Scripta Neophilologica Posnaniensia. Tom XI, strony: 87–102
Wydział Neofilologii, UAM, Poznań 2011

EXTRAVERSION/ INTROVERSION AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE SPEAKING SKILLS

MAGDALENA POSPIESZYŃSKA-WOJTKOWIAK

1. Introduction – a few words on the extraversion/introversion division

The extraversion-introversion division, a basic dimension first proposed by Carl Jung, is regarded as the most valuable for the education field since through numerous studies researchers tried to determine the facility with which people can learn (Wade and Travis, 1990).

Briefly, we may say that the extraversion-introversion dimension includes such traits as being talkative or silent, sociable or reclusive, outgoing or shy (Child, 1986). As can be seen in the table below, the following characteristics can be attributed to the two types:

Table 1. The differences between introverts and extraverts

INTROVERTS	EXTRAVERTS
• are more able to concentrate for longer periods (they have longer spans of attention)	• have difficulties in maintaining interest in what can be considered a boring task
• are not inhibited by routine tasks	• are more inhibited by routine (repetitive and lengthy) tasks
• enjoy bookish and conceptual pursuits (do not mind problem solving tasks), are vigilant in mechanical tasks	• enjoy more communicative and social tasks, are less rigid or persistent

Extraverts are people-oriented and they express emotions outwardly. They tend to put their ideas into action without a lot of thought about the results of the actions and they get their energy from interaction with people and the external world. Extraverted students learn by explaining things to others. They are not certain whether they understood the subject or not until they try to explain it. They enjoy working in groups. On the other hand, introverts hide their emotions rather than express them outwardly. They are more concerned with cause and analysis of an action. They prefer working on their own to collective learning/studying. Introverts are said to get their energy from themselves, as too much interaction drains their energy. Introverts learn new material through interconnecting bits of information and seeing the 'big picture'. They are much quieter than extraverts and, unlike them, they like working alone as they are interested in fewer interactions but with greater depth and focus, because their energy is primarily directed inwards, towards their own perceptions and thoughts. Introverts are not as active, expressive or social as extraverts. They are less talkative and they do not enjoy thinking out loud or explaining things face to face as they would rather seek solitude and value reflection in their scholastic pursuits (Brightman, Silverman, 1986). However, tests showed that people almost never possess either 100 percent of introversion or 100 percent of extraversion, and the majority of us can be 'classified' as *ambiverts* who combine the characteristics of both groups, who are sometimes more directed outward and sometimes inward. Ambiverts usually adjust more easily to problematic situations and are quite successful dealing with other people (Sperling, 1995).

A number of studies on personality features showed that extraverted adolescents become more proficient in oral fluency more quickly than introverted ones, and there is a positive relationship between being sociable or outgoing (extraverts' traits) and communicative skills. This can also be applicable to children since other studies showed that talkative, outgoing and adaptable English speaking children were more fluent than the quiet, reserved and conformist ones, who were much slower (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). A study on Japanese learners of English showed that introverts tended to have higher scores on the reading and grammar components of a standardized English test. On the other hand, the same study revealed that junior college males with tendencies toward extraversion obtained better scores during the oral interview tasks. Extraversion may also correlate positively with the length of time a FL student spends while studying the language abroad, in an English speaking country (ibid.). However, extraversion itself cannot be treated as a direct reason for being proficient but just a motive, a drive that encourages learners. In the classroom situation, not in the FL natural environment, it is actually extraverts who seem to

be more likely at a disadvantage in academic pursuits as they are not as laborious, persistent and patient learners as introverts are.

Studies on personality traits affecting language performance show that when a natural communicative language is to be acquired, a clear relationship could be established between extraversion and performance, but when a linguistic task is to be assessed such a relationship does not occur (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991).

Concluding, extraverts will be active participants in classroom exercises, usually having a lot to say on a given topic and thinking aloud – which teachers may occasionally find disruptive. On the other hand, extraverts will be born leaders ready to take control over an activity and a group of peer-students they are working with. Impulsive and ready to learn by trial and error, they may feel bored and disinterested when a task appears to be too long or exhausting. Concentration will definitely not be their strong point.

