inne - ..... – _____
E. inne - ..... – _____

b. Co czytasz i jak często? Zazncacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = codziennie, a 5 = nigdy.

	1	2	3	4	5
książki					
internet					
prasa (gazety, czasopisma)					
inne -					
inne -					

Oglądanie

2. Czy oglądasz filmy, telewizję lub programy w internecie w języku niderlandzkim/flamandzkim?

TAK / NIE

a. Dlaczego? Ponumeruj odpowiedzi od najważniejszego powodu (1) do najmniej ważnego.

A. dla przyjemności – _____
B. dla poszerzenia słownictwa – _____
C. dla poznania kultury krajów, w których się używa języka niderlandzkiego – _____
D. inne - ..... – _____
E. inne - ..... – _____

b. Jakiego typu programy oglądasz i jak często? Zazncacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = codziennie, a 5 = nigdy.

	1	2	3	4	5
filmy					
wiadomości					
seriale					
sport					
bajki					
reklamy					
quizy, konkursy, gry					
programy muzyczne					
programy dokumentalne					
inne -					
inne -					

Słuchanie

3. Czy słuchasz radia lub programów w internecie w języku niderlandzkim/flamandzkim?

TAK / NIE

a. Dlaczego? Ponumeruj odpowiedzi od najważniejszego powodu (1) do najmniej ważnego.

A. dla przyjemności – _____
B. dla poszerzenia słownictwa – _____
C. dla poznania kultury krajów, w których się używa języka niderlandzkiego – _____
D. inne - ..... – _____
E. inne - ..... – _____

b. Jakiego typu audycji słuchasz i jak często? Zazncacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = codziennie, a 5 = nigdy.

	1	2	3	4	5
serwisy informacyjne (dzienniki, prognozy pogody)					
rozmowy i wywiady					
reportaże i felietony/słuchowiska					
quizy, konkursy, gry					
bezpośrednie relacje (koncerty, mecze, itp.)					
programy muzyczne i listy przebojów					
inne -					
inne -					

<u>Kontakty z Holandią i/lub Flandrią</u>

4. Czy znasz kogoś kto pochodzi z Holandii (*<u>poza</u>* osobami uczącymi Cię)?

TAK / NIE

a. Czy utrzymujesz z tą osobą / tymi osobami (stały) kontakt?

TAK / NIE

b. Jaki jest to rodzaj kontaktu i jak często się z tą osobą/tymi osobami kontaktujesz? Zaznacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = codziennie, a 5 = wcale.

	1	2	3	4	5
rozmowa telefoniczna					
komunikator (pisanie)					
komunikator (mówienie)					
pisanie maili					
pisanie wiadomości sms					
pisanie tradycyjnych listów					

odwiedziny					
wspólny udział w tych samych wydarzeniach *					
inny:					

* przykłady: koncert, konferencja, szkolenie, happening, wakacje, itd.

5. Czy znasz kogoś kto pochodzi z Flandrii (*poza* osobami uczącymi Cię)?

TAK / NIE

a. Czy utrzymujesz z tą osobą / tymi osobami (stały) kontakt?

TAK / NIE

b. Jaki jest to rodzaj kontaktu i jak często się z tą osobą/tymi osobami kontaktujesz? Zaznacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = codziennie, a 5 = wcale.

	1	2	3	4	5
rozmowa telefoniczna					
komunikator (pisanie)					
komunikator (mówienie)					
pisanie maili					
pisanie wiadomości sms					
pisanie tradycyjnych listów					
odwiedziny					
wspólny udział w tych samych wydarzeniach *					
inny:					

* przykłady: koncert, konferencja, szkolenie, happening, wakacje, itd.

6. Czy byłeś/byłaś kiedyś w Holandii i/lub Flandrii?

TAK / NIE

a. Gdzie byłeś/byłaś? Weź w kółko jedną lub obie odpowiedzi.

Holandia / Flandria

b. Ile razy byłeś/byłaś w Holandii? Zaznacz krzyżykiem.

raz	2 razy	3 razy	4 razy	częściej

c. Jak długo? .....

.....

d. Ile razy byłeś/byłaś we Flandrii? Zaznacz krzyżykiem.

raz	2 razy	3 razy	4 razy	częściej

e. Jak długo? .....

.....

Preferencje językowe

7. Zaznacz krzyżykiem. Język niderlandzki (pisany i mówiony) jest:

	1	2	3	4	5	
przyjemny dla ucha						nieprzyjemny dla ucha
łatwy do nauczenia						trudny do nauczenia
łatwy do zrozumienia						trudny do zrozumienia
bogaty w słownictwo						ubogi w słownictwo
bogaty w struktury gramatyczne						ubogi w struktury gramatyczne

8. Zaznacz krzyżykiem. Język flamandzki (pisany i mówiony) jest:

	1	2	3	4	5	
przyjemny dla ucha						nieprzyjemny dla ucha
łatwy do nauczenia						trudny do nauczenia
łatwy do zrozumienia						trudny do zrozumienia
bogaty w słownictwo						ubogi w słownictwo
bogaty w struktury gramatyczne						ubogi w struktury gramatyczne

9. Mając wybór, czy wolałbyś/wolałabyś uczyć się jezyka niderlandzkiego czy języka flamandzkiego?

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10. Dlaczego?

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Miejsce na jakiekolwiek uwagi, spostrzeżenia i wyjaśnienia dotyczące pierwszej części:

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CZĘŚĆ 2

<u>Co myślę o Holendrach</u>

1. **Zaznacz krzyżykiem.**

Typowy *Holender jest:

(tu określenie „Holender" jest umowne i odnosi się do mężczyzn i kobiet)*

	1	2	3	4	5	
inteligentny						*głupi*
miły						*niemiły*
silny						*słaby*
pracowity						*leniwy*
dobry						*zły*
otwarty						*zamkniety*
pewny siebie						*niepewny siebie*
wesoły						*smutny*
wykształcony						*niewykształcony*
tolerancyjny						*nietolerancyjny*
naturalny						*sztuczny*
emocjonalny						*powściągliwy*
szczery						*nieszczery*
łagodny						*agresywny*
kulturalny						*niekulturalny*
patriotyczny						*niepatriotyczny*
pragmatyczny						*niepragmatyczny*
niezależny						*zależny*

2. Poniżej znajdziesz różne stwierdzenia dotyczące *Holendrów (gdzie określenie *„Holendrzy“ odnosi się do mężczyzn i kobiet). Na ile zgadzasz się z tymi stwierdzeniami? Zaznacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = zgadzam się, a 5 = nie zgadzam się.

Typowi *Holendrzy:

	1	2	3	4	5
postępują racjonalnie i korzystają ze zdobytej wiedzy					
są ludźmi o wąskich horyzontach					
chętnie podejmują nowe wyzwania i zdobywają nowe doświadczenia					
zachowują się wrogo i napastliwie					
są serdeczni i charakteryzują się przyjemną aparycją					
wiedzą czego chcą i łatwo się nie poddają					
mają przykry sposób bycia					
przedstawiają w sposób bezpośredni swoje zdanie i opinie					
nie kierują się interesem konkretnej grupy społecznej					
niechętnie rozmawiają z innymi ludźmi, są niegościnni					
wytrwale dążą do celu i nastawieni są na jego osiągnięcie					
unikają wszelkiego wysiłku, robią wszystko bez pośpiechu					
są ograniczeni i naiwni					
ulegają naciskom, nie radzą sobie z przeciwnościami					
są nieżyczliwi, niesympatyczni, gniewni, ponurzy					
szanują prawo do odmienności oraz akceptują różnorodność					
postępują zgodnie z zasadami moralnymi, są godni naśladowania					
łatwo podejmują decyzje					
podchodzą do życia z optymizmem i mają poczucie humoru					
dużo wiedzą o otaczającym ich świecie					

	1 = zgadzam się ; 5 = nie zgadzam się				
	1	2	3	4	5
działają w oparciu o stereotypy i uprzedzenia					
nie znają swojej wartości					
zachowują się w sposób szczery, niewymuszony					
są skłonni do mniej racjonalnych zachowań pod wpływem chwili					
nie zachowują wszelkich zwyczajów i zasad współżycia społecznego					
ukrywają swoje myśli, odczucia, zamiary/intencje					
myślą, że nie mają wpływu na swoje życie, wygłaszają postronne opinie					
nie są praktyczni i nie patrzą trzeźwo na świat					
są dobrotliwi i nastawieni życzliwie do ludzi i świata					
sprawiają wrażenie przygnębionych					
zachowują dystans i niechętnie okazują uczucia					
nie kultywują tradycji i obrzędów, nie wykazują postawy prospołecznej					
koncentrują się na działaniach, które są realne i gwarantują skuteczność					
przywiązują wagę do (swojej) kultury (narodowej)					
są dobrze wychowani					
często stwarzają pozory					

Co myślę o Flamandach

3. **Zaznacz krzyżykiem.**

Typowy *Flamand jest:

(tu określenie „Flamand“ jest umowne i odnosi się do mężczyzn i kobiet)*

	1	2	3	4	5	
inteligentny						*głupi*
miły						*niemiły*
silny						*słaby*
pracowity						*leniwy*
dobry						*zły*
otwarty						*zamkniety*
pewny siebie						*niepewny siebie*
wesoły						*smutny*
wykształcony						*niewykształcony*
tolerancyjny						*nietolerancyjny*
naturalny						*sztuczny*
emocjonalny						*powściągliwy*
szczery						*nieszczery*
łagodny						*agresywny*
kulturalny						*niekulturalny*
patriotyczny						*niepatriotyczny*
pragmatyczny						*niepragmatyczny*
niezależny						*zależny*

4. Poniżej znajdziesz różne stwierdzenia dotyczące *Flamandów (gdzie określenie *„Flamandowie“ odnosi się do mężczyzn i kobiet). Na ile zgadzasz się z tymi stwierdzeniami? Zaznacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = zgadzam się, a 5 = nie zgadzam się.

Typowi *Flamandowie:

	1	2	3	4	5
są ograniczeni i naiwni					
koncentrują się na działaniach, które są realne i gwarantują skuteczność					
mają przykry sposób bycia					
wytrwale dążą do celu i nastawieni są na jego osiągnięcie					
są dobrze wychowani					
nie kultywują tradycji i obrzędów, nie wykazują postawy prospołecznej					
łatwo podejmują decyzje					
zachowują dystans i niechętnie okazują uczucia					
unikają wszelkiego wysiłku, robią wszystko bez pośpiechu					
są nieżyczliwi, niesympatyczni, gniewni, ponurzy					
wiedzą czego chcą i łatwo się nie poddają					
chętnie podejmują nowe wyzwania i zdobywają nowe doświadczenia					
ulegają naciskom, nie radzą sobie z przeciwnościami					
nie znają swojej wartości					
przywiązują wagę do (swojej) kultury (narodowej)					
podchodzą do życia z optymizmem i mają poczucie humoru					
sprawiają wrażenie przygnębionych					
dużo wiedzą o otaczającym ich świecie					
niechętnie rozmawiają z innymi ludźmi, są niegościnni					
są ludźmi o wąskich horyzontach					

	1 = zgadzam się ; 5 = nie zgadzam się				
	1	2	3	4	5
są dobrotliwi i nastawieni życzliwie do ludzi i świata					
postępują zgodnie z zasadami moralnymi, są godni naśladowania					
szanują prawo do odmienności oraz akceptują różnorodność					
zachowują się w sposób szczery, niewymuszony					
często stwarzają pozory					
są skłonni do mniej racjonalnych zachowań pod wpływem chwili					
ukrywają swoje myśli, odczucia, zamiary/intencje					
nie są praktyczni i nie patrzą trzeźwo na świat					
zachowują się wrogo i napastliwie					
myślą, że nie mają wpływu na swoje życie, wygłaszają postronne opinie					
działają w oparciu o stereotypy i uprzedzenia					
nie zachowują wszelkich zwyczajów i zasad współżycia społecznego					
są serdeczni i charakteryzują się przyjemną aparycją					
nie kierują się interesem konkretnej grupy społecznej					
postepują racjonalnie i korzystają ze zdobytej wiedzy					
przedstawiają w sposób bezpośredni swoje zdanie i opinie					

Miejsce na jakiekolwiek uwagi, spostrzeżenia i wyjaśnienia dotyczące drugiej części:

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CZĘŚĆ 3

1. **Rok urodzenia. .....**
2. **Płeć:** K / M
3. **Jak długo uczysz się języka niderlandzkiego/flamandzkiego?**

   ..... (podaj okres, np. 2 miesiące, 3 lata)
4. **Czy znasz inne języki obce?**

   TAK / NIE

a. Wymień te języki i określ jak dobrze je znasz. Zaznacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = kompetencja rodowitego użytkownika tego języka, a 5 = bardzo słabo.

	1	2	3	4	5
Język					
Język					
Język					

b. Jak długo uczysz się tych języków?

Język ..... : .....
(podaj język) (podaj okres, np. 2 miesiące, 3 lata)
Język ..... : .....
(podaj język) (podaj okres, np. 2 miesiące, 3 lata)
Język ..... : .....
(podaj język) (podaj okres, np. 2 miesiące, 3 lata)

c. W jaki sposób uczysz lub nauczyłeś/nauczyłaś się tych języków? Określ poziom wpływu lub udziału podanych form. Zaznacz krzyżykiem na skali, gdzie 1 = bardzo duży wpływ lub udział, a 5 = zerowy wpływ lub udział.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Język				
Lekcje z nauczycielem (w szkole, na lekcjach prywatnych, itd.)					
Wyjazdy do krajów, w których używa się tego języka					
Oglądanie, słuchanie i czytanie w tym języku					
Kontakty z rodowitymi użytkownikami tego języka					
Nauka we własnym zakresie (tzw. samouk)					
Inna forma:					

	1 = bardzo duży wpływ lub udział ; 5 = zerowy wpływ lub udział				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Język				
Lekcje z nauczycielem (w szkole, na lekcjach prywatnych, itd.)					
Wyjazdy do krajów, w których używa się tego języka					
Oglądanie, słuchanie i czytanie w tym języku					
Kontakty z rodowitymi użytkownikami tego języka					
Nauka we własnym zakresie (tzw. samouk)					
Inna forma:					
	Język				
Lekcje z nauczycielem (w szkole, na lekcjach prywatnych, itd.)					
Wyjazdy do krajów, w których używa się tego języka					
Oglądanie, słuchanie i czytanie w tym języku					
Kontakty z rodowitymi użytkownikami tego języka					
Nauka we własnym zakresie (tzw. samouk)					
Inna forma:					

5. Czy masz lub miałeś/miałaś problemy ze słuchem?

TAK / NIE

Jeśli tak, to jakie? .....
.....

