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Assessing versus Achieving: if you think you can('t), can('t) you do it?

van der Boom, Joanne

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Assessing versus Achieving: if you think you can('t), can('t) you do it?

A survey about the self-assessment of language [Drents dialect] in relation to language proficiency of high school students in Drenthe



Joanne van der Boom

Wetenschapswinkel Taal, Cultuur en Communicatie

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• P e r s o n a l i a •

Name: Joanne van der Boom

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Student number: S2601877

University: Rijksuniversiteit Groningen
Program: ReMa Language and Cognition

Supervisor: dr. C.S. Gooskens
Second accessor: dr. J. Duarte
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• B a b y l o n •

Aol Jannes die weur honderd jaor,
En d'oomzeggers kwamen daor.

Want Jannes hef as vrijgezel,
Gien kinder, dat begriep je wel.
Maor och, het gung daor niet zo glad,
Want Jannes die prat enkelt plat.

En nicht Jolanda, good gebekt,
Die hold zuk an het dialect.
Neef Gezienus leut bij dit gebeuren,
Zuk enkelt in de streektaol heuren.
Toen gung al gauw het praotie rond,
“t Liekt hier verduld wel Babylon.”



VOORWOORD

Het gedicht op de voorpagina zegt het al: 't Liekt hier verduid wel Babylon'. Maar wat betekent dat eigenlijk? Als we teruggrijpen naar de Bijbel staat daar het volgende in vermeld:

“De gehele aarde nu was één van taal en één van spraak. En de Here zeide: ‘Zie, het is één volk en zij allen hebben één taal. Dit is het begin van hun streven, nu zal niets van wat zij denken te doen voor hen onuitvoerbaar zijn. Welaan, laat Ons nederdalen en daar hun taal verwarren, zodat zij elkanders taal niet verstaan.’ Zo verstrooide de Here hen vandaar over de gehele aarde, en zij staakten de bouw van de stad. Daarom noemt men haar Babel, omdat de Here daar de taal der gehele aarde verward heeft en de Here hen vandaar over de gehele aarde verstrooid heeft.” (Gen. 11:1, 11:6-11:9, Oude Testament).

Het lijkt erop dat een taal door meerdere mensen verschillend kan worden uitgelegd. Het gedicht laat zien dat Jannes vindt dat hij plat praat, Jolanda alleen in dialect spreekt en Gezienus zich puur in streektaal uit. Als we kijken naar het Nederlands, standaardtaal in Nederland, dan zien we dat voor deze taal vaste regels voor de communicatie en spelling zijn vastgelegd. Deze vaste structuur is er in het dialect veel minder: enerzijds omdat het een kleinere groep mensen betreft die deze taal machtig is en er dus een kleinere communicatieradius voor deze taal is, anderzijds omdat de structuur van het dialect minder gesloten is dan het Nederlands (wat kan zorgen voor onderlinge verschillen in een taalgebied). Dit kan onderling zorgen voor grote verwarring, vandaar dat in het gedicht een verwijzing naar Babylon wordt gemaakt: de plek waar, volgens de Bijbel, de grote verwarring der talen begon. Het feit dat slechts een kleinere groep mensen het dialect spreekt, zorgt echter ook vaak voor grote verbondenheid. Daarom wordt dialect vaak de taal van de emotie genoemd door de eigen gebruikers: zij voelen zich meer thuis in hun dialect dan in het formele, algemene Nederlands.

Deze thesis is geschreven vanuit de gedachte dat dialect voor alle leeftijdsgroepen toegankelijk is, maar daar niet overal van gebruik wordt gemaakt. De thesis richt zich op een doelgroep die de laatste jaren minder aandacht heeft gekregen: de middelbare scholieren in het vmbo-onderwijs. Er zal worden gekeken naar hun affiniteit met en houding ten opzichte van Drents dialect: hoe kijken zij tegen dialect aan? Voelen zij zich meer thuis in het dialect of neigen zij toch meer naar het standaard Nederlands? Wordt het Drents dialect onder jongeren geaccepteerd? Hoe zien zij de toekomst van het Drents voor zich? Is er behoefte aan meer structuur en aandacht (bijv. algemene Drentse les), zoals het Nederlands heeft? Middels deze thesis wordt getracht antwoord te geven op deze vragen.

Voordat ik van start ga, wil ik graag de ruimte nemen om een paar mensen in het bijzonder te bedanken. Allereerst: drs. S.J. Visser (beleidsmedewerker kennisbenutting aan de RUG) voor haar vertrouwen in mij om toe te treden tot dit project en haar hulp met het in goede banen leiden van de opstart van deze thesis. Mijn scriptiebegeleider, dr. C.S. Gooskens, wil ik bedanken voor het doorlezen van mijn scriptie en het aandragen van waardevolle suggesties. Daardoor is het onderwerp echt goed uit de verf gekomen. Ook wil ik J. Germs (en de rest van de medewerkers) van het Huus van de Taol bedanken voor hun ideeën, promotiemateriaal en vertrouwen. Vanuit de RUG en NHL Stenden wil ik o.a. dr. J. Duarte bedanken voor haar enthousiasme en ideeën voor het huidige project en het doorlezen van het eindproduct als tweede lezer. Verder: dank aan alle leerlingen, docenten en scholen die wilden deelnemen aan het onderzoek waardoor ik een rapport heb kunnen schrijven met resultaten die provincie-dekkend zijn. Als laatste wil ik mijn partner (alias mr. Positive) bedanken voor zijn onvoorwaardelijke steun en oneindige optimisme. Na vijf jaar is het eindelijk gedaan: afgestudeerd!

ABSTRACT

The aim of this thesis is to map the relationship between self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency in Drents dialect of high school students (vmbo basis/kader) in the province of Drenthe. Besides that, the thesis aims to demonstrate the dialect affinity of students and to provide useful recommendations of implementing Drents dialect in high school education in the future. The thesis is carried out with the help of a survey and consists of four parts: (1) the self-assessment grid in which students assess their dialect knowledge, (2) the language proficiency test in Drents dialect where they prove their language abilities, (3) their attitude towards dialects and the Dutch language and (4) the amount of input in various language domains was asked. The students are split into three groups for analysis: non-dialect-speakers, little dialect-speakers and full dialect-speakers. Non-dialect-speakers are included in the research for comparing their attitude towards the dialect and Dutch fragments in relation to the attitude of dialect-speakers. The results of the project show that students were aware of their own strengths and weaknesses considering Drents dialect: full dialect-speakers assessed themselves as 'proficient' users (highest level) while little dialect-speakers assessed themselves as 'independent' users (middle level). The results of the self-assessment grid did not match the language proficiency test completely, but the self-assessment grid proved a reliable measurement scale ($\alpha = 0.89$). The attitude of all students towards speakers in dialect and Dutch was generally the same: Dutch was assigned more modern and attractive than the dialects. However, the dialects were not assessed as 'silly' or 'funny' which indicated that the dialect-speakers were considered as full-fledged partners in conversation too. Last, students were asked if they saw a permanent place for dialect in education. Full dialect-speakers were thrilled with the idea of Drents dialect as regular course, but little dialect-speakers were less enthusiastic. Students might not be ready for Drents dialect as a prominent course of its own, but Drents dialect would benefit if merged with existing courses. In this way, students could slowly get used to the fact of Drents dialect being part of their education.