Timid and shy introverts are usually poor performers in class, as they are afraid to speak in public, unless they know the audience well. At first they may seem 'slow' or less intelligent and apt as they are not that energetic and impulsive as extraverts are. They would strongly value having an opportunity to think something over before saying or performing it. They are not gregarious or extensively companionable, but if somebody else, peer-student(s) or the teacher, shares their interests they are able to build and develop friendly bonds. Concentration is their virtue, but if they do not have to, if it is not an obligatory classroom or syllabus task, they would rather not work in pairs or groups. Individual studying is what they value most.

As Ehrman and Oxford (1993) report, the E-I preference does not influence learning success in small, relatively stable classes. Yet, in big groups extraverts are at an advantage because they are not inhibited or anxious to speak. Nonetheless, it is not at all obvious that extraverts will be at an advantage in natural language use settings. By natural language setting we may understand only a few native speakers (interlocutors) and in such a language exposure situation, provided they know the audience, introverts can perform well too. In such situations, extraverts can only outdo introverts by making contacts with native speakers more frequently and more readily.

Introverts may often favour intuition. And if introverts are also intuitive students, they will prefer open-ended classroom activities such as taking part in discussions or simulations. They will not be confined to one task at a time and while doing activities they will prefer to learn inductively, finding the patterns or rules by themselves. Since intuitive students like to see the so-called 'big-picture', they may value contextual studying via different forms of simulations, e.g. role-plays.

2. The features, factors and functions related to speaking

Many researchers underline the difficult 'role' which the speaking skill plays in Foreign Language Acquisition process. Dakowska (2007: 233) pinpoints that this difficulty results from the following needs:

– the need to perform hierarchical operations, especially at the level of communicative intention; first and foremost, deciding what to say;
– the need to integrate these operations in fractions of seconds to keep pace with the demands of communicative fluency;
– the need to do this primarily in the working memory and relying primarily on one's internal (mental) auditory representations.

When people speak – unlike to the situation when people write – they usually do not do it in sentences. Spoken language tends to consist of utterances built with 'idea units' (Buck, 2001: 9), namely short phrases or clauses loosely connected giving an impression of being totally ungrammatical. Since the speaker's utterance is constructed in real time it frequently lacks the preparation time to organise and control the flow of speech. Spoken language is rather connected by the coherence of the idea units mentioned above than by any formal grammar.

Traditionally, all foreign language skills were divided into: *receptive* – listening and reading and: *productive* – writing and speaking. Recently, the speaking skill has been regarded as the one whose development contributes to transfer to the remaining skills (Bygate, 2001). Many a method emphasised its importance in gaining competence in a foreign language. Being, in its nature, so difficult to success in, especially in a classroom situation, it has been treated as the most fundamental skill to (pre-)occupy with both by the teacher and the learner.

A typical classroom spoken interaction involves the teacher and the learner talking to each other. They, interchangeably, become both speakers and listeners building the (spoken) event together and sharing the right to affect the results – which can be either mutual or/ and individual (Luoma, 2004: 20). This cooperation between the speaker and the listener is called the cooperative principle (Buck, 2001: 24) and Grice (1975) worked out four maxims governing this cooperation in communicative interaction:

– the maxim of quantity (the speaker gives sufficient information but not too much);
– the maxim of quality (the speaker says only what he knows to be true);
– the maxim of relation (the speaker says what is relevant);
– the maxim of manner (the speaker is brief, clear and avoids ambiguity).

When people communicate their goal is meaning – not only the informative meaning (what happened) but also attitudinal meaning (what the speaker

thinks about the topic), expertise meaning (the speaker's knowledge about the history of the topic), and/ or judgement meaning (the speaker's view or views about what may happen next).