Dziękuję za życzliwe przyjęcie tego kwestionariusza i za poświęcony mi czas. ☺

APPENDIX B

THE TEXT

Nederlandse paars-plus onderhandelingen worden moeilijk

In Nederland zijn de liberale VVD, de sociaal-democraten van PvdA, de links-liberale D66 en GroenLinks maandag begonnen aan serieuze onderhandelingen over de vorming van een kabinet paars-plus. Het zal moeilijk worden, zei vicepresident van de Raad van State Herman Tjeenk Willink in een toelichting op zijn eindverslag als informateur.

Op zijn advies benoemde koningin Beatrix maandagmiddag VVD-senator Uri Rosenthal en oud-PvdA-fractievoorzitter Jacques Wallage tot informateurs.

Van 'ik wil niet met jou', naar 'ik moet wel met jou'

De fractievoorzitters Mark Rutte (VVD), Job Cohen (PvdA), Femke Halsema (GroenLinks) en Alexander Pechtold (D66) hadden tegenover Tjeenk Willink verklaard dat ze zich "afzonderlijk en gezamenlijk" serieus zullen inspannen in de verwachting dat paars-plus spoedig tot stand zal komen. Daarvoor moet wel een omslag plaatsvinden van campagnevoeren naar kabinetsvorming, zei Tjeenk Willink. "Van 'ik wil niet met jou', naar 'ik moet wel met jou'. Dat kost tijd. Dat is buitengewoon lastig."

Een coalitie paars-plus doet volgens Tjeenk Willink het meeste recht aan de verkiezingsuitslag. Die combinatie boekte samen zestien zetels winst. Andere combinaties leden tussen de vier en de veertien zetels verlies. Bovendien telt paars-plus drie winnaars en maar één partij (PvdA) die (een beperkt aantal) zetels verloor.

[……]

APPENDIX C

SESSION TWO

TASKS ONE AND TWO

TASK ONE

OSOBA 1[97]

Weź w kółko (wybraną odpowiedź lub wybraną wartość na skali).

1a. Ta osoba mówi po:

niderlandzku / flamandzku

1b. Jak pewny/-a jesteś?

pewny/-a 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 *niepewny/-a*

2a. Ta osoba jest:

mężczyzną / kobietą

2b. Jak pewny/-a jesteś?

pewny/-a 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 *niepewny/-a*

3. W jakim wieku jest ta osoba?

16 – 20	21 – 25	26 – 30	31 – 35	36 – 40	41 – 45
46 – 50	51 – 55	56 – 60	61 – 65	66 – 70	71 i wyżej

4. Ta osoba mówi / czyta:

wyraźnie	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*niewyraźnie*
dbale	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*niedbale*
ładnie	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*brzydko*
zrozumiale	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*niezrozumiale*

[97] The same sheet was used for all 24 speakers; the numbering was adapted, for instance OSOBA 1 (person 1), OSOBA 2 (person 2) up to OSOBA 24 (person 24).

TASK TWO

OSOBA 1[98]

Zaznacz krzyżykiem.

Ta osoba jest:

	1	2	3	4	5	
inteligentna						*głupia*
miła						*niemiła*
silna						*słaba*
pracowita						*leniwa*
dobra						*zła*
otwarta						*zamknieta*
pewna siebie						*niepewna siebie*
wesoła						*smutna*
wykształcona						*niewykształcona*
tolerancyjna						*nietolerancyjna*
naturalna						*sztuczna*
emocjonalna						*powściągliwa*
szczera						*nieszczera*
łagodna						*agresywna*
kulturalna						*niekulturalna*
patriotyczna						*niepatriotyczna*
pragmatyczna						*niepragmatyczna*
niezależna						*zależna*

[98] The same sheet was used for all 24 speakers; the numbering was adapted, for instance OSOBA 1 (person 1), OSOBA 2 (person 2) up to OSOBA 24 (person 24).

APPENDIX D

SESSION THREE

TASKS ONE AND TWO

TASK ONE

OSOBA A[99]

Weź w kółko (wybraną odpowiedź lub wybraną wartość na skali).

1a. Ta osoba mówi po:

niderlandzku / flamandzku

1b. Jak pewny/-a jesteś?

pewny/-a 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 *niepewny/-a*

2a. Ta osoba jest:

mężczyzną / kobietą

2b. Jak pewny/-a jesteś?

pewny/-a 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 *niepewny/-a*

3. Ta osoba mówi:

wyraźnie	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*niewyraźnie*
dbale	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*niedbale*
ładnie	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*brzydko*
zrozumiale	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5	*niezrozumiale*

[99] The same sheet was used for all 12 speakers; the numbering was adapted, for instance OSOBA A (person A), OSOBA B (person B) up to OSOBA L (person L).

TASK TWO

OSOBA A[100]

Zaznacz krzyżykiem.

Ta osoba jest:

	1	2	3	4	5	
inteligentna						*głupia*
miła						*niemiła*
silna						*słaba*
pracowita						*leniwa*
dobra						*zła*
otwarta						*zamknięta*
pewna siebie						*niepewna siebie*
wesoła						*smutna*
wykształcona						*niewykształcona*
tolerancyjna						*nietolerancyjna*
naturalna						*sztuczna*
emocjonalna						*powściągliwa*
szczera						*nieszczera*
łagodna						*agresywna*
kulturalna						*niekulturalna*
patriotyczna						*niepatriotyczna*
pragmatyczna						*niepragmatyczna*
niezależna						*zależna*

[100] The same sheet was used for all 12 speakers; the numbering was adapted, for instance OSOBA A (person A), OSOBA B (person B) up to OSOBA L (person L).

APPENDIX E

RESULTS AND RESPONSES OF INDIVIDUAL PARTICIPANTS

The beginners

Participant 1BA1 was a 20-year-old female who had been learning Dutch for 3 months and claimed to know 3 other foreign languages well, English (which she had been learning for 13 years[101]), French (8 years) and Spanish (4 years), giving all of them a rating of 2 on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 meant 'native-like competence' and 5 - 'very badly'[102]. In terms of how she had learned these languages, the predominant source were lessons with a teacher, followed by trips to countries where the languages are spoken, with self-study having no influence whatsoever.

In the first part of the questionnaire she admitted to not reading in Dutch/Flemish or listening to the radio or internet programs in Dutch/Flemish at all. Nor did she know anyone from the Netherlands or Flanders apart from her teachers at university. She did, however, watch programs in Dutch/Flemish, mainly to expand vocabulary and for pleasure. These programs included cartoons, films and video clips (a choice she herself added to the list). She was not acquainted and thus did not keep in touch with anyone from the Netherlands or Flanders but she had been to both the Netherlands and Flanders twice, albeit very briefly. When asked to self-assess her language preferences in regards to Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch on 5 opposite characteristics[103] on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 was the positive counterpart, she gave exactly the same scores to both, which gave a mean score of 1.8, with richness in grammar and vocabulary scoring a 1 and pleasantness a 3. Nevertheless, when given a choice (question 9), she expressed a preference for Belgian Dutch, the motivation being that she was planning to move to Belgium in the future to work as a translator.

When rated in the second part of the questionnaire[104] (questions 1 and 3 respectively), the Dutch scored a mean score of 2.278, with individual scores ranging from 1 to 4, and the Flemish a mean score of 2.333, with scores of 2 and 3 only. The difference lay mainly in respondent 1BA1 seeing the Dutch as more open, tolerant and pragmatic, but less emotional. When comparing her answers in questions 1 and 2 as well

[101] This information will usually be given in brackets following the language.
[102] The scale used for self-reported language proficiency is always the same and hence will not be repeated when discussing the results of all the other participants.
[103] These characteristics were: pleasant to listen to vs. unpleasant to listen to, easy to learn vs. difficult to learn, easy to understand vs. difficult to understand, rich in vocabulary vs. with poor vocabulary, and rich in grammar structures vs. without rich grammatical structures. They will not be repeated, either.
[104] See Sections 4.3.1.5 and 4.4.2.

as 3 and 4 (personality traits vs. definitions), she was consistent, with no rating being off by more than 1[105]. Finally, in the space provided at the end of this part, this participant stressed her views were merely based on what she knew from the media and her short exposure to native-speaker teachers at university.

In the first task of session two of the study, participant 1BA1 recognized 15 out of the 24 speakers in terms of 3 which variety they spoke (4 out of 6 Flemish females, 5 out of 6 Flemish males, 4 out of 6 Dutch females and 2 out 6 Dutch males[106]) and all 24 speakers in terms of gender (with all confidence ratings at 1) but only on one count did she make recognitions on all three variables (variety, gender and age), that is in the case of the 43-year-old Dutch male. With the age-bracket extended to ±1, she scored 4 additional full recognitions, 2 on Flemish females and 2 on Dutch females. In terms of assessment of the speakers, participant 1BA1 rated the Flemish speakers more favorably on 4 characteristics[107], with both females and males scoring a mean score of 2.13, than the Dutch speakers (2.33 for the females versus 2.5 for the males). In the second task, she rated Flemish speakers more favorably overall than their Dutch counterparts but only by a very small margin.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 1BA1 recognized 7 out of the 12 speakers in terms of the language variety they used (all 3 Flemish females, 1 out of 3 Flemish males, 2 out of 3 Dutch females and 1 out of 3 Dutch males[108]) and rated the females speakers higher than the males on the 4 characteristics in question 3 (2.17 Flemish females and 2.25 Dutch females versus 2.33 Flemish males versus 2.75 Dutch males). In the second task, participant 1BA1 rated Flemish speakers more favorably overall than Dutch ones by a large margin.

Participant 1BA2 was a 21-year-old female. In addition to Dutch (4 months), she had been learning English (13 years), Spanish (3 years) and Portuguese (1 year), claiming to be quite proficient in English (ratings for these other foreign languages were

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[105] For example, if she gave the Dutch a 1 on a characteristic in question 1, then the score in question 2 was either a 1 or a 2 on the positive definition and either a 4 or a 5 on the negative one; likewise, if she gave them a 4 on a characteristic in question 1, the score in question 2 was anywhere between a 3 and a 5 on the positive definition and between a 1 and a 3 on the negative one.

[106] In session two of the study, there are always 24 speakers, including 6 Flemish females, 6 Flemish males, 6 Dutch females and 6 Dutch males, so these numbers will not be repeated.

[107] The 4 characteristics are: clearly vs. unclearly, carefully vs. carelessly, nicely vs. not nicely, and comprehensibly vs. incomprehensibly (see Sections 4.3.2 and 4.5). These are the same throughout the first task of session two of the study and in the first task of session three of the study and will hence not be repeated.

[108] Again, all the maximum numbers are the same throughout the first task of session three and will therefore not be repeated. For a description of session three, see Section 4.3.3.

2, 3 and 5 respectively). English and Spanish were learned through lessons with a teacher, watching, listening and reading in the target language and self-study. Portuguese mainly through self-study. Traveling to target-language communities had (had) no bearing.

From the first part of the questionnaire it is clear she also read, watched and listened in Dutch/Flemish, for which she always gave her reasons in the same order: getting to know the culture, to extend vocabulary and for pleasure. As for the most important details, she read articles on the internet and some printed press, watched the news, TV series, commercials, music programs and documentaries, and listened to informative programs as well as talks and interviews. She also knew at least one person from the Netherlands (apart from her teachers), whom she kept in touch with through communicators, e-mails and text messages. She did not know anybody from Flanders. She had also been to the Netherlands twice – once, for 2 weeks, at the age of 8 and once, for 1 month, when she was 20. Both Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch scored the same mean of 2.0 on the five characteristics in questions 7 and 8, with the former scoring a 1 on how pleasant it is to the ear and a 3 on how easy or difficult it is to understand and the latter scoring 5 times a 2. The answer to questions 9 and 10 was a decisive 'the Netherlands', the reasons being connected with future plans and it being a much more interesting country.

In the second part of the questionnaire, the Dutch, who she saw as strong, hard-working and self-confident but not very tolerant, natural, emotional or patriotic, scored a mean of 2.5, while the Flemish, seen as self-confident, cheerful and tolerant but rather unpatriotic, received more favorable ratings with a mean score of 2.278, which is not in line with the findings from the first part. When the results obtained in questions 1 and 2 as well as 3 and 4 (characteristics vs. definitions) are compared, it becomes clear that student 1BA2 was not very consistent in her answers, with a considerable number of ratings differing by 2 or even more points. Also, the answers in questions 2 and 4 (definitions), unlike the ones in questions 1 and 3, give a more favorable picture of the Dutch.

In the first task of session two of the study, participant 1BA2 had 15 recognitions on the varieties (4 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, 4 Dutch females and 5 Dutch males), 24 recognitions on gender, 4 recognitions on all 3 variables (1 Flemish male, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male), and 4 further recognitions on all 3 variables with the age-brackets extended by ±1 (2 Flemish females and 2 Dutch males). Dutch speakers

were assessed slightly more favorably on the 4 characteristics in question 4, with Dutch females scoring 3.13, Dutch males 3.33, Flemish males 3.38 and Flemish females 3.42. The overall marking was consistently low, with mostly 3s and 4s and no scores of 1. In the second task, participant 1BA2 assessed the Dutch more favorably than the Flemish but only by a very small margin.