Keywords: Drents dialect, high school education, self-assessment, language proficiency, attitude

Het doel van deze thesis is het in kaart brengen van de relatie tussen de zelfinschatting van dialectkennis en daadwerkelijke taalvaardigheid in Drents dialect bij middelbare scholieren (vmbo basis/kader) in de provincie Drenthe. Daarnaast wordt de affiniteit van de scholieren met dialect gepeild en worden er aan het einde aanbevelingen gedaan voor het implementeren van Drents dialect op de middelbare school. Deze thesis is uitgevoerd met behulp van een vragenlijst, bestaande uit vier onderdelen: (1) stellingen met betrekking tot de zelfinschatting van dialectkennis, (2) een taalvaardigheidstest in Drents dialect, (3) een attitude onderdeel waar de houding van de scholieren ten opzichte van dialecten en het Nederlands wordt gemeten en (4) de domeinen waarin de scholieren in contact komen met dialect worden op een rij gezet. De scholieren worden gesplitst in drie groepen: scholieren die geen, een beetje of veel dialect spreken. De scholieren die geen dialect spreken zijn meegenomen in het onderzoek om hun houding ten opzichte van de dialecten en het Nederlands te kunnen vergelijken met de dialectsprekers. De resultaten laten zien dat scholieren goed in staat waren hun vaardigheden in te schatten: volledige dialectsprekers vonden hun kennis 'zeer vaardig' terwijl dialectsprekers (een beetje) hun kennis als 'middelmattig' inschatten. De zelfinschatting van de scholieren kwam niet geheel overeen met de scores van de taalvaardigheidstest: toch bleken de stellingen een betrouwbare maat voor het inschatten van dialectkennis ($\alpha = 0.89$). De houding van alle scholieren (met verschillende dialectachtergronden) was redelijk gelijk: het Nederlands werd door alle groepen hoger gewaardeerd dan de dialecten. Daarentegen werden de dialecten niet als 'dom' of 'grappig' beschouwd; het lijkt erop dat dialectsprekers toch als een volwaardig communicatiepartner worden gezien. Aan het einde werd aan de scholieren gevraagd of zij het Drents als schoolvak zouden zien. Dialectsprekers (veel) zagen dit wel voor zich, maar dialectsprekers (een beetje) vonden dit een minder goed idee. Het Drents zou wel een ervaring kunnen krijgen als het samengevoegd zou kunnen worden met bestaande vakken op de middelbare school. Op deze manier kunnen scholieren rustig aan het idee wennen dat Drents dialect bij hun cultuur en onderwijsprogramma hoort.

Trefwoorden: Drents dialect, middelbare school, zelfinschatting van kennis, taalvaardigheid, attitude

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1 Introduction

1.1 *Rationale*

If you enter 'Drents dialect' in the Google searching machine, you will find several examples, movies and articles about the origin, development and promotion of dialect within the province of Drenthe. For example, you will find a specially designed walking route to learn Drents in the beautiful scenery of Westerveld, comedians (such as Helligen Hendrik) who entertain people with their jokes in Drents dialect, the annual *Liedtiesfestival* 'songfestival' where musicians and text writers are challenged to write and perform a song in Drents dialect and a video of Hoogeveen's major who reads aloud to kids in elementary schools in Drents dialect. Considering the last example, a teaching method called 'Wiesneus' is available for elementary school students; the method focuses on the acquaintance of Drents dialect in a playful way (songs, stories, poems) for children from age 1 till 12. Also, a lot of projects for the students of the PABO¹ from NHL Stenden in Emmen are carried out for the promotion of dialect among students; they designed for example a bilingual picture book for elementary school students in Drents dialect before.

So, material is available for learners to get acquainted with and to learn Drents dialect, but there is currently no knowledge whether the methods and initiatives cause any effect on the (possible) progress in learning Drents dialect and the current position of Drents dialect as a language among these learners. Therefore, a way to examine these factors is certainly necessary to picture the vitality of the language among youth. However, no standardized tests are available to measure the progress and language proficiency of these children in Drents dialect. The question is whether it makes sense to develop a standardized test for measuring language proficiency in the future due to the small language coverage of Drents dialect to one (or in the case of Low-Saxon a few) province(s). On the other hand, projects like 'Versterking Drents en Duits in het onderwijs' on elementary schools focus on strengthening multilingualism of children and youth in the region of Drenthe. Although the focus on elementary schools is mainly put on a first acquaintance with dialect for all children (also children with no dialect affinity) in a playful way, it would nevertheless be necessary to know in what manner the language is 'mastered' by the children. Besides, to gain insight in the language vitality, an overall indicator is necessary on which conclusions can be built.

This thesis is an extension of the project 'Versterking Drents en Duits in het onderwijs', a project to promote the role of Drents dialect (and German) in elementary schools and now focused at high school education as well. However, there seems to be a(n entire) restraint of dialect at high schools, in which the Dutch language is seen and accepted as the absolute standard. An absence of teaching methods has been detected in Drents dialect and compulsory modern foreign languages such as German and French fill the curriculum completely. Besides, less is known concerning the dialect affinity and speaking ratio among high school students in the province of Drenthe and the information is generally outdated.² It is a pity that, while all the initiatives of offering Drents dialect in elementary schools are highly supported, there is less attention for Drents dialect at high school education. There

¹ PABO is an abbreviation for 'Pedagogische Academie voor Basisonderwijs' which means that students are trained to become teachers in elementary school.

² Boves & Vousten (1996) found earlier that only 20% of the students in high school (freshman, testing in 1993/1994) spoke Drents dialect at their homes, but this research is more than 20 years ago. However, it is worth knowing that all school levels were included in this research (vmbo-havo-vwo).

are no methods available, so the skills that the youth might have gained in elementary school in Drents dialect might have faded instead of tracked and improved.