Similarly to the fact that there are different kinds of meaning(s) involved in the speaker's intention, there are basically two purposes of the speech act. First, we talk to chat and secondly we talk to share information (Brown et al., 1984). What is even more, both chatting and information giving (and getting) may occur within one spoken event. As Luoma (2004: 22) put it: "information related talk often comes sandwiched between social chat, and a social chat can easily turn into a serious discussion". Brown et al. (1984) define chatting as the exchange of friendly conversational turns with other people whose basic purpose is to commence and to maintain social contact(s) via creating an amicable atmosphere. The authors (ibid.) agree that chatting in the speaker's first language is related to personality/individuality matters as not everybody is a (socially) skilled 'chatterbox'. Chatting in a foreign language is a slightly different case that is why teachers should pay attention to particular features which a – more or less – natural chatting involves, namely: personal matters, social behaviour, cultural events etc. When we talk to inform we usually transfer information and the most essential thing is to get the message across and make sure that the listener understands it. "Establishing common ground, giving the information in bite-sized chunks, logical progression, questions, repetitions and comprehension checks help speakers reach this aim" (Luoma, 2004: 23).

Assessing oral skills reliably is a difficult thing. The student's performance is being judged in real time, face-to-face, frequently not only between the learner and the interlocutor but also with one or two assessors accompanying to make the whole process more reliable. The assessor(s) usually must concentrate upon such aspects of the language as pronunciation, accuracy (grammar and vocabulary) and fluency; and they may be equipped with special evaluation scales with more or less detailed lists of criteria to be taken into account while evaluating, or the assessor(s) can grade the whole utterance globally – at a holistic level.

Pronunciation is the first thing that strikes the listener's (interlocutor's/ assessor's, teacher's, etc.) ears. Luoma (2004: 11) calls pronunciation more broadly – the *sound of speech* because it refers to many items of the speech stream – not only individual segmental elements but also stress, intonation, tones, pitch, volume and speed.

Another vital part in assessing speaking is accuracy of the utterance with an emphasis on grammar and lexicon. If (whether good or bad) pronunciation is the first thing that strikes the listener's ears, grammar is undoubtedly the first thing to be assessed as an undeniable proof of students' progress or lack of it (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 38–41). Luoma (2004: 12) concludes in a

similar vein: "Learner grammar is handy for judging proficiency because it is easy to detect in speech (...), and because the fully fledged grammars of most languages are well known and available for use as performance standards". Nonetheless, spoken grammar is much different from what we usually regard as standard forms, people usually do not speak in sentences, instead they produce utterances called idea units (cf. Buck, 2001; Luoma, 2004) joined – or not – by conjunctions or short pauses and hesitation. Spoken grammar is not that complex (or proficient) as written grammar. "Idea units are therefore (...) about two seconds or about seven words long, or shorter" (Chafe, 1985). Luoma (2004) notes that generally idea units are clauses which may contain a verb phrase, a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase – but almost hardly ever do they create a sentence; some of them may even not have a verb. What is even more, in real life conversations an idea unit may be started by one speaker and be completed by another. The structure of an utterance depends also on the fact whether the speech is planned or unplanned. In the case of planned speech, when students have time for both preparation and rehearsal (speeches, lectures, conference presentations, oral exams with the lists of topics given before, etc.), the speaker's grammar may be quite complex and their whole utterance may consist of fully-fledged sentences with a high degree of features identified with written language – which, in contrast, are absent in unplanned speech (cf. Ochs, 1979).

The situation looks similarly with vocabulary – in common everyday conversation (unplanned discourse), people do not tend to use very sophisticated lexical items but normal and simple words. However, in planned discourse (especially in oral exam situations) people may use very refined speech which may become one marker of advanced speaking skills (cf. Read, 2000), and there is usually a 'list' of words, phrases and expressions in every interlocutor's or/and assessor's head which puts the speaker in a good light and place him/her high at a fluency level. In spoken interactions people use words which are not very precise (*this/that one*, *good*, *move*, *put*, *fine*, *this/that thing*, *there*, etc.) but are present in almost every conversation due to their comprehensibility (*generic words*). Apart from generic words, speakers also use the so-called *vague words* (like: *thing*, *whatsit*, *something*) when they cannot bring back the word they need to say (cf. Channel, 1994); fillers, fixed phrases and hesitation markers – Hasselgren (1998) calls them *smallwords* – when the speakers want to delay time to speak. These are expressions like: *ah*, *oh*, *yeah*, *you see*, *you know*, *kind of*, *sort of*, *I think*, *I guess*, *I mean*, *let me think*, *let me see* and repetitions, reformulations, repeating the interlocutor's questions/phrases, etc. (cf. Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Pawley and Syder, 1983). The use of the words and phrases mentioned above are characteristic of the speaker's fluency and proficiency in the foreign language (Hasselgren, 1998; Nikula, 1996; Towel et al., 1996).