In the first task of session three of the study, respondent 1BA2 recognized the variety used by 9 speakers (all 3 Dutch females, 2 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males and 2 Dutch males). Again, the Dutch speakers were rated more favorably on the 4 characteristics in question 3 – Dutch females 2.72, Dutch males 3.17, Flemish females 3.25 and Flemish males 3.33. These ratings, however, were not consistent with how participant 1BA2 assessed the Dutch and the Flemish in the second task, where the Flemish received considerably more favorable scores.

Participant 1BA3, 20 years of age, had been studying Dutch for 3 months and claimed to know 2 other foreign languages – English (10 years) and French (3 years) with self-reported proficiency at 2 and 4 respectively. She had learned English and French mostly through watching, listening and reading in the target language as well as self-study and lessons with a teacher. She had never been to English- or French-speaking countries.

In the first part of the questionnaire, respondent 1BA3 indicated she did not read but she watched and listened to programs in Dutch or Flemish, the main reasons being to test herself and expand her vocabulary in the first case and to improve pronunciation and to expand her vocabulary in the second. She mainly watched music programs, commercials and cartoons while she chiefly listened to music programs and the charts. She did not know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders and had only been to the Netherlands once, spending a week on a school exchange. When asked to express her language preferences in questions 7 and 8, she rated Netherlandic Dutch, with a 1, two 2s and two 3s, much more favorably than Belgian Dutch (two 3s, two 4s and a 5) – 2.2 versus 3.8 on average. This was in line with her answers in questions 9 and 10, where she expressed a clear preference for Netherlandic Dutch, stating this variety is much easier to understand.

In the second part of the questionnaire, she expressed a more positive attitude, albeit by a much smaller margin, towards the Dutch, with mean scores of 2.389 versus 2.611. It is also worth mentioning that the ratings on the different adjective pairs range from 1 to 5 for both varieties, with most 1s and all 5s going to the same personality

traits. The final difference stems from the Dutch receiving 2s when the Flemish got 3s. In terms of adjective-definition comparisons, student 1BA3 is quite consistent on most. However, sometimes her answers do differ considerably. To exemplify this, she called the Dutch 'closed' in question 1 but then totally disagreed with the statement that the Dutch are not willing to talk to others and not hospitable.

In the first task of session two of the study, participant 1BA3 scored 10 on variety recognition (2 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, 4 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male), 2 on full recognitions (1 Flemish female and 1 Dutch female) and an additional 3 on full recognitions with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish female, 1 Flemish male and 1 Dutch male). Her ratings of the speakers in question 4 was not consistent with the findings from session one of the study, with both Flemish groups receiving more favorable scores – Flemish females 2.29, Flemish males 2.33, Dutch females 2.63 and Dutch males 3.04. The same is true for the results of the second task, where again she expressed a slight preference for the speakers of Belgian Dutch.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 1BA3 scored only 4 recognitions (of 2 Flemish males, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male). This time, however, the Dutch females received the most favorable ratings on the 4 characteristics – 2.5 versus 3.00 for the Flemish males, 3.58 for the Flemish females and 4.17 for the Dutch males. Again, the scores in the second task are indicative of a preference for Belgian Dutch.

Participant 1BA4, born in 1990, claimed to have been learning Dutch for 2.5 months and to know 3 other foreign languages – English (15 years), Afrikaans, a west-Germanic language that derives from 17th-century Dutch and whose present-day vocabulary is predominantly of Dutch origin as well (3 years), and German (5 years), with self-reported proficiency levels at 2, 3 and 3 respectively. She learned all 3 languages mainly through lessons with a teacher, while self-study played a minor role in the acquisition process. When it comes to studying English and Afrikaans, but not German, contacts with native speakers were very influential as well. Perhaps surprisingly though, the participant rated the influence of a trip to South Africa on her learning Afrikaans quite high but fails to do the same for English despite both languages being not only spoken but also official languages there.

In the first part of the questionnaire, student 1BA4 declared she read but did not watch or listen to anything in Dutch or Flemish. She ordered the reasons for reading as they were given (for pleasure, to extend vocabulary and to learn about the culture), with

the internet and the press as the main sources. She knew at least one person from the Netherlands, mainly keeping in touch with them by means of e-mails, and Flanders, whom she mainly kept in touch with by attending the same events. She had been to the Netherlands only once, for 4 days. In question 7 and 8 she expressed a slight preference for Netherlandic Dutch – 1.6 versus 1.8. This is not reflected in the answers to questions 9 and 10, where she favored Flemish, calling it a language that sounds better.

In the second part of the questionnaire, the Dutch had a mean score of 2.111 and the Flemish one of 2.444, with the former scoring twice as many 1s. In general, the participant's ratings were much more on the side of the sociably desirable adjectives. When adjectives are compared with the definitions, it becomes apparent that especially in the case of the Dutch, student 1BA4 was less willing to give 1s in question 2 but, with a total of ten 5s, much more decisive when expressing disagreement with certain statements. In the case of the Flemish the results are more balanced. This is why adjective-definition comparisons generated more inconsistencies among the Dutch than the Flemish. For example, in question 1 she gave the Dutch a 3 on sincere vs. insincere and gentle vs. aggressive, while in question 2 she totally disagreed with both definitions of the sociably undesirable personality trait (hide their thoughts, impressions, intentions and behave with hostility and virulently).

In the first task of session two of the study, she scored 17 recognitions on language variety (4 Flemish females, 4 Flemish males, 4 Dutch females and 5 Dutch males), 4 recognitions on all 3 variables (1 each) and an additional 2 recognitions on all 3 variables with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish male and 1 Dutch female). Question 4 (assessment on 4 characteristics) generated more favorable scores for the females (2.17 Flemish, 2.71 Dutch) than males (3.13 Flemish, 3.17 Dutch). In both cases there is a slight preference for Belgian Dutch. In the second task, the ratings for the Netherlandic Dutch speakers and those whose native variety is Belgian Dutch are almost identical, with a very slight advantage for the latter.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 1BA4 scored 8 recognitions (1 Flemish female, 2 Flemish males, 3 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males) and again assessed the Dutch males least favorably on the 4 characteristics. The other ratings, however, generated a different order, with Dutch females coming first (2.25), Flemish males second (2.58) and Flemish females third (3.00). In the second task, the Flemish speakers received considerably more favorable ratings than the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch.

Participant 1BA5 was a 20-year-old who had been learning Dutch for 4 months, English (with a self-reported proficiency level of 2), mainly through lessons with a teacher, trips to target-language communities and watching, listening and reading in the target language, for 12 years, and Italian (with a self-reported proficiency level of 4), mainly through lessons with a teacher, for 3 years.

Even though she did not read in Dutch/Flemish (apart from the texts they were required to cover as part of their courses), she watched films, the news and sport and listened to music programs as well as talks and interviews in Dutch/Flemish, the reasons for both ranked in the exact same way (for pleasure, to extend her vocabulary and to learn about the culture). She did not know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders, nor had she been to either. In questions 7 and 8, she did not differentiate between the 2 varieties, with a mean score of 2.0 for both. Of importance, as much as she appreciated the sound and richness of both varieties, she also emphasized how difficult she found both varieties to understand by marking 4 on the grid. In question 9 she chose Netherlandic Dutch but the rationale provided as an answer to question 10, in which she describes how useful and unusual the language is, seems to apply to the Dutch language in general rather than its Netherlandic variety.

This participant was favorably exposed to speakers of both varieties, with all but one score being 1s and 2s, a mean score of 1.722 for the Dutch and one of 1.444 for the Flemish. When comparing the answers in questions 1 (personality traits) and 2 (corresponding definitions), student 1BA5 turns out to have been very consistent by giving 4s and 5s in her ratings of definitions of negatively loaded, or sociably undesirable, adjectives, and 1s and 2s when deciding whether she agreed or not with statements connected with positive personality traits.

In the first task of session two of the study, she scored 13 recognitions on gender (1 Flemish female and all Dutch females and males), 6 full recognitions (4 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males) and a further 3 full recognitions with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Dutch female and 2 Dutch males). It has to be noted though that the participant marked Flemish in question 1a only once (which, as the aforementioned findings suggest, indeed happened to be when listening to a speaker of Belgian Dutch), automatically giving recognitions on all 12 Dutch speakers. However, in a debriefing interview, she explained that her answers reflected what she believed at the time of the experiments and that by marking speakers of Netherlandic Dutch 23 out of 24 times she did not intend to mislead the researcher, compromise the findings or score recognitions

on half of the speakers, which is why her results have not been excluded from analysis. In terms of assessment on 4 characteristics, this participant favored Belgian Dutch and females within each variety (Flemish females 2.21, Flemish males 3.0, Dutch females 3.04 and Dutch males 3.08). In the second task, the results were almost identical, with a slight preference for the Dutch.

In the first task of session three, she consistently thought all speakers were Dutch rather than Flemish, which explains the full recognitions on Dutch speakers. Again, the results have not been discarded as the participant asserted they reflected her beliefs at the time. In terms of assessment of the speakers on 4 characteristics, this time the order was very different from the one in session two of the study: Dutch females (2.67), Flemish males (3.33), Dutch males (3.58) and Flemish females (3.83). in the second task, the Flemish received more favorable ratings than the Dutch.

Participant 1BA6 was a 23-year-old student who had been learning Dutch for 2 years and 3 months. A debriefing interview revealed she had attended lessons at a local language school for 2 years prior to starting Dutch studies at the university. From her answers in question 4, it becomes clear that she had also learned English (15 years) and German (10 years), with self-reported proficiency levels at 2 and 3 respectively, and that all 5 sources (lessons with a teacher, trips to countries in which the language is spoken, watching, listening and reading in the particular language, contact with native speakers, and self-study) played an important role in the acquisition of those 2 languages.

In the first part of the questionnaire, this participant answered 'yes' to questions 1, 2 and 3, each time varying the order of importance of the reasons given and in the case of reading adding 2 reasons of her own (for research purposes and e-mails). With reading, for which purpose mostly the internet is used, and watching, with the news and cartoons being her favorites, the most important reason was 'for pleasure' (the other 2 reasons differed in the ranking), while with listening, mainly to informative programs, talks and interviews and music programs, the chief reason was 'to expand vocabulary'. She knew and kept in touch with people from both the Netherlands and Flanders by writing e-mails, text messages and using communicators, and visiting. She had also been 3 times to the Netherlands (once for over a month and twice about a week each) and more than 4 times to Flanders, with each stay lasting about a week. Student 1BA6 assessed Belgian Dutch more favorably (2.8 versus 3.0), the difference lying mainly in Netherlandic Dutch receiving mostly 3s, while Flemish got 2s and 4s. She would prefer

to study both varieties but having to choose, she would opt for Netherlandic Dutch as the variety that offers better job prospects.

The results in the second part of the questionnaire show this student held a more positive attitude towards the Dutch, with more 1s, fewer 4s and a mean score of 2.167 (versus 2.611 for the Flemish). She also proved to be rather inconsistent in the adjective-definitions comparisons by sometimes fully agreeing with positive and negative statements in question 2 when the corresponding adjectives in question 1 were given a 3 or a value that was even further from the one required for the answer to be more parallel to the reply to the appropriate statements. For example, while giving the cheerful-sad and emotional-reserved pairs a 3, she fully agreed with the statements that the Flemish both seem dejected (depressed) and keep their distance and are unwilling to show emotions.

Despite having been exposed to both varieties more than most other beginners, this participant scored relatively few recognitions on variety (Flemish females, Dutch females and Dutch males, 3 each, giving a total of only 9), on all 3 variables (1 Dutch male) and all 3 variables with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male). In question 4, she assessed the females more favorably than the males, with both Flemish groups scoring better than Dutch ones (Flemish females 2.63, Dutch females 2.83, Flemish males 2.96 and Dutch males 3.46). In the second task she rated Dutch speakers more favorably than Flemish ones.

In the first task of session three, student 1BA6 scored 7 recognitions on variety (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male, 1 Dutch female and 3 Dutch males) and assessed Flemish males and Dutch females (both 2.58) much more favorably than Dutch males (3.42) and Flemish females (3.92). In the second task, the scores achieved by Flemish speakers were much more favorable than the ones obtained by speakers of Netherlandic Dutch.

Interestingly enough, participant 1BA6 was one of the few participants that took the time to express her reactions to various points by, for instance, drawing smileys after circling parts of definitions she obviously found amusing and adding "you're welcome" with a smiley at the end of the questionnaire.

Participant 1BA7, a 23-year-old, had been studying Dutch for 3 months. She also enumerated 2 other foreign languages, namely English (9 years) and Spanish (3.5 years), with self-reported proficiency levels at 2 and 4, and giving all ways in which languages could be learned a 1 or a 2.

This participant, for whom the internet was the main source of reading materials and who listened mainly to informative programs, read and listened in Dutch/Flemish for pleasure and to learn more about the target-language culture. She did not watch any films, TV or programs on the internet. She knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands and kept in touch with them by writing e-mails and text messages. She had also been to that country twice, once for 1 day and once for a week. Participant 1BA7 had a positive attitude to both varieties, assessing Netherlandic Dutch slight more favorably (2.0 versus 2.2), the difference lying in the former being more pleasant to listen to, which also was reflected in her reason for choosing the same variety in questions 9 and 10.

In the second part of the questionnaire, this participant varied the scoring on the 18 adjective pairs for the Dutch, whom she saw as kind, self-confident and cheerful but rather reserved, and the Flemish, whom she saw as good, cheerful, gentle and pragmatic but rather intolerant and reserved, and yet both groups achieved the exact same mean score – 2.278. Also, she was quite consistent in scoring the adjective and definitions similarly.

In session two, student 1BA7 scored 11 recognitions on variety (4 Flemish females, 3 Dutch females and 3 Dutch males), no recognitions on all 3 variables and 4 on all 3 variables with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 each). With almost no 4s and 5s for any of the speakers on the 4 characteristics, the attitude expressed towards the 4 groups of speakers was quite positive, with the females coming first and second (Dutch 1.88 versus Flemish 2.0) and the males third and fourth (Dutch 2.25 versus Flemish 2.33). The mean scores in the second task were almost identical, with a slight preference for speakers of Belgian Dutch.