Therefore, the current project is carried out to obtain more insight in the present position of (Drents) dialect in high school education. Besides that, it is attempted to map whether and/or to what extent young people still speak and understand dialect by their own assessment, identify the level of their dialect knowledge and additionally map the degree of affinity and attitude towards dialects. A method for examining the knowledge in Drents dialect is designed in order to create a baseline for proficiency. In this way, possibilities for a permanent place of dialects in high school education can be explored in order to (possibly) strengthen the position of dialect in the future. The main research question is *“What is the relationship between self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency in dialect of high school students (12-15 year-olds) in the province of Drenthe?”* The research question will be further specified in section 2.4. As said, this thesis is an extension of the project ‘Versterking Drents en Duits in het onderwijs’, a four-year project carried out in the province of Drenthe by NHL Stenden Hogeschool, Huus van de Taol and the municipality of Drenthe to promote the role of Drents (dialect) and German in elementary schools. The whole project started in 2015 and the focus will be extended to the initial promotion and reconnaissance of Drents dialect in high schools with this current thesis project.

Bloemhoff (2005) concluded that young people spoke less dialect than their (grand)parents: in short, in a cross-border research of the whole Low-Saxon area, he found a dichotomy in dialect use of youth (40% use for <40 years-old) and adults (60% use for >40-years old).³ A survey among dialect-speakers from three other provinces (Zeeland, Brabant and Limburg) also showed that dialect positively correlated with the age of the speakers. The younger the speakers, the less dialect was spoken. Especially in Brabant, this difference was large and showed the same decrease as in the Low-Saxon areas (a decrease of 20% by age of dialect-speakers who indicate that they do speak dialect). This was even more alarming, since these results concerned a group of youth beneath 27-years-old instead of beneath 40-years-old (Van de Velde, van de Wijngaard, Schrier, Swanenberg & de Tier, 2008). These results and consequences will be explained in further detail in section 1.3.

The relationship between the speaker, attitude and dialect also plays a major role in the existence and further survival of dialects. The more positive people are about their dialect, the more likely that they would speak their dialect in various settings, which would increase the chances of preserving the dialect. However, this also works the other way around: the less positive people are about their dialect, the more likely that they would not speak their dialect in various settings and the chances that the dialect fades increase (Kocks, 1996). The discussion of this relation will be extended in section 2.2.

³ More information about this questionnaire will be demonstrated in section 1.3.

For the current thesis, a general outline of dialects in the Netherlands and especially types of dialect in the province of Drenthe will be provided first. After that, the current trends in dialect and dialect use among young people will be explained together with the overarching research question. In section 2, the theoretical framework, the research question will be introduced with the focus on language, attitude and identity, methods for self-assessment and the different language skills that will be tested in the research. After that, the method for the research will be explained, followed by the results of the current study. Last, in the discussion part, the results will be considered in the light of previously discussed research and summarized in the conclusion. Attachments are placed in the appendix at the end of the document.

1.2 The emergence of dialects & dialect in the province of Drenthe

The terms 'regional language' and 'dialect' are often used interchangeably in the literature. Hagen (1982) defines dialect as a variety of the standard language in a country, but with a limited communication range and usage functions. Dialect is often geographically/socially limited to (informal) communication in relation to the standard language (which has a much wider communication range). Dialect is therefore sometimes called regional language, since it is often bound to a certain area and/or location (region). Meantime, a standard language has a wide communication network with generally a national character and can be used both in formal and informal mediums for communication.

In the Netherlands, the Dutch language is considered the standard, native language for most people. The Dutch language is a member of the Germanic language family. Six general dialect areas can be distinguished in the Netherlands. These dialects are originated from the migrations of tribes⁴ from the different parts of Europe towards the Low Countries. For the Netherlands, the migration of the coastal-Germans, Saksisch and Frankish tribes around the 11th-13th century are relevant: Hollands, Zeeuws and West-Flemish descend from the Ingweoons or coastal-Germans language variants; Brabants, Utrechts, East-Flemish, Limburgs and Rijnlands arise from Old-Frankisch language forms and the north-eastern dialects in the Netherlands have originated at the base of Old-Saksisch language norms (Janssens & Marynissen, 2005).

The standard Dutch language as we know now is originated from a particular dialect which had the highest prestige of dialects at that time called 'Hollands' (in the western part of the Netherlands). Hollands dialect was valued with a higher prestige by the users than all other dialects and turned out to have the most influence and dominance. Besides, there was a need for a specific medium for wider use. At that time, 'Hollands' was the cultural and economic center of the Netherlands and became the general cultural language of the Netherlands that way. Sometimes, the term 'Hollands/Holland' is still used/confused with the term 'Dutch/the Netherlands' since this language variant apparently still prevails over language culture (Entjes, 1974; Hos, Kuiper & Van Tuijl, 1982).

⁴ For an extended overview of these migrations and shifts in the language landscape, see Janssens, G., & Marynissen, A. (2005). *Het Nederlands vroeger en nu*: Chapter 2 (Oudnederlands), p 47-68.

Weijnen (1941) divided the various dialects on the level of sounds, word forms, word constructions and vocabulary instead of language geography in his research: a shift of a traditional type of research towards a more specific and detailed overview of the different dialects. With this research, he tried to classify dialects locally on the basis of specific features, for example: the change of ‘g’ into ‘h’ in Zeeuws dialect, the buzzing ‘r’ in Brabants dialect and the transition from voiceless to voice plosives in Gronings dialect (Low-Saxon). In total, he distinguished six different main dialects, as displayed in figure 1:

- (1) *Hollands/Utrechts (light green)*:
the north-central and north-west dialects
- (2) *Brabants/East-Flemish (brown)*:
the south-central dialects
- (3) *Zeeuws/West-Flemish (light orange)*:
south-west dialects
- (4) *Limburgs (pink)*: south-east dialects
- (5) *Frisian (blue)*: now acknowledged as real independent language
- (6) *Low-Saxon (dark green)*:
north-east dialects



Figure 1: classification of Dutch dialects (from Weijnen, 1941)⁵

Since this thesis focuses on the proficiency in Drents dialect, which is part of the north-east dialects, this dialect will be examined in more detail. In general, Low Saxon is (or the Low-Saxon dialects are) spoken in the province of Drenthe. Low-Saxon is a regional language with an overarching character; this means that Low-Saxon is not only spoken in the province of Drenthe, but in the provinces of Overijssel, Gelderland, Groningen and a large part of Germany as well (Weijnen, 1941; Bloemhoff & Kooi, 2008). The name ‘Drenthe’ for the province stems from a geographical division of the area in Drenthe (Blok, 1985): literally, it means ‘unity of three parts’ (the first part of the word contains the numeral ‘three’). The province of Drenthe was previously subdivided into three different areas: the northern part (called: Noordenveld, where ‘North-Drents’ is spoken), the south-eastern part (called: Zuidenveld: where ‘South-East/Middle-Drents’ is spoken) and the south-western part (called: Westenveld, where ‘South-West Drents’ is spoken) (Naarding, 1948; Bloemhoff & Nijkeuter, 2004).