Yet another difficult, and perhaps the most difficult, thing to precise and assess in oral evaluation is fluency. As Luoma (2004: 88–89) observes (cf. Freed, 1995; Koponen, 1995; Lennon, 1990):

> *Fluency is a thorny issue in assessing speaking. This is partly because the word 'fluency' has* [*both*] *a general meaning, as in 'she is fluent in five languages', and a technical meaning when applied linguists use it to characterise a learner's speech.*

More about fluency understood as a pragmatic skill and conversational strategy can be found in Bardovi-Harlig (1999; *Council of Europe* 2001: 123–129; Hasselgren, 1998; House, 1996; Kasper, 1996 and 2001; Kärkkäinen, 1992, and Salsbury and Bardovi-Harlig, 2000).

3. The study

For the purpose of the study 299 first, second and third year students from Konin and Kalisz (87 men and 212 women) were chosen – the percentages are shown in Figures 9 and 10 below.

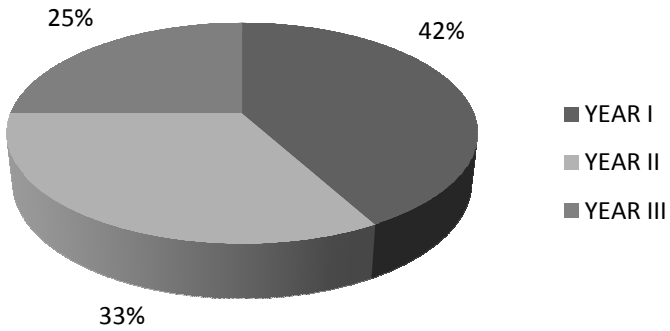

Fig. 1. Students' participation in the research according to year of study

The majority of subjects were first year students (42%), 33% were second year students, and 25% were third year students.

There are more groups in Kalisz, hence more students from this city participated in the research study – 59%, and 41% students came from Konin. In the table below, the students' participation is presented with respect both to city and year of study.

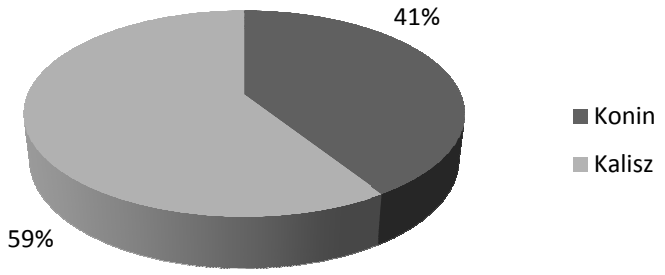

Fig. 2. Students' participation in the research according to city

Table 2. Students' participation according to city and year of study

City	Year of Study	Number	%
Konin	I rok	50	40.3
	II rok	40	32.3
	III rok	34	27.4
Kalisz	I rok	75	42.9
	II rok	60	34.3
	III rok	40	22.9

As can be seen from Table 2 above, there were 125 first year students (50 from Konin and 75 from Kalisz); 100 second year students (40 from Konin and 60 from Kalisz); and 74 third year students (34 from Konin and 40 from Kalisz). These were both daily and extramural students.

The author's translation of The R.L. Oxford's Style Analysis Survey (SAS) was used for assessing the features of extraversion and introversion. The SAS is designed to assess students' individual differences as general approaches to learning (learning styles). It is not, and cannot be, used to predict students' behaviour in every instance, but is an indication of students' overall preference (Oxford 1993). The whole questionnaire contains five major activities representing five different aspects of learning styles, but for the purpose of this study the author used only Activity 2 – *How I deal with other people* – consisting of 20 sentences (ten describing extraversion and ten introversion). For each sentence/ item, the student was to circle his/ her immediate response on an ordinal scale: 0 = Never, 1 = Sometimes, 2 = Very often, 3 = Always (see Appendix 7).