As regards session three, this participant scored only 3 recognitions (1 Flemish male, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male) and expressed a more positive attitude towards Dutch speakers (females 2.33, males 2.75) than their Flemish peers (females 2.92, males 3.00). Also, the females received more favorable scores than the males. In the second task, there was a clear preference for speakers of Belgian Dutch.

Participant 1BA8, a 23-year-old who had been learning Dutch (4 months), German (14 years) and English (7 years), the latter 2 with self-reported proficiency at 2 and 3

respectively, and for whom all 5 ways of learning languages[109] played quite an important role.

She read texts on the internet, watched the news, films and commercials, and listened to informative programs, live coverage and talks and interviews, all in Dutch/Flemish and all for linguistic reasons (i.e. to expand her vocabulary and exposure to language, a reason she added to the list herself) more than for pleasure or becoming acquainted with the culture. She did not know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders, nor had she been there. Even though Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch received identical ratings in questions 7 and 8, with a mean score of 1.8, student 1BA8 expressed a preference for the former in questions 9 and 10, arguing it sounds slightly better and is more universal.

Also in the second part of the questionnaire, a more positive attitude was expressed towards the Dutch (2.056) than the Flemish (2.222), with the latter scoring fewer 1s and more 3s. What the 2 groups have in common is that they are seen as good and independent but rather closed. Though quite consistent in the positively loaded adjective-definition comparisons, this participant scored only two 4s and no 5s in question 1 (pairs of personality traits) but as many as seven 5s in question 2 (the statements), showing she fully disagreed with negatively loaded definitions that corresponded directly with adjectives she was not so decisive about.

Among the 13 recognitions this participant had in the first task of session two of the study, 6 concerned Dutch males, which means she recognized all of them. The remaining 7 were of Flemish females (2), Flemish males (2) and Dutch females (3), giving a much bigger score for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch in general. She also had 4 recognitions on all 3 variables, 2 with and 2 without the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male each). It may be of interest to note that student 1BA8 did not give any 1s or 5s in question 4, in which she rated the females (Flemish 2.33, Dutch 2.5) more favorably than the males (Dutch 2.54, Flemish 3.0). In the second task, the participant expressed a somewhat more positive attitude towards the Dutch.

In the first task of session three of the study, she not only recognized all 6 speakers of Netherlandic Dutch, but she also rated them more favorably on the 4 characteristics, with the Dutch females and males ex aequo at 2.00, the Flemish males at 2.17 and the Flemish females at 2.33. With respect to other recognitions, she only identified 1 female

[109] lessons with a teacher, trips to countries in which the language is spoken, watching, listening and reading in the particular language, contact with native speakers, and self-study

speaker of Belgian Dutch correctly. In the second task the results suggest a preference for the Flemish.

Participant 1BA9 was 21 at the time of the study. She had been studying Dutch for 3.5 years, with a few months at university and the remaining time through "attempts at self-study", to quote what she put in the questionnaire. She listed 3 other foreign languages: English (14 years) and German (7 years) were given a 2 on the self-reported proficiency scale, while Korean (2 years) a 4. Despite lessons with a teacher playing an important role in the acquisition of all three languages, the participant claimed to have learned them differently, deeming contact with native speakers in the case of English and both trips to Korea and self-study in the case of Korean as irrelevant.

The answers to question 1 in the first part of the questionnaire are a clear indication of this participant having spent some time developing her language skills outside the classroom by reading, mainly for pleasure, texts on the internet, food labels and books, and by watching, again mainly for pleasure, music programs. She took the opportunity presented to her to add her own answers and listed the following: "for reading something interesting that happens to be available" to answer why and "food labels" to state what. She did not listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. In addition to knowing and keeping in touch with at least 1 person from the Netherlands (chiefly through visits, participation in the same events and written communication), she also visited that country more than 4 times for a period of over half a year in total. She did not know anybody from nor had she been to Flanders. As regards her self-reported attitude to the two varieties of Dutch, she did not differentiate between them on the 5 characteristics giving them both a mean score of 1.4. Nevertheless, she expressed a preference for Netherlandic Dutch in reply to question 9, substantiating this choice by making reference to her keen interest in Dutch culture.

Underlying the discrepancy in her ratings of the Dutch (2.056) and the Flemish (2.278) in the second part of the questionnaire is the fact than unlike the Flemish the Dutch scored 1s (on openness, self-confidence, cheerfulness, tolerance and pragmatism). When her answers to questions 1 and 2 as well as 3 and 4 are compared, it becomes evident this participant was quite consistent in her ratings, which never differed by more than 1 on the 5-point scale.

Student 1BA9 scored as many as 20 recognitions in the first task of session two, identifying all 6 Dutch males, 5 Flemish females, 5 Dutch females and 4 Flemish males, 4 full recognitions (3 Dutch males and 1 Flemish male) and an additional 4 with the age-

bracket extended by ±1 (2 Flemish females and 1 Dutch female and male each). Her ratings on the 4 characteristics do not show any pattern - 2.42 for Flemish females, 2.88 for Dutch males, 2.92 for Flemish males and 3.13 for Dutch females. Her ratings for the Dutch and the Flemish in the second task were almost identical with a slight preference for the former.

In session three, this participant identified 7 speakers correctly (all 3 Dutch females, 2 Dutch males, 1 Flemish male and 1 Flemish female). The assessment of the speakers on the 4 characteristics gave a similar order to the one obtained in session two – 1.83 for Flemish females, 2.50 for Dutch males, and 2.83 for both Flemish males and Dutch females. In the second task she expressed a clear preference for speakers of Belgian Dutch, rating them much more favorably than those who speak Netherlandic Dutch.

Participant 1BA10, a 20-year-old male, had been studying Dutch for 3 months, listed English (11 years) and German (5 years) as 2 other foreign languages he had studied (with self-reported proficiency levels at 2 and 4 respectively), and, apart from trips to German-speaking countries, deemed all ways as influential in his acquisition of these languages.

At the time of completing the questionnaire, this participant did not read, watch or listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish, nor did he know anybody from Flanders or had he been to either the Netherlands or Flanders. He did, however, know and keep in touch with at least 1 person from the Netherlands. The 2 means by which contact was maintained were communicators and e-mails. He expressed a clear preference for Netherlandic Dutch in reply to question 9, which is reflected in a more positive attitude he expressed by rating this variety slightly higher than Belgian Dutch (2.6 versus 2.8) on the 5 characteristics.

The same tendency can be observed in the second part of the questionnaire, with the Dutch, whom this participant saw as hard-working tolerant and cultured, scoring a mean score of 2.0 and the Flemish, whom he saw as good, gentle, patriotic and pragmatic but rather insecure, scoring 2.333. The adjective-definition comparisons show inconsistencies with quite a few ratings differing by 2.

In the first task of session two of the study, this participant scored 15 recognitions on variety with his individual scores equally distributed (4 Flemish females, 4 Flemish males, 3 Dutch females and 4 Dutch males), 2 recognitions on all 3 variables (1 Flemish female and 1 Dutch female) and an additional 3 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1

Flemish male, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male). He gave an identical mean rating to Flemish speakers on the 4 characteristics (females and males both 2.46), assessing Dutch females more favorably (2.42) and Dutch males less favorably (2.92). In the second task, the ratings were almost identical with a slight preference for the Flemish.

In the first task of session three of the study, participant 1BA10 identified 9 speakers correctly (2 Flemish females, all 3 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males). His ratings show no pattern with Dutch females scoring more favorably at 3.17 than Flemish males (3.75), Dutch males (3.83) and Flemish females (3.92). In the second task, the ratings were again very similar with a more positive attitude expressed towards the Flemish.

Participant 1BA11 was a 23-year-old who had been studying Dutch and French for 4 months, English for 12 years and German for 7. His self-reported proficiency levels for the latter 3 languages were 5, 1 (meaning he felt his competence was native-speaker-like) and 3 respectively. Whilst it comes to English and German, all 5 ways in which languages are learned seemed to have had at least some influence on him with self-study being much less significant. When learning French, this participant had to rely mainly on lessons with a teacher and contacts with native speakers of the language.

His answers in the first part of the questionnaire revealed this participant read texts on the internet (the reasons ordered as follows: to get to know the culture of the countries in which the language is used, for pleasure and to expand vocabulary) and watched commercials, films, sport and documentaries, the main reason being the same and the other 2 reversed. He did not listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish, nor did he know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders. He had, however, been to the Netherlands twice (once for a week, the second time a few hours) and to Flanders once (for a few hours). Both varieties received identical ratings (1.8). The reason for his preference for Netherlandic Dutch, expressed in question 9, was related to him favoring the Netherlands.

With a mean score of 2.0 for the Flemish and 2.722 for the Dutch, this participant's attitude towards speakers of Belgian Dutch, who scored more 1s and no 4s, was more positive. He was quite consistent in his ratings on the adjectives as compared with the statements. There was at least one extreme exception though in that the Flemish received a 1 (I fully agree) on the adjective 'emotional' but a 5 (I fully disagree) on the corresponding definition.

With a tally of 16 recognitions, this participant was better at identifying speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (5 females and 4 males) than Belgian Dutch (4 males and 3 females) in the first task of session two of the study. He also scored 3 recognitions on all 3 variables (1 Flemish female, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male) and a further 6 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish female, 2 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male). Somewhat surprisingly perhaps, the 77-year-old Flemish female was misidentified as a Dutch male. As regards attitudes, the females (Flemish 2.58, Dutch 3.08) were rated more favorably than the males (Dutch 3.21, Flemish 3.42) on the 4 characteristics in question 4, while the Flemish were rated more favorably on the 18 adjective pairs in the second task.

In the first task of session three of the study, participant 1BA11 scored 7 recognitions (1 Flemish female, 2 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males) and expressed a more positive attitude towards speakers of Belgian Dutch (females 2.67, males 2.83 versus 3.25 for Dutch females and 4.08 for Dutch males). He did likewise in the second task.

Participant 1BA12, 21 years of age, had been learning Dutch for about 4 months. In a debriefing interview he explained he knew more than 3 other foreign languages but had listed only his top 3: English (4 years), Chinese (almost a year and a half) and German (14 years), with self-reported proficiency at 2, 3 and 3 respectively. This shows that length of study and exposure to a language may not be proportional to the level of proficiency in that language. All ways of learning languages enumerated in question 4 had at least some bearing on this participant's acquisition of the aforementioned 3 languages, with lessons with a teacher and self-study being more significant.

Reading texts, especially on-line, and watching cartoons, commercials and music programs in Dutch/Flemish were among the ways in which this participant worked on gaining more exposure and honing his language skills outside the classroom. The reasons varied and included "some information is only available in Dutch", which he added himself, ranking it first. He did not know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders but had been to the former twice (for 1-day visits) and the latter once (also for a 1-day visit). Even though he rated Netherlandic Dutch somewhat more favorably than its Belgian counterpart (2.4 versus 2.6), this participant expressed a preference for Flemish since it was the variety he was exposed to more with *Vanzelfsprekend* as the main course book. Nevertheless, he added it was hard to make a firm decision not having learned much, if anything, about the differences between the 2 varieties.

With the Dutch, unlike the Flemish, scoring 1s, they obtained a more favorable mean score of 2.167 (versus 2.389 for the Flemish) in the second part of session one of the study. With respect to the sociably less desirable personality traits, he saw the Dutch as rather unkind and reserved and the Flemish as unpatriotic. His ratings in questions 1 and 3 (adjective pairs) compare quite well with those in questions 2 and 4 (definitions) respectively.

In the first task of session two, student 1BA12 scored 15 recognitions on variety (4 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, 4 Dutch females and 4 Dutch males), 2 on all 3 variables (1 Flemish female and 1 Dutch female) and an additional 4 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish female, 1 Dutch female and 2 Dutch males). The ratings in question 4, which were more favorable for speakers of Belgian Dutch by a very small margin, generated insignificant differences (Flemish females 2.42, Flemish males 2.5, Dutch females 2.54 and Dutch males 2.58). In the second task, a more positive attitude was expressed towards the Dutch.

The results in the first task of session three point to a parallel between the recognitions in question 1 (all 5 on speakers of Netherlandic Dutch only – 2 females and 3 males) and the ratings in question 3 (2.08 for Dutch females, 2.58 for Dutch males and Flemish males, and 2.67 for Flemish females). Those in the second task, however, give a substantial difference in favor of the Flemish.

Participant 1BA13, born in 1991, had been studying Dutch for 4 months and English, with a self-reported level of 3 and with all 5 ways of learning playing a role, for 12 years.

In the first part of the questionnaire, he answered 'no' to questions 1 (reading), 3 (listening), 4, 5 and 6 (contacts with the Netherlands, Flanders and their speakers). He did, however, claim to watch TV series, films and music programs first and foremost with the intent of learning pronunciation. Netherlandic Dutch was assessed at 2.2 and Belgian Dutch at 2.6, a difference reflected in this participant's choice for the former in questions 9 and 10, the arguments being that it is more pleasant to the ear and offers better prospects, which, in turn, is mirrored in the Dutch (2.278) being rated more favorably than the Flemish (2.722) in the second part. He proved to be inconsistent in questions 1 versus 2 and 3 versus 4 (that is adjectives versus definitions). To exemplify this, he thought the Flemish were self-confident but then fully disagreed with the statement that they made decisions easily.

In session two of the study, student 1BA13 scored 16 recognitions on variety (3 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, 5 Dutch females and 5 Dutch males), 3 on full recognitions (1 Flemish male and 2 Dutch males), and 3 additional ones on all 3 variables with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish male and 2 Dutch females). In question 4 he assessed females more favorably (2.29 Flemish, 2.42 Dutch) than males (2.83 Flemish, 2.88 Dutch). The second task revealed a more positive attitude towards the Flemish.

In session three of the study, this participant identified 5 speakers correctly (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male, a Dutch female and male each). This time, his ratings on the 4 characteristics were more favorable for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (3.08 males, 3.17 females) than those who spoke Flemish (3.58 males, 3.75). For the second task the opposite was true.