It has been argued that the ‘traditional’ Drents dialect is only spoken in the very middle of the province of Drenthe. Van den Berg and Van Oostendorp (2012) substantiate this statement by demonstrating that the dialects in the North of Drenthe can be mirrored on many points to the dialects in the South of Groningen (e.g. ‘a’ is pronounced as ‘ao’ in both areas), the dialects in the West of the Drenthe to ‘Stellingwerfs’ in the eastern part of Frisia (a = ‘ae’) and the dialects in the South of Drenthe to ‘Sallands’ in the North of Overijssel (a=a).

⁵ This map is taken from Van der Sijs (2011) to present a color image of the classification of dialects.

Nowadays these three parts are still distinctive relating to the phonology and morphology in Drenthe, but now seven dialects are distinguished on the basis of specific features according to Kocks (1996). An overview of these dialects and their regions is displayed in figure 2:

- (1) *KVD⁶/NV: Noordenvelds*
(northern part)
- (2) *MD: Midden-Drents*
- (3) *VK: Veenkoloniaals*
- (4) *ZOZ: ZuidOostZuid*
(south-eastern part)
- (5) *ZOV: ZuidOostVeen*
(south-eastern part)
- (6) *ZWN: ZuidWestNoord*
(south-western part)
- (7) *ZWZ: ZuidWestZuid*
(south-western part)

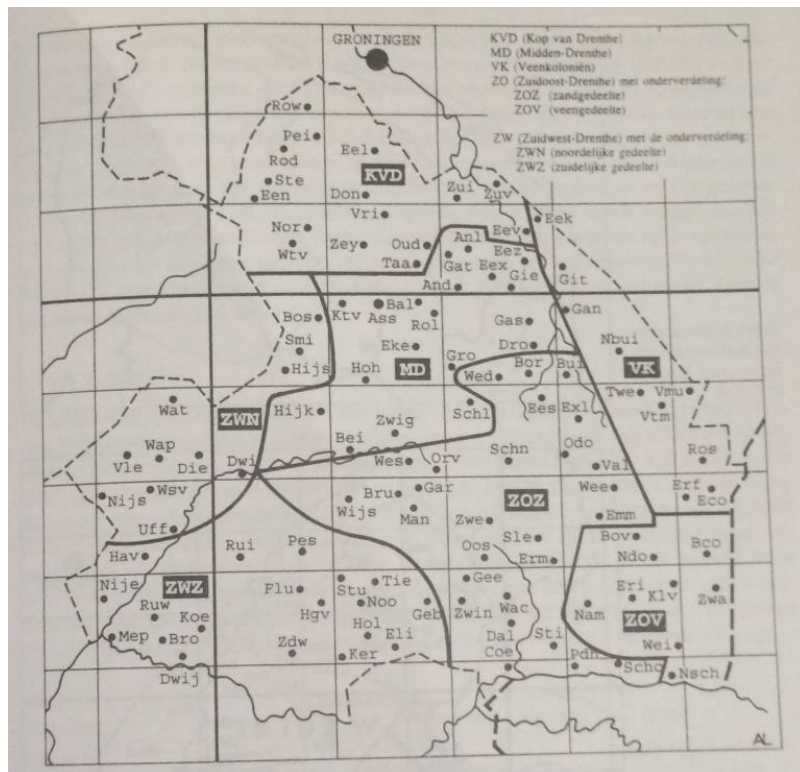


Figure 2: Dialects in the province of Drenthe (from Kocks, 1996)

As told before, the standard Dutch language originated from ‘Hollands’ dialect. Weijnen (1941) adds to his description of dialects that the north-east and the south-east dialects are the furthest away from the pronunciation of vowels and consonants in the ‘standard Dutch language’. Daan (1968) also shows in her dialect classification map that the north-east dialects are indeed far away from the pronunciation of standard Dutch. She assigned a number to each dialect (1 = closes to the pronunciation of standard Dutch, 28 = furthest away from the pronunciation of standard Dutch): South-Drents got number 23, Middle-Drents got 24 and North-Drents even got number 26. Only the Frisian language and its variants (e.g. Bildts) were assigned a higher number. The latter dialects had the least influence on the Standard language and are the least alike the standard Dutch language as a result.

Naarding (1948) appoints that other distinctive sounds of Drents dialect manifest in (1) the change from monophthong to diphthong in long vowels and (2) the lengthening of short vowels. Linguistically, this transition of vowels from South-Drenthe (SD) towards North-Drenthe (ND) can be seen in the word *spiegel* ‘mirror’ in which the vowel changes from a monophthong (single vowel ‘i’) towards a diphthong (double vowel ‘ai’) as follows (Naarding, 1948, p. 145):

SD: *spîgel* > *spi'jgel* > *speigel* > *spaigel* **:ND**

The lengthening of short vowels mainly occurs where the ‘a’ precedes consonant combinations like –nt, –nd and –mp like *lamp* ‘lamp’ ‘lâmp’ (examples, in order of language: Dutch, English, Drents dialect). It can also

⁶ The abbreviation is short for ‘Kop van Drenthe’ ‘Upper part of the province of Drenthe’ but the dialect in this area is called ‘Noordenvelds’

occur that the 'a' is lengthened while a subsequent consonant is omitted (in pronunciation) too, for example in *gans* 'goose' 'gââ(n)s' (examples, in order of language: Dutch, English, Drents dialect).

1.3 Youth and dialects: general course and developments

Research has shown some trends in dialect use among youth in different provinces. First, as told in the rationale (1.1), it is known that the speaking level of and knowledge about dialect among young people decreases. In 2005, Bloemhoff (2005) published a language census about language use and language proficiency in the Low-Saxon areas of the Netherlands (Overijssel, Groningen, Drenthe, Gelderland and a large part of Germany). At that time, earlier work in the field of language use among citizens was already carried out, but often limited to provincial borders and lacked a large-scale study in which the Low-Saxon use of dialect could be examined and compared in the whole Low-Saxon area (Van Hout, 1989; Van Bree, 2000). Therefore, Bloemhoff's work was very important to the field, because of his overarching language census without being limited by provincial borders in the Low-Saxon area and his motive to unify this information about language use and language proficiency in dialect. He differentiated his language census towards three different age groups and found that dialect⁷ declined among the youth: 18-39 year-olds (18% use), 40-60 year-olds (30% use) and 61+ year-olds (40% use). This decrease can be explained by the change in the traditional family situation in terms of language according to Giesbers, Van Hout and Van Bezooijen (2005): dialect was already not part anymore in the language education of adults (>80 years-olds) raising their children (> 50 years-old) and was, as a result, also mostly not passed on from the adults to their children (< 40 years-old) and probably will decrease only more by generation without intervention.