The Assessment of the subjects' spoken abilities was gathered in June 2008 during the oral part of PEE (Practical English Exam), where spoken as-

sessment was divided into four parts: pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and fluency, and graded separately. Each student was evaluated by three teachers (one interlocutor and two assessors) who had to agree on the grade (the so-called: *ocena sędziów kompetentnych*). The maximum number of points for each aspect of oral attainment was each year or even group – see the table below.

Table 3. The maximum number of points to gain in oral evaluation of PEE-OP

MAXIMUM NUMBER OF POINTS FOR SPEAKING EVALUATION					
		Pronunciation	Grammar	Vocabulary	Fluency
YEAR ONE	daily	**15**	**10**	**10**	**10**
	extramural	**10**	**15**	**10**	**10**
YEAR TWO	daily	**10**	**15**	**10**	**10**
	extramural	**5**	**15**	**15**	**10**
YEAR THREE	daily	**10**	**10**	**15**	**10**
	extramural	**5**	**10**	**15**	**15**

In total, each student could gain 45 points but the number of points for particular aspect of speaking – pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and fluency – was different for year of study and group (daily/extramural). For the purpose of the research study, the author had the raw results mathematically converted and brought to the scale of I year of study, namely: maximum 15 points for pronunciation, 10 for grammar, 10 for vocabulary and 10 for fluency. The scale converting consisted in devising a simple mathematical formula, e.g.

PRONUNCIATION

First Year = max. 15

Second Year = max. 10, so these 10 points are to be made 15, and 10/ 0.666 = 15 (with each single score for each subject). Analogically, when we want to convert 5 to 15: 5 × 3=15; when we want to 'change' 15 to 10: 15/ 1.5 = 10, and so on for extramural groups and other aspect – grammar, vocabulary and fluency.

The author formulated the following research question (**Q**):

Q: Do IDs influence oral attainment in a foreign language (English)?

On the basis of the research question above, the following hypotheses (H1, H2) were presented: **H1: Extraversion influences FL oral fluency; H2: Extraversion influences FL spoken grammar**. In order to verify the research hypotheses presented above, the author used specific variables divided into two

main groups – independent variables and dependent variables.The research independent variables were the features of extraversion and introversion from the SAS by R.L. Oxford: Extraversion/ introversion – PART II "How I deal with other people". The results obtained by the subjects in oral attainment are the dependent variables, and these are:

1. Pronunciation;
2. Grammar;
3. Vocabulary;
4. Fluency;
5. The total score (sum of the above).

In order to verify research hypotheses, the following statistical tools were used in the thesis:

1. Multiple Regression with Enter Method;
2. Mann-Whitney U Test.

Before using the regression analysis the following descriptive statistics were made for the variables (see the table below).

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for Regression Analysis

		N	M	SD
Individual Differences	**extraverted**	**299**	**15,8**	**4.8**
	introverted	**299**	**10,9**	**4.9**
Oral attainment	pronunciation	299	9,8	2.3
	grammar	299	6,8	1.7
	vocabulary	299	6,9	1.3
	fluency	299	7,7	1.5
	total score	299	31,4	5.5

(N = number, M = mean, SD = standard deviation)

3.1. The Regression Analysis

3.1.1. Pronunciation analysis

The regression analysis was carried out where pronunciation was a dependent variable and individual differences (extraversion/introversion) were independent variables. The analysis showed a statistically significant model: $F(11, 287) = 1.953$; $p < 0.05$. The model explains 3.4% of the observed variance of the dependent variable (adjusted $R^2 = 0.034$).

The descriptive statistics for the pronunciation predictors are presented in the table below.

It turned out that in the model presented above, neither extraversion nor introversion does predict the results in oral attainment for pronunciation.

Table 5. Pronunciation predictors

Predictor	Beta	t-test	Significance
extraverted	–0.129	–1.422	–
introverted	–0.102	–1.294	–

3.1.2. Grammar analysis

The regression analysis was made where grammar was a dependent variable and individual differences were independent variables. The analysis showed a statistically significant model: $F(11, 287) = 4.292$; $p < 0.01$. The model explains 10.8% of the observed variance of the dependent variable (adjusted $R^2 = 0.108$).