Participant 1BA14, 20 years of age, had been studying Dutch for 4 months. He enumerated 3 other foreign languages: English (12 years), German (3 years, only in high school) and French (6 years, in primary school and junior high school), with self-proficiency at 2, 4 and 5 respectively. In the case of the latter 2 languages, most of his learning took place during lessons with a teacher. English was learned in a variety of ways. Self-study did not play an important role in the acquisition of any of the languages.

His answers in the first part of the questionnaire show very little work was done outside the classroom and on school assignments, with reading texts on the internet and from the press scoring a 4, meaning hardly ever. He did not watch or listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. Student 1BA14 knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands whom he kept in touch with, his main channel of communication being communicators and e-mail, and nobody from Flanders. He had also been to the Netherlands (twice for 1 week) but not to Flanders. Although his scores in questions 7 and 8 varied, the same mean scores were obtained - 2.6. His answers to questions 9 and 10 were unusual in that he chose Netherlandic Dutch as his variety of choice despite feeling he had more in common with Flemish culture and the lifestyle of Flemish people. Nonetheless, or perhaps because of that, the Dutch were rated more favorably in the second part of the questionnaire than the Flemish (2.111 versus 2.444), with the latter scoring fewer 1s but more 4s and 5s. Also, he thought the Dutch were quite patriotic in his reply to question 1 but quite unpatriotic when responding to the statements in question 2, which exemplifies one of a number of inconsistencies in his adjective-definition comparisons.

There is a pattern in his answers in the first task of session two in that student 1BA14 rated females more favorably in question 4 (Flemish 2.58, Dutch 2.63 versus Flemish males 2.83 and Dutch males 3.29) in addition to identifying more female (5 Flemish and 5 Dutch) than male (4 Flemish and 3 Dutch) speakers in question 1. Besides the 17 recognitions on variety, he scored 2 on all 3 variables (1 Flemish females and 1 Dutch female) and 4 further ones with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (2 Flemish females, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male). In the second task, this participant's attitude towards the Dutch was more positive than towards the Flemish.

In session three, however, his number of recognitions on variety was the same for each variety (1 Flemish female, 2 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male, giving a total of 6) and his ratings on the 4 characteristics were the same within each variety, with his scores for the Flemish being more favorable (2.50 Flemish females and males versus 2.67 Dutch females and males). Also in the second task, the participant's attitude was more positive towards the Flemish.

Participant 1BA15, born in 1991, had been studying Dutch for 4 months. He listed 3 other foreign languages, namely English (8 years), which he had learned in a variety of ways, German (8 years) and French (1.5 years), both of which he learned almost solely through lessons with a teacher. Despite having learned the first 2 for the same number of years, his self-reported proficiency in them differed substantially (2 for English versus 4 for German). His knowledge of French was even more limited than that of his German.

He read texts on the internet mainly to expand vocabulary, watched sport chiefly for pleasure and listened to live coverage and informative programs principally to learn more about the culture. He did not know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders, nor had he been to either place. His more positive attitude expressed towards Belgian Dutch on the 5 characteristics (2.4 versus 2.8 for Netherlandic Dutch) was confirmed in his reply to questions 9 and 10, where he justified his choice for Flemish both by explaining his future plans were connected with Belgium and by mentioning his fascination for Belgian cities. Yet, his ratings in the second part, though different on the individual personality traits, gave the exact same mean scores for the Dutch and the Flemish (2.111). When his scores are compared on the adjective pairs and those on the definitions, it becomes clear that, despite a number of the ratings being off by 1, this participant was quite consistent.

In session two of the study, student 1BA15 had 18 recognitions on variety, 9 for each (4 Flemish females, 5 Flemish males, 5 Dutch females and 4 Dutch males), 3 on all

3 variables (1 Flemish females, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male) and an additional 4 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish female, 2 Flemish males and 1 Dutch male). When rating the speakers on the 4 characteristics, this speaker showed a more positive attitude towards females (Flemish 2.29, Dutch 2.42) than males (Flemish 2.46, Dutch 3.0), with speakers of Belgian Dutch scoring more favorably within each group. This consistency with the findings from the questionnaire ended in the second task, when he rated the Dutch more favorably.

In session three the overall inconsistency is maintained in that the participant identified all 3 male speakers of Netherlandic Dutch and all 3 male speakers of Belgian Dutch but only 1 Flemish male and 2 Dutch females, rating Flemish females (2.08) more favorably than Dutch males (2.67), Flemish males (3.17) and Dutch females (3.33) on the 4 characteristics in question 4. In the second task, however, he expressed a more positive attitude when rating the Flemish.

Participant 1BA16, 20 at the time of the study, had self-studied Dutch for almost a year prior to starting his studies at Adam Mickiewicz University. He had also been learning English (12 years), through all methods, but with self-study being of particular importance, and Latin (3 years), solely through self-study. His self-reported proficiency levels were 3 and 5 respectively.

He did not read any texts in Dutch/Flemish but he watched documentaries and news programs and listened to music programs and informative programs, all mainly for pleasure and to improve listening comprehension, the latter having been added by the student himself. Even though he knew at least one person from the Netherlands, he did not keep in touch with them. He did not know anybody from Flanders, nor had he been to either place. His more favorable assessment of Belgian Dutch on the 5 characteristics was in line with his expressed preference for Flemish, the reasoning being that it sounded more melodic.

Despite both the Dutch and the Flemish scoring a great deal of 1s in the second part of the questionnaire, this participant expressed a much more positive attitude towards the Dutch (1.938), whom he saw as more closed and reserved in terms of sociably undesirable personality traits, than the Flemish (2.556), who scored as many as five 5s, making them lazy, insecure, uneducated, intolerant and unpatriotic in his eyes. In general his answers were consistent although some answers in questions 1 and 2 as well as 3 and 4 (adjectives versus definitions) generated considerable differences. The

Dutch, for instance, were seen as dependent (question 1) and independent (question 2) at the same time.

With only 9 recognitions on variety in the first task of session two of the study, participant 1BA16 struggled to identify speakers of Belgian Dutch (4 males) and Netherlandic Dutch (4 females and 1 male). He also scored 2 full recognitions (1 Flemish male and 1 Dutch female) and a further 2 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (again 1 Flemish male and 1 Dutch female). There was wide variety in the scores awarded to the speakers in question 4 (the 4 characteristics), with the second person, for example, speaking carelessly and not nicely but comprehensibly. Overall, females were rated more favorably (3.08 Flemish, 3.33 Dutch) than males (3.46 Flemish, 3.79 Dutch), with a more positive attitude expressed towards the speakers of Belgian Dutch. In the second task the Dutch and the Flemish were rated similarly, with a slight advantage for the former.

Again, this student found it difficult to identify the speakers in session three of the study, scoring only 5 recognitions on variety in the first task (2 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male). Consistency is maintained in that females are once rated much more favorably on the 4 characteristics (3.25 both the Flemish and the Dutch females versus 4.08 Dutch males and 4.25 Flemish males). In the second part, there was a clear preference for Flemish speakers.

Participant 1BA17 was a 26-year-old male with wide experience of language learning – in addition to having been studying Dutch for 4 months, he had also studied English (over 15 years), Spanish (over 6 years), Catalan (over 5 years) and 4 other languages (French, Portuguese, Occitan and German). This participant concentrated on the 3 languages he had been studying the longest, all of which received a 2 on self-reported proficiency. He reported that all 5 ways had (had) direct bearing, however, in the case of English, trips to countries where the language is spoken had (had) no influence whatsoever.

As a means of expanding his vocabulary range and of undertaking a pleasurable experience, this participant read texts on the internet and from the press besides sometimes also watching most of the types of programs listed in question 2. He did not, however, listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. He did not know anybody from the Netherlands but did know and keep in touch with at least 1 person from Flanders. His main channel of communication was the internet (e-mail and facebook). He had never been to either the Netherlands or Flanders. Even though he rated Netherlandic Dutch

more favorably on the 5 characteristics (2.4 versus 2.8), he expressed a clear preference for Belgian Dutch, which, in his opinion, has more lively dialects. As a linguist, he found this to be more appealing.

With only one 1 and two 4s for the Dutch and no 1s and two 4s for the Flemish, student 1BA17 expressed an almost identical attitude towards both groups in the second part of the questionnaire (2.556 for the Dutch, whom he saw as pragmatic but not very open or emotional, versus 2.667 for the Flemish, the scores for which suggest he thought they were rather closed and reserved). He proved very consistent on the adjective-definition comparisons.

A multilingual familiar with varieties of Spanish and French, participant 1BA17, rather unsurprisingly, identified almost all speakers in the first task of session two of the study – 22 in total. The only 2 he failed to recognize were a Flemish and a Dutch male. This stands in stark contrast to the number of full recognitions – 2 (1 Flemish female and 1 Dutch male) and 6 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (3 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male and 2 Dutch females). He rated Flemish speakers (1.29 females, 1.38 males) more favorably on the 4 characteristics than Dutch ones (1.50 females, 1.79 males) but with almost all 1s and 2s across the board, the differences are not very significant. This patterns of scoring and consistency is also visible in the results for the second task, where his attitude towards the Flemish was more positive by a tiny margin.

In session three of the study, this participant found identifying the correct language variety more challenging (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male, 3 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male) but consistently rated the speakers of Belgian Dutch more favorably both in the first task (Flemish males 1.67 and females 1.92 versus Dutch males 2.00 and females 2.08) and the second task, in which the margin is very wide.

It seems worth mentioning that participant 1BA17 took notes while listening to the different speakers, especially in session two of the study, often justifying, in a way, his answer. For example, he put [g] next to 'Flemish' when the speaker was indeed from Flanders.

Participant 1BA18, 20 at the time, had been studying Dutch for 3 months, English for 8 years and French for a year. He had also studied German for a number of years in junior high school. His self-reported proficiency levels for the latter 3 languages were 3, 5 and 5. There is a pattern in how he learned these languages, with trips to countries where these languages are spoken and contacts with native speakers having had no

influence, while lessons with a teacher had (had) the most bearing on the acquisition process.

He read texts in Dutch/Flemish on the internet and sometimes watched the news, films, sport and quizzes, all mainly to expand his vocabulary and for pleasure. He did not listen to any programs on the radio, nor did he know anybody from the Netherlands or Flanders or had he been to either place. He was not very generous in his assessment of the varieties on the 4 characteristics in questions 7 and 8. Belgian Dutch scored 3.0 and Netherlandic Dutch 3.2. Acknowledging the more universal applicability of the latter, however, this participant indicated a preference for the variety spoken in the Netherlands. He gave 2s to over half of the adjective pairs for speakers of both varieties, which generated similar mean scores (2.444 for the Dutch and 2.556 for the Flemish). His answers to questions 1 (personality traits) and 2 (statements), about the Dutch, are comparable but the ones to questions 3 and 4, about the Flemish, are much more inconsistent, as a result of which speakers of Belgian Dutch were seen as gentle and quite aggressive as well as quite insecure and very self-confident at the same time.

In the first task of session two, this participant scored 13 recognitions on variety (3 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, 4 Dutch females and 4 Dutch males), 3 on recognitions on all 3 variables (2 Flemish females and 1 Dutch male) and a further 2 on full recognitions with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male). His ratings on the 4 characteristics were more favorable for Flemish females and the Dutch males (both 2.58) than for Flemish males (2.83) and Dutch females (2.92). His scores in the second task show almost no difference in this student's attitudes towards the Dutch and the Flemish, the scoring being slightly in favor of the latter.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 1BA18 identified 5 speakers correctly (1 Flemish female, 2 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males) and rated the Flemish females at 2.83, Flemish males and Dutch females at 2.92 and the Dutch males at 3.33 on the 4 characteristics. Like in session two, the ratings in the second task were almost identical but this time with a more positive attitude expressed towards the Dutch, albeit by an extremely small margin.

Participant 1BA19, born in 1992, had been studying Dutch for 4 months. He also claimed to know 3 other foreign languages, among which English (13 years) was self-reported as being of native-speaker-like competence. The other two, German (12 years) and French (2 months), had their competence rated at 2 and 5 respectively. There is a pattern to the ways in which this participant learned these other languages in that trips to

countries in which the language is spoken, watching, listening and reading in the particular language and contact with native speakers all had a very big influence, while lessons with a teacher and self-study were less important but still significant.

This participant did not read texts in Dutch/Flemish but did watch music programs, TV series, films and sport programs in addition to listening to music programs and talks and interviews, the reasons ranged from 'for pleasure' through 'learning about the culture' to 'expanding vocabulary'. He knew and kept in touch with at least 1 person from the Netherlands, the only channel being communicators, both through writing and speaking. He did not know anybody from Flanders, nor had he been to the Netherlands or Flanders. Still, he expressed a more positive attitude towards Belgian Dutch (2.6 versus 2.8). He is the beginner (see Section 5.1.3) to whom it did not matter which variety he would learn if given a chance to choose.

In the second part of the questionnaire, the Dutch achieved an equal number of 2s and 4s and no 1s or 5s, giving a mean score of 3.0. The Flemish were rated more favorably as they scored thirteen 2s, one 3 and four 4s, the mean score being 2.5. The participant proved slightly inconsistent on the adjective-definition comparisons, with quite a few ratings off by 2 points.

His attitudes towards speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, as expressed by rating them on 4 characteristics in question 4 of the first task of session two of the study and question 3 of the first task of session three, showed no pattern. In session two, the order was: Flemish females (2.21), Dutch females (2.38), Flemish males (2.67) and Dutch males (2.96). In session three the order was: Flemish males (2.6), Dutch females (3.00), Dutch males (3.25) and Flemish females (3.42).

As far as recognitions are concerned, student 1BA19 identified 16 speakers (3 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, 5 Dutch females and 5 Dutch males) in session two, with 1 on all 3 variables (a Flemish male) and an additional 4 (1 Flemish female, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male) if the age-bracket is extended by ±1, while in session three he recognized 7 speakers (1 Flemish female and 2 Flemish males, Dutch females and Dutch males each).