A discrepancy between the productive (hereafter called⁸: encoding) and receptive (hereafter called: decoding) language proficiency skills in youth is found. Youth often does not, or not fully speak the (traditional) dialect, but often understand the dialect (reasonably) well. This is also shown in the research of Belemans (1997) in which 15-year-olds were asked if they could understand and speak the dialect of Genk (Belgian part of Limburg). 68% of the youth reported that they were able to understand the dialect of Genk, while only 26% of the youth reported that they could actually speak this dialect. Pross (2011) reports the language use and knowledge of three generations (77, 52 and 20 years-old – not related) in the area of Twente (Overijssel). In three qualitative interviews, the 77-years-old woman reports that the dialect of Twente was spoken everywhere before, also to the children. In that time, the language for education had already shifted to Dutch, so according to this woman the dialect was already decreasing. The 52-year-old woman was brought up with the Dutch language, but her parents always spoke Twents dialect to each other. She learned 'Twents' by listening to her parents. Now, she speaks the Dutch language with her own children, but her husband speaks Twents to them. However, their children could understand the Twents dialect (reasonably), but are not able to speak Twents dialect very well (they only know certain words). If the grandparents of the children talk to them in Twents dialect, they will answer them in Dutch.

Cornips (2013) describes this appearance of dialect as a 'listening language'. When the (grand)parents talk to each other in dialect at home, the children grow up with the dialect often around

⁷ Bloemhoff (2005) asked the respondents in each group if they spoke Low-Saxon, Dutch, both or something else at home. The percentages of Low-Saxon use at home as an only language are shown above after the footnote. The percentages of Low-Saxon and 'both' are added together in the percentages: 40% of the 18-39 year-olds, 51% of the 40-60 year-olds and 62% of the 61+ year-olds made use of mix of dialect and Dutch at home.

⁸ This will be explained in section 2.1.

them but without the possibilities/capacities to speak this language in return. The youngest interviewee (20-years-old) narrates that her parents spoke to her in Dutch and to each other in Twents dialect as well. She reports that she can understand the dialect, but does not feel very proficient in speaking the dialect. The latter two also clearly consider the *Dutch* (standard) language as their native, first language, while the 77-years-old considers her *dialect* as her native, first language.

Swanenberg (2014) describes the process of dialect reduction among the youth in Brabant as a process of dialect change. The dialect of a specific place is increasingly looking like a nearby dialect: this causes that dialects do not belong to a specific place anymore, but instead to a specific area (called: a regiolect instead of dialect). This process holds that distinctive sounds in dialect can change into sounds that are characteristic for the standard Dutch language (an adjustment), but also holds the addition or inflection of Dutch words in dialect on the basis of the dialect rules. Swanenberg gives the example of the word ending *-ske* in 'clubske'. In the traditional dialect of Brabant, the diminutive *-ske* is only used after plosive dorsal consonants as 'g', but not after plosive labial consonants as 'b'. Instead, only the word ending *-ke* is used. However, the word ending *-ske* is used in many more words in the dialect of Brabant as a diminutive by the youth and socially accepted, but (as described) not accepted in the traditional dialect of Brabant.

Van Bree (2015) described the dialect forms and skills of young people and adults for the province Overijssel, specifically Vriezenveen (a village in the area Twente). He described and concluded that the youth uses a variant of Vriezenveens that was more similar to the dialect of Twente in general, while the adults still used the more 'traditional' dialect that belongs specifically to Vriezenveen. As a result, the same trend as Swanenberg (2014) noted, the transition from a specific dialect towards a regiolect is perceived by Van Bree (2015). The latter also noticed that there is a shift in the attitude towards other dialects. While another dialect was sometimes seen as a threat⁹, it seems that there is more contact with other youth groups. This results in a disappearance of mutual differences between specific dialects resulting in a more general dialect allowing the dialect to be used in communication more widely among youth.

⁹ This is also called the in-group love, out-group hate debate, which will be explained in the next section.

2 Theoretical background

In the current section, the main research question: *“What is the relationship between self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency in dialect of high school students (12-15 year-olds) in the province of Drenthe?”* will be examined and further explained. First, the four skills of language will be exemplified and the choice for the ‘receptive’ language skills will be explained in section 2.1. Then, the relation between language, attitude and identity will be further explained, with a general focus on language will and language domains in section 2.2. Third, the self-assessment grid and its function will be explicated, since this will be one of the main points on which the research is built (together with actual language proficiency) in section 2.3. Last, the research question, sub-questions and hypotheses for the current research project will be shown in section 2.4.

2.1 Four concepts of language

In general, four macro-language concepts are distinguished: speaking, listening, writing and reading. These concepts are used to represent micro-language skills as pronunciation and vocabulary (Aydoğan & Akbarov, 2014). Poelmans (2003) subdivides these concepts in her dissertation in terms of modality (way of using language: e.g. visual/auditory) and processing activity (way of converting language into meaning: e.g. encoding/decoding). In the literature, this distinction in processing activity is sometimes opposed and explained as a receptive versus productive or active versus passive language skill (Harmer, 2001). Previously, the abilities of speaking and writing were seen as ‘active’ and ‘productive’ due to the fact that there is a need to directly perform three steps before or while speaking/writing. These three steps are called (1) construction or idea generation (planning what to speak/write), (2) transformation or composition (encoding the message into an understandable chunk) and (3) execution of editing (producing speech/written text) (Anderson, 1985). The reason why these skills were called ‘active’ arose from the human conscious observation of the (executed) processes that underlie the speaking/writing process. In contradiction to speaking and writing skills, listening and reading were seen as ‘passive’ and ‘receptive’ since these skills seem to take only little effort on the surface and were labelled as a ‘general exposure to language’ with little attention to grammar and lexis (Sanaoui, 1995). This means that speaking and writing take direct, observable actions that are perceived by other people as ‘active’ actions directly; while listening and reading are indirect, unobservable actions that are perceived later in the conversation when people react to the message.

However, this last distinction (active/passive) is controversial in literature. Listening and reading are nowadays seen as active as well, due to the fact that the attendees have to actively decrypt the incoming signals and symbols in order to negotiate and interpret their meanings (Savignon, 1991). Apart from that, comprehensive, conscious listening (or reading) takes more effort than passive listening (‘hearing’) due to the need for interpretation in order to satisfy the other partaker in their need to transfer a message and to match the incoming information with their intern knowledge (Purdy & Borisoff, 1996; Vandergrift, 2003). In other words, people then fully understand what is being written or said. Brown (1996) explains the difference between active and passive listeners very clearly: *“The listener may choose to take no active part in the conversation, simply playing the part of ratified non-participating observer (...) the active and collaborative listener must ensure that any reference to some crucial person or event is understood (p. 216)”*. In this way, the active listener can immediately react to the message of the speaker, since every bit of the message is fully processed and understood. Anderson (1985) also discerns three steps of language comprehension that the attendee must follow

in order to decode the message: (1) perception (identifying different sounds or word units), (2) parsing (extracting or decoding the meaning of the message towards understandable chunks) and (3) utilization (processing the meaning and convert to purport). As he summarizes in his book, these three steps of language comprehension match the aforementioned three steps of language production. Both skills take the same effort to accomplish in terms of the acquired knowledge people need to know in order to successfully encode or decode a message. So in this way, effective communication only occurs when people are perfectly able to wrap and unpack the transferable message.