The descriptive statistics for the grammar predictors are presented in the table below. Statistically significant results are in bold.

Table 6. Grammar predictors

Predictor	Beta	t-test	Significance
extraverted	**–0.245**	**–2.813**	**p < 0.01**
introverted	–0.084	–1.103	

It turned out that in the model presented above, extraversion is a significant independent variable: Beta= -0.245; t=-2.813; p<.01. It means that extraversion predicts the results in oral attainment for grammar, namely extraverted learners obtain worse results (Beta is negative). Moreover, hypothesis 2 turned out to be true because extraversion does predict the level of oral attainment for grammar.

3.1.3. Vocabulary analysis

The regression analysis was carried out where vocabulary was a dependent variable and individual differences were independent variables. The analysis showed a statistically significant model: $F(11, 287) = 3.977$; $p < 0.01$. The model

explains 9.9% of the observed variance of the dependent variable (adjusted $R^2 = 0.099$).

The descriptive statistics for the vocabulary predictors are presented in the table below. Statistically significant results are in bold.

Table 7. Vocabulary predictors

Predictor	Beta	t-test	Significance
extraverted	**–0.252**	**–2.874**	**p < 0.01**
introverted	**–0.211**	**–2.759**	**p < 0.01**

It turned out that in the model presented above, both extraversion and introversion are significant independent variables: extraversion: Beta = –0.252; t = –2.874; p < 0.01, introversion: Beta = –0.211; t = –2.759; p < 0.01. It means that such individual features as extraversion and introversion together predict the results in oral attainment for vocabulary. There is no difference between extroverted and introverted learners, as for both groups a decrease in vocabulary results were noted (Beta negative).

3.1.4. Fluency analysis

The regression analysis was made where fluency was a dependent variable and individual differences were independent variables. The analysis showed a statistically significant model: F (11, 287) = 2.275; p < 0.05. The model explains 4.5% of the observed variance of the dependent variable (adjusted $R^2 = 0.045$).

The descriptive statistics for the fluency predictors are presented in the table below. Statistically significant results are in bold.

Table 8. Fluency predictors

Predictor	Beta	t-test	Significance
extraverted	**–0.184**	**–2.041**	**p < 0.05**
introverted	–0.129	–1.636	

3.1.5. Total score analysis

The regression analysis was carried out where the total score (the sum of: pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and fluency) was a dependent variable and individual differences were independent variables. The analysis showed a statis-

tically significant model: $F(11, 287) = 3.898$; $p < 0.01$. The model explains 9.7% of the observed variance of the dependent variable (adjusted $R^2 = 0.097$).

The descriptive statistics for the fluency predictors are presented in the table below. Statistically significant results are in bold.

Table 9. Total score predictors

Predictor	Beta	t-test	Significance
extraverted	**–0.239**	**–2.728**	**p < 0.01**
introverted	–0.144	–1.876	

It turned out that in the model presented above, extraversion is a significant independent variable: extraversion: Beta = –0.239; t = –2.728; p < 0.01. It means that extraversion predicts the results in total oral attainment in a foreign language. The more the subjects scored on extraversion the lower their results were for total oral attainment (Beta negative).

3.2. Group comparative analyses: dealing with other people: extraversion/introversion group analysis

The comparative analysis was made for the extraverted and introverted subject groups. Due to huge disproportions in number of people in the two groups (extraverts: N = 212 and introverts: N = 64), a non-parametric equivalent of student t-test was used – Mann-Whitney U test. The descriptive statistics for the analysis are presented in the table below. Statistically significant results are in bold.