In the second task of both session two and session three of the study, participant 1BA19 expressed a more positive attitude towards the Flemish.

The advanced learners

Participant 3BA1, a 23-year-old female, had been studying Dutch for 2.5 years, listed German (since birth), English (13 years) and Spanish (1 year) as 3 other foreign languages she had studied (with self-reported proficiency levels at 2, 3 and 5 respectively), and deemed all ways as influential in her acquisition of these languages.

From the first part of the questionnaire it is clear she read texts on the internet and in the press in Dutch/Flemish, the main reason being work on her BA thesis, followed by vocabulary expansion, getting to know the culture and for pleasure. She also watched series, cartoons, the news, documentaries, films, commercials and music programs in Dutch/Flemish, for which she gave her reasons in the following order: to extend vocabulary, for pleasure and getting to know the culture. However, she did not listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. Apart from her teachers, she knew at least one person from the Netherlands and Flanders but she did not keep in touch with them. She had also been to the Netherlands (once for 2 weeks) but never to Flanders. Belgian Dutch scored higher than Netherlandic Dutch on the five characteristics in questions 7 and 8 (mean scores of 3.2 versus 3.8 respectively). The answer to questions 9 and 10, however, was 'Netherlandic Dutch'. She preferred this variety because it sounds better and its pronunciation, which she said was more difficult and hence more challenging, is more like that of English, making it more appealing.

Following the first part of the questionnaire, participant 3BA1 added a comment, in which she explained she took Dutch to mean the variety spoken in Amsterdam and some provinces, that is the language used in news programs, and that she did not know or had not heard other varieties.

In the second part of the questionnaire, the Dutch, whom this participant saw as tolerant and independent but rather closed and unpatriotic, scored less favorably (a mean score of 2.333) than the Flemish (a mean score of 1.611, with eleven 1s, only three 3s and no 4s or 5s). The adjective-definition comparisons for the former show a few inconsistencies as the Dutch were seen as rather closed and unpatriotic in question 1 but rather open and patriotic in question 2. The adjective-definition comparisons for the Flemish are quite consistent.

In the first task of session two of the study, this participant scored 19 recognitions on variety (4 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, 6 Dutch females and 6 Dutch males), 2 recognitions on all 3 variables (both Dutch females) and an additional 3 with the age-

bracket extended by ±1 (2 Flemish females and 1 Dutch male). On average, she assessed the Dutch speakers more favorably than the Flemish ones on the 4 characteristics (Dutch females 2.29 and Dutch males 2.71 versus Flemish females 2.21 and Flemish males 3.08). In the second task, the ratings for the Dutch were also more favorable than the ones for the Flemish.

In the first task of session three of the study, participant 3BA1 identified 10 speakers correctly (all 3 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, all 3 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males). Her ratings show a more favorable assessment of the females than the males (Dutch females 1.75 and Flemish females 1.92 versus Flemish and Dutch males 2.58 each) but the overall scores for the Dutch and Flemish speakers are almost identical. In the second task, this participant expressed a more positive attitude expressed towards the Flemish.

Participant 3BA2 was a 23-year-old female who had been studying Dutch for 2 years, German for 10 years, English for 6 years and Russian for 2 years. Her self-reported proficiency levels for the latter 3 languages were 4, 3 and 2 respectively. Whilst it comes to German and English, all 5 ways in which languages are learned seemed to have had at least some influence on her. When learning Russian, this participant had to rely mainly on lessons with a teacher, watching programs in Russian and, though only to some extent, contacts with native speakers of the language.

Her answers in the first part of the questionnaire revealed this participant read books, texts on the internet and in the press (the reasons ordered as follows: some information can only be found in Dutch or Flemish, for pleasure to get to know the culture of the countries in which the language is used, and to expand vocabulary), watched cartoons, quizzes, commercials, films, series and documentaries (the order of importance being: to expand vocabulary, for pleasure and to get to know the culture of the countries in which the language is used), and listened to music programs, features, talks and informative programs (the reasons being: for pleasure, to expand vocabulary and get to know the culture of the countries in which the language is used). She knew with at least one person from both the Netherlands and Flanders. She kept in touch with the former through communicators, e-mails, text messages, visits and participation in the same events, while with the latter through the phone, communicators, text messages, visits and participation in the same events. She had been to the Netherlands three times (between 1 day and 3 weeks) and to Flanders once (for a whole semester on Erasmus). Netherlandic Dutch received a more favorable rating than Belgian Dutch (2.0 versus

2.6). The reason for her preference for Netherlandic Dutch, expressed in question 9, was related to her appreciating the fewer borrowings from French and the fact that this variety differs less from the standard.

With a mean score of 2.0 for the Dutch and 2.389 for the Flemish in the second part of the questionnaire, this participant's attitude towards speakers of Netherlandic Dutch, who scored mainly 1s and 2s, was more positive. There are a few inconsistencies in this participant's ratings on the adjectives as compared with the statements.

With a tally of 18 correct recognitions, this participant was better at identifying speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (all 6 females and 4 males) than Belgian Dutch (4 males and 4 females) in the first task of session two of the study. She scored only 1 recognition on all 3 variables (1 Flemish male) but as many as 8 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (3 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male). As regards attitudes, the Flemish speakers (females and males 1.96 each) were rated more favorably than the Dutch speakers (females 2.0 and males 2.17) both on the 4 characteristics in question 4 and on the 18 adjective pairs in the second task.

In the first task of session three of the study, participant 3BA2 scored 10 recognitions (2 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 3 Dutch males) and expressed a more positive attitude towards female speakers (of Netherlandic Dutch 1.83 and of Belgian Dutch 1.92) than male speakers (of Belgian Dutch 2.08 and of Netherlandic Dutch 2.17). In the second task the Flemish were rated slightly more favorably than the Dutch.

Because she had spent an entire semester studying at a Flemish university, participant 3BA2 may have been expected to be better at identifying speakers of Belgian Dutch. However, in a debriefing interview she explained that her fellow students represented different linguistic backgrounds. Besides, with so many Flemish students speaking dialects or *tussentaal* as their first language, teachers seemed to focus on getting students to unlearn dialectal pronunciation, lexis and grammar by replacing them with standard equivalents. This apparently caused even more confusion among foreign students, with participant 3BA2 being a case in point.

Participant 3BA3, 21 years of age, had been learning Dutch for 3 years. She knew 2 other foreign languages: English (12 years) and German (10 years), with self-reported proficiency at 2 and 3 respectively. All ways of learning languages enumerated in question 4 had at least some bearing on this participant's acquisition of German, with lessons with a teacher being more significant. When it comes to how she (had) learned

English, this participant stressed the importance of lessons with a teacher, watching programs in English and self-study, with trips to English-speaking countries playing a minor role.

Reading books as well as texts on-line and in the press and watching films, commercials, documentaries and series in Dutch/Flemish were among the ways in which this participant worked on gaining more exposure and honing her language skills outside the classroom. In both cases the main reason was for pleasure. Another reason for watching was "because I like them", which she added herself, ranking it second. She did not listen to any programs in Dutch/Flemish. She knew at least one person from the Netherlands, whom she kept in touch with, but nobody from Flanders. The type of contact included the phone, communicators, e-mails, text messages, visits and participation in the same events. She had been to the Netherlands once (for a week) but not to Flanders. Even though she rated Belgian Dutch more favorably than Netherlandic Dutch (2.2 versus 2.6), this participant expressed a preference for the latter because it sounds exotic and can be used with Flemish speakers as well.

The ratings for the Dutch (with a mean score of 2.111) and the Flemish (a mean score of 2.167) were almost identical. She saw the Dutch as kind, good, open and self-confident and the Flemish as kind, hard-working, good, tolerant and patriotic but rather weak and dependent. Her ratings in questions 1 and 3 (adjective pairs) compare quite well with those in questions 2 and 4 (definitions) respectively, except for the ratings on dependent/independent for the Flemish.

In the first task of session two, student 3BA3 scored 18 correct recognitions on variety (4 Flemish females, 4 Flemish males, all 6 Dutch females and 4 Dutch males), 4 on all 3 variables (1 Flemish female, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male) and an additional 2 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish female and 1 Dutch female). The ratings in question 4 were more favorable for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch and the females (Dutch females 2.0, Flemish females 2.42, Dutch males 2.58 and Flemish males 2.75). In the second task, again a more positive attitude was expressed towards the Dutch.

As far as the results in the first task of session three are concerned, this participant scored 9 correct recognitions (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male, all 3 Dutch females and all 3 Dutch males). In terms of the assessment on 4 characteristics, she indicated a preference for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (females 2.41 and males 3.17 versus 3.33

for Flemish males and 3.75 for Flemish females). The ratings in the second task, however, give a difference in favor of the Flemish.

In the space provided in the questionnaire for additional comments, participant 3BA3 explained she was guided mainly by stereotypes.

Participant 3BA4 was a 24-year-old female at the time of the study. In addition to Dutch (3 years), she had been learning English for as long as she could remember, German (8 years) and Japanese (5 years) with self-reported proficiency at 2, 2 and 3 respectively. English and German were learned through lessons with a teacher, visits to countries where English and German are spoken, watching, listening and reading in the target language, contacts with native speakers of these languages and self-study. Japanese was learned through lessons with a teacher, watching, listening and reading in the target language, contacts with native speakers and self-study.

From the first part of the questionnaire it is clear she also read and watched in Dutch/Flemish. The order of the reasons for reading were: extending vocabulary, for pleasure, not forgetting the language and and getting to know the culture. The order of the reasons for watching were: for pleasure, getting to know the culture, extending vocabulary and exposure to language. As for the most important details, she read books and articles on the internet and watched the news, films, TV series, cartoons, quizzes, music programs and cabaret. She did not listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. She knew at least one person from the Netherlands (apart from her teachers), whom she kept in touch with through the phone, e-mails and text messages. She did not know anybody from Flanders. She had never been to the Netherlands or Flanders. Netherlandic Dutch was rated more favorably than Belgian Dutch (means scores of 2.0 versus 2.6). The answer to questions 9 and 10 was 'Netherlandic Dutch' for a variety of reasons: this variety sounds better, the Flemish understand Netherlandic Dutch anyway and Flemish has more influences from French (a language she did not know).

In the second part of the questionnaire, the Flemish (with a mean score of 2.222) were rated more favorably than the Dutch (with a mean score of 2.556). When the results obtained in questions 1 and 2 as well as 3 and 4 (characteristics vs. definitions) are compared, it becomes clear that student 3BA4 was very consistent in her answers.

In the first task of session two of the study, participant 3BA4 had 20 correct recognitions on the varieties (all 6 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, all 6 Dutch females and 5 Dutch males), only 1 recognition on all 3 variables (a Flemish female) and 7 further recognitions on all 3 variables with the age-brackets extended by ±1 (2 Flemish

females, 2 Flemish males, 1 Dutch female and 2 Dutch males). The ratings on the 4 characteristics in question 4 were almost identical for speakers of Dutch and Flemish (Flemish females with a mean score of 2.04, Dutch females 2.25, Dutch males 2.75 and Flemish males 3.04). In the second task, participant 3BA4 assessed the Flemish more favorably than the Dutch.

In the first task of session three of the study, respondent 3BA4 recognized the variety used by all 12 speakers. This time the Flemish speakers were rated slightly more favorably on the 4 characteristics in question 3 – Dutch females 2.58, Flemish males 2.83, Flemish females 3.33 and Dutch males 3.75. These ratings were consistent with how participant 3BA4 assessed the Dutch and the Flemish in the second task, where the Flemish received more favorable scores.

Participant 3BA4 commented she was mainly guided by stereotypes when rating the Dutch and the Flemish and that she believed people are good by nature, which explains the high number of 2s.

Participant 3BA5, 22 years of age, had been studying Dutch for 2.5 years and claimed to know 2 other foreign languages – English (13 years) and German (6 years) with self-reported proficiency at 2 and 4 respectively. He (had) learned English mostly through watching, listening and reading in the target language, contacts with native speakers and self-study, while lessons with a teacher played a much less important role. He (had) learned German through lessons with a teacher and visits to German-speaking countries.

In the first part of the questionnaire, respondent 3BA5 indicated he read books as well as texts on-line and in the press and watched films, the news, commercials and documentaries in Dutch/Flemish. The main reasons for reading were: for pleasure, to get to know the culture and to expand vocabulary. For watching: for pleasure, to learn pronunciation, to get to know the culture and to expand vocabulary. He knew at least one person from both the Netherlands and Flanders. He kept in touch with them through communicators. He had been to the Netherlands more than 4 times, always on day-trips to Dutch cities, and has spent 5 months in Flanders. When asked to express his language preferences in questions 7 and 8, he rated Netherlandic Dutch, with a mean score of 1.2, much more favorably than Belgian Dutch (2.4) – 2.2). This was in line with his answers in questions 9 and 10, where he expressed a clear preference for Netherlandic Dutch, stating this variety is easier to learn, easier to understand and sounds nicer. He also wrote he would like to speak with a Dutch accent.

In the second part of the questionnaire, however, he expressed a more positive attitude towards the Flemish, with a mean score of 1.667 versus 2.222 for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch. In terms of adjective-definition comparisons, student 3BA5 was quite consistent on most.

In the first task of session two of the study, participant 3BA5 scored 22 on variety recognition (all 6 Flemish females, all 6 Flemish males, all 6 Dutch females and 4 Dutch males), 7 on full recognitions (2 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male) and an additional 1 on full recognitions with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Dutch male). His ratings of the speakers in question 4 was consistent with the findings from session one of the study, with Dutch speakers receiving more favorable scores – Dutch females 1.67, Dutch males 1.88, Flemish females 2.46 and Flemish males 2.63. The same is true for the results of the second task, where again she expressed a preference for the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 3BA5 scored 8 recognitions (2 Flemish males, 2 Flemish males, all 3 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male). Dutch females received the most favorable ratings on the 4 characteristics – 1.67 versus 2.00 for Flemish females, 2.08 for Flemish females and 2.92 for Dutch males. The scores in the second task are indicative of a preference for Belgian Dutch (by a large margin).
Participant 3BA5 expressed a clear preference for Netherlandic Dutch, which was reflected in his more favorable scores on 5 characteristics in the questionnaire as well as the recognitions and 4 characteristics in session two.