In this thesis, the terms encoding/decoding (as used in Poelmans 2003) are preferred instead of receptive/productive or active/passive and will be held for the language skills listening and reading as part of the processing activity. This is done due to the active, productive steps attendees must perform in order to comprehend a message in listening or reading: the term decoding fits the description most accurately. An overview of these macro language skills and their position within the different concepts of modality and processing activity is shown in table 1. As explained before in section 1.3, there is a dichotomy in the level of decoding and encoding language skills in youth. Since the youth (with affinity with dialect) has been raised with dialect as listening language in all probability (Cornips, 2013), their language proficiency and self-assessment about the decoding skills listening and reading will be examined and analyzed.

TABLE 1: LANGUAGE SKILLS IN TERMS OF MODALITY AND PROCESSING AS TAKEN FROM POELMANS (2003; 21)

		Processing activity	
		Encoding	Decoding
Modality	Auditory	Speaking	Listening
	Visual	Writing	Reading

2.2 *Language, attitude and identity*

Speakers of dialect are mostly bi- or even multilinguals. In the Netherlands for example, speakers of dialect mainly also master the standard language (Dutch) and often the international language (English) as well besides their dialect. Dialect itself can be used in a certain area (e.g. Low Saxon dialect is spoken in four different provinces), a province (e.g. Drents dialect is spoken in the province of Drenthe) or village/city (e.g. Coeverdars dialect belongs to a specific town in the province of Drenthe) as stated in the rationale (1.1). Dialect is considered as a part of one’s identity: a specific, unique part that belongs to a person, group or even a part of the population. Pleij (2014) describes language as a factor to include or exclude people within a certain community.¹⁰ On the one hand, speaking the same language can increase the degree of connection and solidarity between people in a community. This is called inclusion, or being a member of the ‘in-group’. On the other hand, a differentiation in two native languages within the same group can cause great removal and even an isolation of a member resulting in a possible exclusion from the community (out-group). A very tight connection in the solidarity between the in-groups members can lead to enmity or even contempt towards members of the out-group. This is called the in-group love, out-group hate conflict, as defined by Brewer (2001).

¹⁰ Inclusion and exclusion of members in the community can be held on different levels (culture, language, religion among other things).

Sumner (1906) described the in-group in terms of 'ethnocentrism', which means that the in-group is seen as the central benchmark in comparison with the out-group. He defined ethnocentrism as follows: *"Ethnocentrism leads a people to exaggerate and intensify everything in their own folkways which is peculiar and which differentiates them from others. It therefore strengthens the folkways"* (p. 13). These folkways can be compared to the in-group love and out-group hate debate as mentioned before. Sumner (2001) summarized the folkways, its ideology and identity, as follows: *"They [folkways] are uniform, universal in the group, imperative and invariable. As time goes on, the folkways become more and more arbitrary, positive and imperative. If asked why (...) people always answer that it is because they and their ancestors always have done so"* (p. 50). The reason why people comply with these traditions, norms and values manifest in the identification with certain features from the in-group (LeVine & Campbell, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and because members of the in-group want to propagate and preserve the collectivity, unicity and superiority from their group compared to the out-group (Brewer, 2001; De Dreu, 2010).

Language, identity and attitude are three concepts that are closely connected to each other. If speakers identify themselves with a language (and/or certain features of that language), the chance that they will continue to speak that language increases. As a result, the language will remain a part of their identity (Van den Berg & Van Oostendorp, 2012). However, speakers of dialect tend to 'organize' the various language varieties and assign them into different domains: a division of formal and informal settings. The various language varieties are used in different ways for dissimilar purposes: the more formal the setting and the need for self-control, the more likely that the standard language is used/preferred instead of the dialect. For informal domains, the opposite appears where people tend to prefer speaking dialect instead of the standard language (Goossens, 1987; Willemys, Vandebussche & Drees, 2010).

The factor attitude is also important for the extent to which a language or dialect is used in a different setting (e.g. at home, at school), but also for the preservation of a language/dialect in total. As said before (section 1.3), the total number of speakers of a dialect is decreasing by age in the Netherlands. The more positive the attitude towards a dialect (or language) together with the total number of domains in which the dialect is or can be used, will increase the chances of keeping and revitalizing the dialect. Kocks (1996) describes very aptly that the survival and existence of a language strongly depends on the *language will* of the speaker, and that a language or dialect will disappear when another language is considered more important than a person's own language.

On the other side, the more negative the attitude towards a dialect (or language) in combination with a low number of domains in which the dialect can be or is spoken, the chances of preserving the dialect will decrease (Van Bezooijen, 2001; Driessen, 2006). However, the internal factors attitude and number of domains in which a dialect is spoken is not enough to preserve a language. External factors as prestige, perception and appreciation of a language by members of out-groups also play a major role in the preservation of a dialect or language. Previously, Ebertowski (1995) described that there is no need to assign one language with a higher prestige than another; despite that dialects are often assigned with a lower prestige than Dutch, the standard language. Van Bezooijen (2001) also reported that participants assigned the Dutch language with the highest prestige and noticed that dialects that were similar to the Dutch language (urban dialects, in 'Holland') were also perceived with a higher status than dialects that were much less equal to the standard language. This can be linked to the dialect distance map of Daan (1968), as explained before (section 1.2), in

which Drents dialects were assigned with number 23, 24 and 26 (far away from the standard language). The allocation of a dialect to a lower prestige/status can make people feel inferior by the language they speak and as a result the idea that they are not considered as a full-fledged discussion partner in the conversation or even perceived as less intelligent. This can result in prejudices and a negative image of a person based on his/her speech (Kroon & Liebrand, 1984; Swanenberg, 2017).

Stokmans (2009) mentions in her article the importance of a positive attitude towards reading in Dutch based on earlier experiences. In her research, the attitude of high school students on secondary vocational education (vmbo basis/kader) was tested. She found that the motivation to read, strongly depends on the attitude towards the reading experience. Earlier experiences can cause an effect of likelihood while executing the language skill resulting in an overall positive experience. Many positive experiences can in this way lead to positive feelings, which are stronger than possible negative feelings about the language and may result in an overall positive outcome for the language. In the current research project, attitude and input are used as factors in the relation between self-assessment and language proficiency. It is examined to what extent attitude and input play a role in the relation between self-assessment and language proficiency. For attitude and input in domains, this can work both ways: the more positive the attitude/the more domains in which the dialect is favored, the more likely that the language proficiency will be higher and the self-assessment will be more positive or the better the language proficiency and the more positive the self-assessment, the more likely that the attitude will be high towards the dialect/the dialect will be favored in more domains. However, nothing can be said about the possible cause and effects (the direction) of the results: it is not possible to indicate whether attitude/number of domains provide a high level of language proficiency or whether a high level of proficiency ensures a positive attitude/more domains in which the dialect is spoken.