Table 10. Descriptive statistics for extraverted-introverted students group analysis

	Extraverted			**Introverted**		
	N	**M**	**SD**	**N**	**M**	**SD**
pronunciation	212	9.8	2.25	64	10.1	2.58
grammar	**212**	**6.7**	**1.73**	**64**	**7.3**	**1.61**
vocabulary	212	6.8	1.28	64	7.2	1.37
fluency	212	7.7	1.52	64	7.8	1.63
total score	212	31.0	5.42	64	32.6	6.05

The analysis made using Mann-Whitney U test as a statistical tool displayed a statistically significant difference in oral attainment for grammar: $U = 5206.0$; $p < 0.01$. It means that introverts obtained better results during PEE-OP for the (spoken) grammar component (extraverts: $M = 6.7$; $SD = 1.73$ and introverts: $M = 7.3$; $SD = 1.61$) – see Figure 3 below.

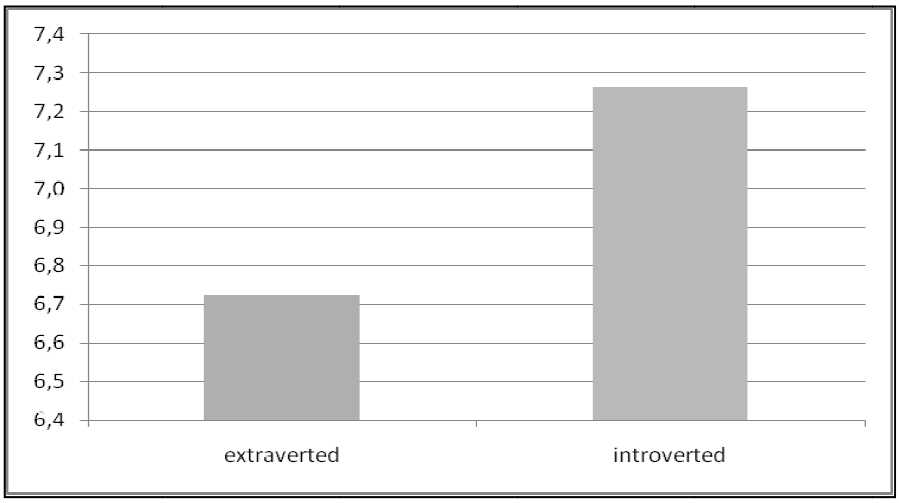

Figure 3. Extraverted and introverted students PEE-oral part results for grammar

4. Conclusions

Hypothesis 1 (H1: Extraversion influences FL oral fluency) proved to be true, because extraversion does predict the level of oral attainment for fluency. Surprisingly, the more the subjects scored on extraversion the lower their results were in terms of fluency. Hypothesis 2 (H2: Extraversion influences FL spoken grammar) proved to be true, too, as extraversion does predict the level of oral attainment for grammar, namely extraverted learners obtained poor results – Beta negative.

Although H1 turned out to be true, the results may seem quite astonishing, as it occurred in the study that extraverts, who are usually believed to be more fluent than introverts, obtained poor grades for this component, namely, the more the subjects scored on extraversion the lower their results for fluency were (Regression Analysis). Regrettably, we may not conclude that extraverts were worse than introverts, because the results for introverted subjects were not statistically significant. Hypothesis 2 turned out to be true, too. Not surprisingly, ex-

traversion predicted the level of oral attainment in (spoken) grammar, in the way that, the more the subjects scored on extraversion the lower their grades were in grammar.

References

Bardowi-Harlig, K. 1999. "Exploring the interlanguage of interlanguage pragmatics: A research agenda for acquisitional pragmatics". *Language Learning* 49. 677–713.

Bouton, L. and Y. Kachru (eds.). 1992. *Pragmatics and language learning*. Vol. 3. Urbana-Champaign, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Brightman, H.J. *Student learning and the Myers-Briggs type indicator*. Internet Site: http://www.gsu.edu/~dschj

Brown, G., A. Anderson, R. Schilcock and G. Yule. 1984. *Teaching talk*: *strategies for production and assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Buck, G. 2001. *Assessing listening*. *Cambridge language assessment series*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bygate, M. 2002. "Speaking". In: Carter, R. and D. Nunan. (eds.). 14–20.

Carter, R. and D. Nunan. (eds.). 2002. *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chafe, W.L. 1985. "Linguistic differences produced by differences between speaking and writing". In: Olsen, D.R. et al. (eds.). 105–23.