Participant 3BA6 was a 25-year-old who had been studying Dutch for 3 years, English for 15 years, German for 7 years and Spanish for 5 months. His self-reported proficiency levels for the latter 3 languages were 1 (meaning he felt his competence was native-speaker-like), 4 and 5 respectively. These languages were learned through lessons with a teacher and contacts with native speakers. English was also learned through watching, reading and listening in English.

His answers in the first part of the questionnaire revealed this participant read texts on the internet and in the press as well as books. He also watched commercials, films, TV series, sport programs, the news and music programs. In both cases the reasons were as follows: for pleasure, to get to know the culture of target-language communities and to expand vocabulary. He did not listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. He knew and kept in touch at least 1 person from both the Netherlands and Flanders. He kept in touch with them via communicators and e-mails. He had, however, never been to the Netherlands or

Flanders. Belgian Dutch (with a mean score of 2.6) received slightly more favorable ratings than Netherlandic Dutch (2.8). He expressed a preference for Netherlandic Dutch in question 9 because he felt this variety was more popular and useful.

With a mean score of 2.333 for the Dutch and 2.5 for the Flemish, this participant's attitude towards speakers of Netherlandic Dutch, who he saw as cheerful and sincere but not very strong or emotional, was slightly more positive. He was quite consistent in his ratings on the adjectives as compared with the statements, the only exception being the ratings for the Dutch on strong vs. weak.

With a tally of 18 recognitions, this participant was better at identifying speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (all 6 females and 4 males) than Belgian Dutch (4 males and 4 females) in the first task of session two of the study. He also scored 3 recognitions on all 3 variables (2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male) and a further 2 with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish female and 1 Dutch female). As regards attitudes, the females (Flemish 2.29, Dutch 2.50) were rated more favorably than the males (Flemish 2.83, Dutch 3.00) on the 4 characteristics in question 4. The Dutch and the Flemish received identical ratings on the 18 adjective pairs in the second task.

In the first task of session three of the study, participant 1BA11 scored 6 recognitions (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male and 3 Dutch females) and expressed a more positive attitude towards speakers of Netherlandic Dutch (females 2.50, males 3.42 versus 2.92 for Flemish males and 3.25 for Flemish females). He did likewise in the second task.

Participant 3BA6's results vary to such an extent that there are no clear-cut attitudes expressed towards the 2 varieties or their speakers.

Participant 3BA7, 25 at the time of the study, had been studying Dutch for 2.5 years, English for 16 years and German for 6 years. His self-reported proficiency level for English was 2, for German 4. In terms of how he learned these languages, lessons with a teacher had (had) the most bearing on the acquisition process, with watching, reading and listening, contacts with native speakers and self-study playing a role in the case of English as well. German was also learned through visits to German-speaking countries.

He did not read or listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. He did watch commercials, quizzes, the news, TV series, music programs, documentaries and films, all mainly for pleasure and to get to know the culture. He knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands (he kept in touch via communicators, e-mails, visits and participation in the same

events) but nobody from Flanders. He had not been to either place. He rated speakers of Netherlandic Dutch more favorably on the 4 characteristics in questions 7 and 8 than speakers of Belgian Dutch (averages scores of 1.8 versus 2.2). This participant also indicated a preference for the variety spoken in the Netherlands in question 9, justifying this choice by stressing phonetic reasons. The ratings given in the second part of the questionnaire generated similar mean scores for the Dutch and the Flemish (2.222 and 2.333 respectively). The Dutch were seen as hard-working, open, self-confident, pragmatic but His answers to questions 3 (personality traits) and 4 (statements), about the Flemish, are just a bit inconsistent with the Flemish seen as quite weak and bit strong as well as reserved and a bit emotional at the same time; the ones to questions 1 and 2, about the Dutch, are even more inconsistent, as a result of which speakers of Netherlandic Dutch were seen as open closed as well as reserved and emotional at the same time.

In the first task of session two, this participant scored 19 recognitions on variety (5 Flemish females, all 6 Flemish males, 5 Dutch females and 3 Dutch males), 1 on recognitions on all 3 variables (a Flemish male) and a further 7 on full recognitions with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male, 2 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males). His ratings on the 4 characteristics were more favorable for Dutch speakers (females 2.17, males 2.71) than for Flemish speakers (females 2.75, males 3.21). His scores in the second task show a more positive attitude towards the Dutch.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 3BA7 identified 9 speakers correctly (2 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, all 3 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males) and rated the Dutch females at 2.50, Dutch males at 3.08, Flemish females at 3.17 and Flemish males at 3.67 on the 4 characteristics. This time the ratings in the second task were in favor of the Flemish.

Participant 3BA7 was one of few respondents to score the Dutch and Flemish from 1 to 5 on the adjective pairs in the second part of the questionnaire. Also, in all 3 parts of the study, he expressed a more positive attitude towards the Dutch when rating speakers of both varieties on a set of characteristics.

Participant 3BA8, 26 years of age at the time of the study, had been studying Dutch for 3 years. He also claimed to know 3 other foreign languages, with self-reported proficiency for two of them, namely English (13 years) and French (7 years), at 2. The competence level for the other language, Spanish (4 years), was 3. All 5 ways of learning languages turned out to be significant for this participant for all languages.

This participant read texts in Dutch/Flemish (books and on the internet) and watched entertainment programs. In both cases, the main reason was for pleasure. He did not listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. He knew and kept in touch with at least 1 person from the Netherlands, the only channel being communicators, both through writing and speaking. He knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands and kept in touch with them through e-mails, text messages and visits. He did know anybody from Flanders. He had been to the Netherlands more than 4 times for over 6 months in total but never to Flanders. He expressed a more positive attitude towards Netherlandic Dutch (2.0 versus 2.4 for Belgian Dutch). If given a choice, he would have chosen Netherlandic Dutch for a variety of reasons: he got to know Dutch culture much better and the variety sounds better. He added, however, that the choice could have been different had he got acquainted with Flemish culture and the Flemish more.

In the second part of the questionnaire, the Flemish received mainly 2s, while the Dutch mainly 3s, which explains the more favorable mean score for the former (2.556 versus 3.o for the Dutch). Dutch achieved an equal number of 2s and 4s and no 1s or 5s, giving a mean score of 3.0. He saw the Dutch as hard-working, self-confident and pragmatic but closed and reserved and the Flemish as patriotic but rather lazy and dependent. The participant proved consistent on the adjective-definition comparisons.

His attitudes towards speakers of Belgian and Netherlandic Dutch, as expressed by rating them on 4 characteristics in question 4 of the first task of session two of the study and question 3 of the first task of session three, showed a pattern. In session two, the order was: Dutch females (2.46), Dutch males (2.54), Flemish males (3.46) and Flemish females (3.58). In session three the order was: Dutch females (2.50), Dutch males (3.25), Flemish females and Flemish males (both 4.42).

As far as recognitions are concerned, student 3BA8 identified 20 speakers (5 Flemish females, 4 Flemish males, 5 Dutch females and all 6 Dutch males) in session two, with 6 on all 3 variables (1 Flemish female, 1 Flemish male, 1 Dutch female and 3 Dutch males) and an additional 2 (1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male) if the age-bracket is extended by ±1, while in session three he recognized 11 speakers (all 3 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, all 3 Dutch females and all 3 Dutch males).

In the second task of both session two and session three of the study, participant 3BA8 expressed a more positive attitude towards the Dutch.

Participant 3BA8 used all 5 points when rating the Dutch on 18 adjective pairs in the second part of the questionnaire. Also, in the space provided he explained that his

attitude towards the Dutch was a result of direct experience, whereas his assessment of the Flemish was not. Consistent on adjective-definition comparisons, this participant also invariably rated Netherlandic Dutch more favorably.

Participant 3BA9 was a 22-year-old who had been learning Dutch for 2.5 years and English (with a self-reported proficiency level of 2) for 13 years. English was learned mainly through lessons with a teacher, contacts with native speakers, watching, listening and reading in the target language and self-study.

He read, watched and listened in Dutch/Flemish, with the reasons always in the same order: for pleasure, to expand vocabulary and to get to know the culture. He added that he also read for the purpose of writing his BA thesis and listened to improve his pronunciation. In terms of the details, he read books, texts on the internet and articles in the press, he watched news programs, commercials, documentaries, films, TC series and quizzes, and he listened to informative programs, talks and interviews as well as so-called features. He knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands (he kept in touch through the phone, communicators, e-mails, text messages and visits) but nobody from Flanders. He had been to the Netherlands (twice – once for 4 days and once for 2 weeks) but not to Flanders. In questions 7 and 8, he rated the Dutch more favorably than the Flemish (1.8 versus 2.2). In question 9 he chose Netherlandic Dutch for a variety of reasons: the pronunciation is much easier and more natural, he had Dutch friends, he saw the Netherlands as a richer country with more interesting literature, he found the politics more logical, and there were more interesting characters (like Theo van Gogh and Ayaam Hirsi Ali).

This participant was more favorably exposed to speakers of Netherlandic Dutch, who scored mostly 1s and 2s), than those of Belgian Dutch, who scored mostly 2s and 3s). The mean scores were 1.944 for the former and 2.222 for the latter. The only personality trait on the undesirable side for the Dutch was reserved and for the Flemish – lazy. When comparing the answers for the Dutch in questions 1 (personality traits) and 2 (corresponding definitions), student 3BA9 turns out to have been consistent with the exception of one pair – dependent versus independent. As far as the Flemish are concerned, the statement-definition comparisons are a bit inconsistent, for instance on good vs. bad, cultured vs. ill-mannered and dependent vs. independent.

In the first task of session two of the study, he scored 22 recognitions on gender (5 Flemish females, 5 Flemish males and all 6 Dutch females and males), 8 full recognitions (3 Flemish females, 2 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males) and a further 4

full recognitions with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish male and 3 Dutch males). In terms of assessment on 4 characteristics, this participant favored Netherlandic Dutch speakers (Dutch females 1.71, Dutch males 2.04, Flemish females 2.875 and Flemish males 3.375). In the second task, the Dutch received more favorable ratings.

In the first task of session three, he scored 10 recognitions (all 3 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, al 3 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males). In terms of assessment of the speakers on 4 characteristics, the order was similar to the one in session two of the study: Dutch females (2.00), Dutch males (2.92), Flemish males (4.00) and Flemish females (4.42). In the second task, the Dutch again received more favorable ratings than the Flemish.

Participant 3BA9 consistently rated the speakers of Netherlandic Dutch as well as the variety itself more favorably.

Participant 1MA1 was a 24-year-old student who had been learning Dutch for 4 years. From her answers in question 4, it becomes clear that she had also learned English (8 years) and Spanish (5 months), with self-reported proficiency levels at 3 and 3 respectively, and that only 2 sources (lessons with a teacher as well as watching, listening) played an important role in the acquisition of those 2 languages.

In the first part of the questionnaire, this participant answered 'yes' to questions 1, 2 and 3, each time varying the order of importance of the reasons given and in the case of watching adding a reason of her own (New Year resolution). With reading, for which purpose mostly the internet but also books are used, the main reason was for pleasure, the other two being to extend vocabulary and to get to know the culture, in that order. For watching, with the news, commercials and films being her favorites, the most important reason was to fulfill her New Year resolution, followed by vocabulary extension, culture knowledge and pleasure, while with listening, only to informative programs, the chief reason was 'for pleasure'. She knew and kept in touch with people from the Netherlands by writing e-mails and using communicators. She did not know anybody from Flanders. She had also been to the Netherlands 3 times (for a total of 4.5 months) but never to Flanders. Participant 1MA1 assessed Belgian Dutch much more favorably (2.0 versus 3.2). She also opted for Belgian Dutch in reply to question number 10 as the variety that is easier to understand as it pronunciation is easier.

The results in the second part of the questionnaire show this student held a more positive attitude towards the Dutch, with mostly 1s, some 3s and 5s (on the negatively loaded adjectives unkind, closed and unpatriotic) and a mean score of 2.222 (versus

2.833 for the Flemish, who she saw as intelligent, kind, hard-working but closed, intolerant and reserved). She also proved to be rather inconsistent in the adjective-definitions comparisons with at least 5 answers differing by 2 points for both the Dutch and the Flemish.

This participant scored 20 recognitions on variety (4 Flemish females, 4 Flemish males, all 6 Dutch females and all 6 Dutch males), 3 on all 3 variables (1 Flemish male, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male) and a further 6 on all 3 variables with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (3 Flemish females, 1 Dutch female and 2 Dutch males). In question 4, she assessed the females more favorably than the males, with both Dutch groups scoring better than the Flemish ones (Dutch females 1.92, Flemish females 2.67, Dutch males 2.71 and Flemish males 3.54). In the second task she rated Dutch speakers more favorably than Flemish ones.

In the first task of session three, student 1MA1 scored 11 recognitions on variety (she only misidentified 1 Flemish female) and assessed Dutch speakers (males 2.67, females 2.75) much more favorably than Flemish speakers (males 3.25, females 3.67). In the second task, the scores achieved by Flemish speakers were more favorable than the ones obtained by speakers of Netherlandic Dutch.

Participant 1MA1 proved to be quite aware of the differences between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch when used by native speakers as she scored 20 out of 24 and 11 out of 12 recognitions on variety. Nonetheless, her ratings on characteristics as well as personality traits versus definitions did not reveal any patterns.

Participant 1MA2, a 23-year-old, had been studying Dutch for 4 years. She also enumerated 3 other foreign languages, namely English (6 years), German (6 years) and Spanish (5 months), with self-reported proficiency levels at 3, 5 and 5. She (had) learned English through lessons with a teacher, visiting English-speaking countries, watching, reading and listening in English, and contacts with native speakers, German through lessons with a teacher, and Spanish through lessons with a teacher and watching, reading and listening in the target language.