Giles and Niedzielski (1998) discuss two hypotheses considering assessing a language: the inherent value hypothesis (a) and the social connotations hypothesis (b). The first hypothesis is focused on the inherent attractiveness of a language in relation to others, which means that speakers are evaluated on their speech as 'viable' or 'unviable' for conversation. Besides that, estimations are made based on a speaker's speech considering the intelligibility and social value for the society. The second hypothesis is originated by the prestige of a language in the society, which means that perceiving a language is associated with the social power and range within the community. The last hypothesis is preferred by the authors, since the assessment of a language is built on cultural norms and emotional values which dictate the aesthetics of the languages within the country.

These hypotheses can be separated into different distinctive variables on which a language is assessed. According to Zahn and Hopper (1985), attitude variables can be globally labelled into (1) superiority, (2) attractiveness and (3) dynamism. The factor superiority contains the intellectual status (prestige) of a language user (e.g. poor-rich, unintelligent-intelligent), the second factor attractiveness includes the likeability and aesthetics of a language user (e.g. dishonest-honest, unsympathetic-sympathetic) and the last factor dynamism represents the self-presentational aspects of a language user (e.g. aggressive-unaggressive, weak-strong). The first factor, superiority, is mostly associated with 'good' speaking, which means that the standard language is often perceived as intelligent and rich. The second factor, attractiveness, is often perceived as the likeability of a language, which means that people appreciate the sound, pitch and melody of the language. The last factor, dynamism, is perceived as power and persuasion, which means that people base their position on the other one's language. The attitude of these factors is measured, with concepts that are more specific to these categories in

order to map the attitude towards the standard language and variants of Drents dialect of high school students.

In this thesis, language and attitude are compared to each other to evaluate the superiority and attractiveness of the standard Dutch language and the various dialects in the province of Drenthe. The attitudes of students with different backgrounds (no affinity with dialect at all, a little affinity with dialect and a lot of affinity with dialect) will be measured and compared to each other. In this way, the folkways of the different in-groups can be identified and the mutual relations between the in- and out-groups can be exposed. Besides that, the language will of preserving the language(s) can be fathomed with regard to the number of domains in which students are exposed to dialect (Kocks, 1996).

2.3 CEFR and the self-assessment grid

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (henceforth known as: CEFR) is an international language standard for describing language proficiency. The main goal of the CEFR is for learners to get more insight in their learning objectives and to raise their awareness of potential obstacles and strengths. Within this framework, six different scales are used to subdivide people on the basis of their production (speaking/writing) and comprehension (listening/reading) of a language. The CEFR contains a horizontal, qualitative description for each language skill (a summary of what learners should know to achieve that particular level) and a vertical, quantitative description on the basis of 'I can-do' statements (to classify learners in categories on the basis of their skills). There are three main groups and each group has two different levels of proficiency (CEFR, 2011): basic user (A: A1 - breakthrough and A2 - waystage), independent user (B: B1 - threshold and B2 - vantage) and proficient user (C: C1 - effective operational proficiency and C2 - mastery). These CRL's (Common Reference Levels) increase in difficulty: the breakthrough (A1) is the lowest proficiency level related to simple, everyday tasks while waystage (A2) already focuses on the social functions that can be achieved in a language. The threshold (B1) focuses on the ability to continue the interaction without too many interruptions for word-finding problems. At the vantage stage (B2) the level is raised to abstract thinking and formulating arguments in a language. The effective operational proficiency (C1) and mastery (C2) levels are the native(-like) levels, in which spontaneous communication is common (C1) and the ease with which someone speaks in that language (C2) is normal. An overview of all required skills at each level is displayed in the appendix, enclosure 1 (in Dutch).

A part of the CEFR is the self-assessment grid. Self-assessment is a measurement in which learners try to assess their knowledge/skills as objectively as possible: this means that they try to map their own progress and proficiency on the basis of various statements in order to identify difficulties and strengths. Ibberson (2012) describes that self-assessment can be used in three different ways: (a) by assessing skills of specific language tasks, (b) by checking learning outcomes and/or (c) by showing results and achievements after completion of tasks after a longer period. The main focus of the current study will be put on the first way of self-assessment: learners will get different statements and specific examples and they need to assess their skills in the target language (either Dutch for non-dialect-speakers or Drents for dialect-speakers). The CEFR includes a grid for self-assessment, based on the CRL's A1-C2 on which people are subdivided based on the language abilities (North & Jones, 2009). Although the CEFR appeared in 37 languages, Drents dialect is not one of those due to the small

language coverage and domains in the Netherlands probably. The standard assessment grid for the Dutch language¹¹ is included as an example in the appendix, enclosure 2.

The CEFR descriptors are taken as a basis for the self-assessment checklist for Drents dialect. This self-assessment grid contains 'I can do' statements, distributed over all six categories for all language skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening, A1-C2) and applied to Drents dialect. Jones (2002) found a strong correlation between self-assessment of language skills and proficiency level (exam grades) in the different language areas in his research. Jones decided to use a yes/no form of response for the self-assessment checklist, in order to force the participants to decide whether or not they would be able to perform the required task. He also mentions the possibility of using a scale for response so they could denote a degree of agreement towards the statements. In the case of a four-point scale, pupils will consider their answer more carefully and the given answer is less black-and-white than with a yes/no form (Hacquebord, 2004).

In the literature, there are proponents and opponents of using self-assessment for learners to assess their language abilities. Concerning the opponents, it is sometimes mentioned that the self-assessment grid is age-related. Jones (2002) found that age correlated positively with the accuracy of self-assessment ratings in relation to exam grades in his study. Adults were better able to assess their own proficiency than children of school age since they were more objective and realistic about their own abilities. Another disadvantage of the grid is that participants are sometimes reluctant and insecure while filling in the grid without a teacher's help. In the study by Glover, Mirici and Aksu (2005), students were familiarized with the language grid and as an addition the language biography¹² as well. They found conflicting results: while some students were very enthusiastic about the way of self-assessing their abilities, others were reluctant and rejected this type of language learning awareness. Little (2004) concludes that using self-assessment as a tool for language awareness raises three concerns: (1) learners would not be able to assess their language abilities at all (lack of objectivity), (2) if assessing: learners would estimate their proficiency higher than their real language abilities are and (3) the possibility that learners will cheat or cooperate while filling in the self-assessment grid about their language abilities causing a distorted pictures of strengths and weaknesses. These findings were also shown in the study by Schärer (2001): in this research, it was found that teachers criticize the way learners would be able to assess their language abilities and question the validity of the findings.¹³ The group that participated in his research showed a decrease in motivation and interest over time in the self-assessment grid and biography. It was reported that the role of the teachers was essential in the motivation and attitude part of participants towards the grid (if positive, then participants stayed motivated for the grid and vice versa). On the other hand, 70% of the learners considered the European Language Portfolio¹⁴ as a helpful tool in assessing their language abilities in general and 62% of the

¹¹ The assessment grid of the Dutch language is chosen since this grid formed the basis for the assessment grid made for Drents dialect.