Channel, J. 1994. *Vague language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Child, D. 1986. 4th ed. *Psychology and the teacher*. Chatham, Kent: Holt Rinchart.

Cole, P. and J. Morgan. (eds.). 1975. *Syntax and semantics*: *vol*. *3*. *Speech acts*. New York: Academic Press.

Council of Europe. 2001. *Common European framework of reference for languages: learning*, *teaching*, *assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dakowska, M. 2007. *Teaching English as a foreign language*. *A guide for professionals*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Freed, B. 1995. "What makes us think that students who study abroad become fluent?". In: Freed, B. (ed.). 123–48.

Freed, B. (ed.). 1995. *Second language acquisition in a study abroad context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Givón, T. (ed.). 1979. *Syntax and semantics*. *Vol*. *12*. *Discourse and syntax*. New York: Academic Press.

Grice, H.P. 1975. "Logic and conversation". In: Cole., P. and J. Morgan. (eds.). 41–58.

Hasselgren, A. 1998. *Smallwords and valid testing*. Unpublished PhD thesis. Bergen, Norway: University of Bergen.

House, J. 1996. "Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language: routines and metapragmatic awareness". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 18. 225–52.

Kärkäinen, E. 1992. "Modality as a strategy in interaction: epistemic modality in the language of native and non-native speakers of English". In: Bouton, L. and Y. Kachru. (eds.). 197–216.

Kasper, G. 1996. "Introduction: interlanguage pragmatics in SLA". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 18. 145–148.

Kasper, G. 2001. "Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development". *Applied Linguistics* 22.4. 502–530.

Koponen, M. 1995. "Let your language and thoughts flow! Is there a case for 'fluency' in ELT and applied linguistics?". Paper presented at the Language Testing Forum, Newcastle, UK. November 1995.

Larsen-Freeman, D. and M.H. Long. 1991. *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. New York: Longman.

Lennon, P. 1990. "Investigating fluency in EFL: a quantitative approach". *Language Learning* 40.3. 387–417.

Luoma, S. 2004. *Assessing speaking*. *Cambridge language assessment series*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nattinger, J. and J. DeCarrico. 1992. *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nikula, T. 1996. *Pragmatic force modifiers*: *a study in interlanguage pragmatics*. Unpublished PhD thesis. Jyväskylä, Finland: University of Jyväskylä.

Ochs, E. 1979. "Planned and unplanned discourse". In: Givón, T. (ed.). 133–161.

Olsen, D.R., N. Torrance and A. Hilyard. (eds.). 1985. *Literacy*, *language and learning: the nature and consequences of reading and writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R.L. 1995. "Style Analysis Survey (SAS): assessing your own learning and working styles". In: Reid, J.M. (ed.). 208–215.

Pawley, A. and F.H. Syder. 1983. "Two puzzles for linguistic theory: nativelike selection and nativelike fluency". In: Richards, J.C. and R.W. Schmidt. (eds.).

Reid, J.M. (ed.). 1995. *Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Read, J.M. 2000. *Assessing vocabulary*. *Cambridge language assessment series*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. and R.W. Schmidt. (eds.). 1983. *Language and communication*. London: Longman.

Salsbury, T. and K. Bardovi-Harlig. 2000. "Oppositional talk and the acquisition of modality in L2 English". In: Swiertzbin, B. et al. (eds.). 56–76.

Silverman, L.K. 1986. "Parenting young gifted children". In: Whitmore, J.R. (ed.). 55–72.

Sperling, A.P. 1995. *Psychologia*. Poznań: Zysk i S-ka.

Swiertzbin, B., F. Morris, M. Anderson, C.A. Klee and E. Tarone. (eds.). 2000. *Social and cognitive factors in second language acquisition*. Sommerville, Mass.: Cascadilla Press.

Towell, R., R. Hawkins and N. Bazergui. 1996. "The development of fluency in advanced learners of French". *Applied Linguistics* 17. 84–119.

Wade, C. and C. Travis. 1990. 2nd ed. *Psychology*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers Inc.

Whitmore, J.R. (ed.). 1986. *Intellectual giftedness in young children*. New York: The Haworth Press.