This participant, for whom books and the internet was the only 2 sources of reading materials, read in Dutch/Flemish for work, to expand vocabulary, pleasure and to learn more about the target-language culture. She also watched commercials, quizzes, films, cartoons, news programs and TV series, ranking the reasons as follows: for pleasure, to expand vocabulary and to get to know the culture. She knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands and kept in touch with them through e-mails, text

messages, telephone calls, communicators and visits. She also knew at least 1 person from Flanders and kept in touch with them using the same means. She had been to the Netherlands twice (for 2 days) and to Flanders 3 times (once for 3 weeks on a summer course and twice on short business trips). Participant 1MA2 had a positive attitude to both varieties, assessing Belgian Dutch slight more favorably (2.0 versus 2.2 for Netherlandic Dutch), the difference lying in this variety sounding more delicate and gentle, which was also reflected in her reason for choosing Belgian Dutch in questions 9 and 10. She added that the Flemish spoke more clearly and comprehensibly.

In the second part of the questionnaire, this participant varied the scoring on the 18 adjective pairs for the Dutch, giving mostly 1s and 2s but also 3s, 4s and 5s, and the Flemish, giving mostly 1s and 3s but also some 2s and 4s and one 5. The overall mean scores were quite similar – 2.167 for the Dutch and 2.389 for the Flemish. Also, she was quite consistent in scoring the adjective and definitions similarly.

In session two, student 1MA2 scored 16 recognitions on variety (4 Flemish females, 5 Flemish males, 4 Dutch females and 3 Dutch males), 3 recognitions on all 3 variables (1 Flemish female, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male) and 3 on all 3 variables with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (1 Flemish male, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male). The attitude expressed towards the 4 groups of speakers when assessing them on 4 characteristics was quite positive, with Flemish speakers coming first and second (males 1.88, females 1.92) and Dutch speakers third and fourth (females 2.0, males 2.33). In the second task, a preference was expressed for speakers of Belgian Dutch.

As regards session three, this participant scored 5 recognitions (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male, 1 Dutch female and 1 Dutch male) and expressed a more positive attitude towards Dutch speakers (males 2.08, females 2.17) than their Flemish peers (females 2.33, males 2.83). In the second task, there was a preference for speakers of Belgian Dutch.

Participant 1MA2 marked the Dutch and the Flemish on the whole spectrum on points in the second part of the questionnaire. As much as the results in part two of the study are in line with the attitudes expressed in the questionnaire, the ratings from the first task of part three are not.

Participant 1MA3, a 26-year-old who had been learning Dutch (3.5 years), English (15 years), Spanish (5 years) and French (3 years), the latter 3 with self-reported proficiency at 4, 2 and 2 respectively, and for whom 3 of the 5 ways of learning

languages always played quite an important role in the learning process: lessons with a teacher, watching, reading and listening, and self-study.

She read texts on the internet and in the press, watched the news, films, documentaries and commercials, and listened to informative programs, talks and interviews, features and live coverage, all in Dutch/Flemish and all for the same reasons (i.e. for pleasure, to expand vocabulary and to get to know the culture, in that order). She did not know anybody from the Netherlands but she did know at least 1 person from Flanders. She kept in touch with them through communicators, e-mails and text messages. She had been to the Netherlands and to Flanders (once for about a week in both cases). Netherlandic Dutch received more favorable ratings in questions 7 and 8, with a mean score of 2.6 versus 3.0 for Belgian Dutch. Student 1MA3 also expressed a preference for Netherlandic Dutch in questions 9 and 10, arguing it is more universal.

Also in the second part of the questionnaire, a more positive attitude was expressed towards the Dutch (2.222) than the Flemish (2.722), with the latter not scoring any 1s. She proved to be a bit inconsistent in the adjective-definition comparisons.

Among the 18 recognitions this participant had in the first task of session two of the study, 6 concerned Dutch males, which means she recognized all of them. The remaining 12 were of Flemish females (4), Flemish males (3) and Dutch females (5), giving a much bigger score for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch in general. She had 5 recognitions on all 3 variables, none with and all 5 without the age-bracket extended by ±1 (2 Flemish females, 1 Dutch female and 2 Dutch males). In question 4, student 1MA3 rated the females (Flemish 1.21, Dutch 1.38) more favorably than the males (Flemish 1.50, Dutch 1.58). In the second task, the participant expressed a more positive attitude towards the Flemish.

In the first task of session three of the study, she recognized 9 speakers (2 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and all 3 Dutch males). She rated the females and the Flemish more favorably on the 4 characteristics than the males and the Dutch (Flemish females 2.08, Dutch females 2.17, Flemish males and Dutch males 2.75). In the second task the results suggest a preference for the Flemish.

As a comment to the first part of the questionnaire, participant 1MA3 wrote she was not familiar with the distinction between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch. Instead, she thought the difference lay only in there being two accents of the same Dutch language.

Participant 1MA4 was a 23-year-old female who had been learning Dutch for 3.5 years and claimed to know 2 other foreign languages well, English (which she had been learning for 9 years) and Spanish (3 years), with self-reported proficiency of 2 and 4 respectively. In terms of how she had learned these languages, the predominant source were lessons with a teacher, followed by watching, reading and listening in the target language and contacts with native speakers. She (had) learned English also through trips to countries where this language is spoken and self-study.

In the first part of the questionnaire she answered 'yes' in reply to questions on whether she read, watched and listened in Dutch/Flemish. She read books as well as texts on the internet and in the press, watched films, the news, cartoons, music programs and commercials, and listened to talks and interviews as well as music programs, all for the same reasons (i.e. for pleasure, to expand vocabulary and to get to know the culture, in that order). She knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands but not keep in touch with them. She did not know anyone from Flanders apart from her teachers at university. She had never been to the Netherlands but she did go to Flanders once (for 3 weeks). When asked to self-assess her language attitudes towards Netherlandic Dutch and Belgian Dutch on 5 opposite characteristics she gave exactly the same scores to both (a mean score of 3.2). This is in line with her reply to question 9 since she was unable to make a choice between Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch as the language variety of her choice.

When rated in the second part of the questionnaire, the Dutch achieved a mean score of 2.444 and the Flemish a mean score of 2.5. Participant 1MA4 saw the Dutch as tolerant and natural but reserved and unpatriotic and the Flemish as educated but closed, reserved and unpatriotic. When comparing her answers in questions 1 and 2 as well as 3 and 4 (personality traits vs. definitions), she was quite consistent, with no rating being off by more than 1.

In the first task of session two of the study, participant 1MA4 recognized 17 out of the 24 speakers in terms of which variety they spoke (4 Flemish females, 3 Flemish males, all 6 Dutch females and 4 6 Dutch males). She made 3 correct recognitions on all 3 variables (variety, gender and age), that is in the case of 1 Flemish female, 1 Flemish male and 1 Dutch female. With the age-bracket extended to ±1, she scored 5 additional full recognitions (1 Flemish female, 2 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males). In terms of assessment of the speakers, participant 1MA4 rated the females and the Flemish more favorably on 4 characteristics (Flemish females 2.83, Dutch females 3.08, Flemish males

3.25 and Dutch males 3.33). In the second task, she rated Flemish speakers more favorably overall than their Dutch peers.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 1MA4 recognized 8 out of the 12 speakers in terms of the language variety they used (2 Flemish females, all 3 Flemish males, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male) and rated Dutch speakers higher than Flemish ones on the 4 characteristics in question 3 (Dutch females 2.75, Dutch males 3.17, Flemish males 3.42 and Flemish females 3.50). In the second task, participant 1MA4 rated Flemish speakers more favorably overall than Dutch ones.

Participant 1MA4's ratings in the questionnaire are either identical or very close to being exactly the same. The ones in parts two and three show no patterns.

Participant 1MA5 was a 24-year-old female. In addition to Dutch (4 years), she had been learning English (6 years) and German (3 years), with self-reported proficiency at 2 and 4. Both English and German were learned through lessons with a teacher, traveling to target-language communities, watching, listening and reading in the target language, and contacts with native speakers.

From the first part of the questionnaire it is clear she read and watched in Dutch/Flemish, for which she gave a different order of the reasons. In the case of reading, the order was: to expand vocabulary, for work (an option she added herself), for pleasure and to get to know the culture. For watching the order was: to expand vocabulary), to get to know the culture and for pleasure. As for details, she read books, articles on the internet and some printed press as well as information needed for work (an option she added herself), and watched the news, films and commercials. She did not listen to anything in Dutch/Flemish. She knew at least one person from the Netherlands but did not keep in touch with them. She did not know anybody from Flanders. She had also been to the Netherlands 4 times – twice for 2 months, once for a week and once for 3 days. She had never been to Flanders. Both Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch scored the same mean of 2.2 on the five characteristics in questions 7 and 8. The answer to questions 9 and 10 was 'Netherlandic Dutch', the reasons being connected with the sound of this variety as well as her future plans connected with traveling and possibly moving to the Netherlands.

In the second part of the questionnaire, the Flemish received slightly more favorable ratings than the Dutch (with mean score of 2.611 and 2.778 respectively). When the results obtained in questions 1 and 2 as well as 3 and 4 (characteristics vs.

definitions) are compared, it becomes clear that student 1MA5 was a bit inconsistent in her answers when rating the Dutch but rather consistent when assessing the Flemish.

In the first task of session two of the study, participant 1MA5 had 19 correct recognitions on the varieties (4 Flemish females, 5 Flemish males, 5 Dutch females and 5 Dutch males), 3 recognitions on all 3 variables (2 Flemish females and 1 Dutch female), and 5 further recognitions on all 3 variables with the age-brackets extended by ±1 (1 Flemish female, 1 Flemish male, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male). Females and Dutch speakers were assessed slightly more favorably on the 4 characteristics in question 4 (Dutch females scored 2.0, Flemish females 2.08, Dutch males 2.46, Flemish males 2.83). In the second task, participant 1MA5 assessed the Dutch more favorably than the Flemish.

In the first task of session three of the study, this participant recognized the variety used by 11 speakers, only misidentifying 1 Flemish female. Again, the Dutch speakers were rated more favorably on the 4 characteristics in question 3 – Dutch females 2.42, Dutch males and Flemish males 2.58, and Flemish females 2.83. These ratings, however, were not consistent with how she assessed the Dutch and the Flemish in the second task, where the Flemish received more favorable scores.

Participant 1MA5's ratings on Netherlandic and Belgian Dutch in the first part of the questionnaire and the Dutch and the Flemish in the second part were similar if not identical but achieved through different distribution of the scoring. For instance, her scores in questions 7 (one 1, two 2s and three 3s) and 8 (two 1s and three 3s) gave the same mean score of 2.2.

Participant 1MA6, 24 years of age, had been studying Dutch for 5 years and claimed to know 3 other foreign languages – English (13 years), French (5 months) and Spanish (2 years), with self-reported proficiency at 2, 5 and 5 respectively. He (had) learned English through lessons with a teacher, watching, listening and reading in the target language, contacts with native speakers and contacts with students of English (an option he added himself), French through lessons with a teacher and watching, listening and reading in the target language, and Spanish through lessons with a teacher, traveling to target-language communities, watching, listening and reading in the target language as well as contacts with native speakers.

In the first part of the questionnaire, respondent 1MA6 indicated he read, watched and listened in Dutch/Flemish. He read articles in the press and on the internet as well as books, with the reasons ranked as follows: to get to know the culture, for pleasure and

to expand vocabulary. He watched news programs, films, commercials, quizzes and documentaries, with the reasons ranked as follows: to expand vocabulary, for pleasure and to get to know the culture. He listened to informative programs, talks and interviews, quizzes and music programs, with the reasons ranked as follows: for pleasure, to get to know the culture and to expand vocabulary. He knew at least 1 person from the Netherlands and kept in touch with them through communicators, e-mails, text messages and visits. He did not know anybody from Flanders. He had been to the Netherlands 3 times (once for 2 days, once for 3 weeks and once for over 2 months). When asked to express his language preferences in questions 7 and 8, he rated Belgian Dutch, with a mean score of 1.8, more favorably than Netherlandic Dutch (2.2). This was in line with his answers in questions 9 and 10, where he expressed a clear preference for Belgian Dutch, stating he preferred the sound of it and its pronunciation.

In the second part of the questionnaire, he expressed a more positive attitude towards the Flemish (with a mean score of 2.389 versus 2.611 for the Dutch). He saw the Flemish as emotional and patriotic but rather closed, insecure and unpragmatic, and the Dutch as kind and self-confident but rather reserved. In terms of adjective-definition comparisons, student 1MA6 was quite inconsistent, for example on sincere vs. insincere, emotional vs. reserved, and patriotic vs. unpatriotic for the Dutch.

In the first task of session two of the study, this participant scored 16 on variety recognition (4 Flemish females, 2 Flemish males, 5 Dutch females and 5 Dutch male), 1 on full recognitions (1 Dutch female) and an additional 6 on full recognitions with the age-bracket extended by ±1 (2 Flemish females, 1 Flemish male, 2 Dutch females and 1 Dutch male). His ratings of the speakers in question 4 were not consistent with the findings from session one of the study, with both Dutch groups receiving more favorable scores –Dutch females 1.88, Dutch males 2.17, Flemish females 2.33 and Flemish males 2.50. The same is true for the results of the second task, where again he expressed a preference for speakers of Netherlandic Dutch.

In the first task of session three of the study, student 1MA6 scored 8 recognitions (of 2 Flemish males, 1 Flemish male, all 3 Dutch females and 2 Dutch males). This time, however, Flemish speakers received more favorable ratings on the 4 characteristics – Dutch females 2.17, Flemish females 2.42, Flemish females 2.67 and Dutch males 3.25. The scores in the second task are again indicative of a preference for Belgian Dutch.

Even though participant 1MA6 marked ‘no’ when answering the question whether he kept in touch with the person or people he knew from the Netherlands, he then filled

in the following question on the type of contact. In a debriefing interview he explained he had made a mistake and should have marked ‘yes’ instead, which is why type of contact has been taken into account in the analysis.