¹² The ELP (European Language Portfolio) is a personal document in which learners can track their progress and experiences with language. The CEFR provided the basis of this method with their levels of proficiency (A-C). The ELP contains two types of self-assessment: a language passport with a self-assessment grid and a checklist to identify possible points for language improvement (and to show when these points are achieved). The whole ELP consists of a (1) passport – overview proficiency, (2) biography – reflecting learning process and (3) dossier - achievements.

¹³ These findings are based on the execution of the project in the Netherlands (p. 51-52). The project was carried out in 15 other countries, but the results of the project part carried out in the Netherlands are taken as a norm.

¹⁴ See footnote 12.

learners indicated that they were indeed able to assess their own language abilities adequately (Schärer, 2001).

Concerning the proponents, self-assessment is seen as way of reflecting on one's own abilities. By trying to match the statements of the grid with one's knowledge about the language skills, one will gain insight in the own strengths and weaknesses. In this way, targets for learning possibilities will be revealed and (hopefully) be accomplished (Glover, 2011; Little, 2012). Perclová (2006) mentions in her dissertation the features 'complementary' and 'permeable' that could turn into an advantage for learners during and after self-assessment among other things. The feature complementary contains the effect of doubling. Teachers already have an idea of the learners' language skills and progress during the years, but with the addition of self-assessment learners will get a full-formed picture of their own abilities. Both for a corresponding and a contradictory estimation of teacher and learner, the learner will always increase their knowledge about (the effectiveness of) the learning process. The other feature, permeable, covers the learner autonomy and is also mentioned as an advantage of the self-assessment grid and its possibilities (Little, 2005). This means that learners are in charge of their own learning process, development of their language skills and that they are responsible for their own progress. This insight in the learning process can lead to a request of support and an improvement and increase of language abilities (Gardner, 2000). Oscarson (1989) already wrote a rationale in 1989 to promote a more prominent role for the learner in his/her own learning process with the help of self-assessing. He emphasized the need for autonomous learning in the process in order to improve the goal-orientation for language learning in the future for these learners. Besides that, Glover (2011) showed in his study that learners developed a more realistic view of their own abilities after using the self-assessment grid and Blanche (1990)¹⁵ concluded that the accuracy of the learner's self-assessment was 'impressive'. Bachman and Palmer (1989) also found that self-assessment was a reliable measurement of language proficiency in grammatical and sociolinguistic competence. This would suggest that learners were surely able to assess their skills accurately¹⁶ with the use of a (variant) of a self-assessment grid. Finally, Broeder and Arts (2005) mentioned that the recognition of speaking and understanding another language through the portfolio or self-assessment gives people the self-confidence that this language really matters (increase of attitude). But most of all, their confidence can grow that it is worthwhile speaking that language and that they can be proud of doing so.

Most studies however focus on self-assessment with elderly, able students since they showed the most accurate self-assessment ratings (Jones, 2002; North & Jones, 2009). Harrane (2003) focused in her thesis on learners from elementary school to check if the language portfolio (in which self-assessment contains a large part) is a good predictor of the language proficiency of these learners. In her research, she focused specifically on reading and listening (decoding) skills. She found a high correlation between self-assessment on tasks specific for listening skills by learners and exam grades by teachers. This means that pupils who assess themselves with a high-level proficiency also get high exam grades and

¹⁵ The research of Blanche (1990) was focused on the self-assessment of oral proficiency instead of decoding language abilities. The limited number of participants is however a limitation of the study as well as the target audience (only students were allowed to participate).

¹⁶ Important to mention is that all studies (for as well opponents as proponents) sometimes have different variables. Some studies focus on a different age group, while others only have a limited sample size. The variability in results could be due to those different factors. For the current study, a large sample size (province-covering) is chosen.

vice versa. Besides, these relatively young pupils are perfectly able to assess their own skills. This is also in accordance with, among other, Blanche (1990) and Glover (2011), as previously mentioned.

Finally, North and Jones (2009) found that low-level learners (or younger people) tend to overestimate themselves, since they are proud of the knowledge and proficiency they have. High-level (or adults) learners tend to underestimate themselves; since they know there is always an amount of skills they could learn in the future. By testing language proficiency as well besides only self-assessment, the lack of objectivity is attempted to neutralize and see how well high-school students are able to assess their own proficiency. Harrane (2003) and Broeder and Arts (2005) additionally found in their studies that girls tend to overestimate themselves more, while boys tend to underestimate their abilities.

In this thesis, the CEFR self-assessment grid is used, but adapted and focused on Drents dialect. In this way, the language skills on specific language tasks of high school students can be assessed and compared to actual language proficiency as Ibberson (2012) described. The argument of the proponents considering using self-assessment grids as a tool for assessing language proficiency, taken from the study of Harrane (2003), is decisive: her research is carried out recently, the target test group is similar in age and the test group was (despite their age) able to assess their language skills accurately. Besides that, the self-assessment of language skills for boys and girls will be analyzed since differences were found in gender for assessment (Harrane, 2003; Broeder & Arts, 2005).

2.4 Research questions and hypotheses

For the current study, the relationship between the self-assessment ratings and language proficiency of high school students in the age of 12-15 year-olds (lower secondary education, year 1 and 2) will be researched by using the CEFR self-assessment grid and a language proficiency test in Drents dialect as a tool. This decision has been made on the basis of the following reasons: (1) Drents dialect is promoted at quite some elementary schools and there is also some attention for Drents dialect at the secondary vocational education but there is no indicator to map the acquired knowledge in any way. By designing and using the self-assessment grid and language proficiency test as a tool, the progress of the learners can be tracked and improved, (2) there is an information gap about dialect and dialect use in high schools in Drenthe so the goal is to get insight in this knowledge of the high school students and to map the transition period from elementary school towards high school in relation to Drents dialect, dialect input (elementary school/raised in city or village/input from family) and other languages¹⁷ and (3) to explore the attitude of the high school students and teachers towards dialects and dialect education in the province of Drenthe in order to detect possibilities for a (possible) permanent place for dialect in high school in the future.

The language proficiency will be tested on the various items concerning the decoding skills and a test of confidence will be taken to control for randomly gambling the answers. Also, studies have shown that girls are more positive towards self-assessment than boys and besides that, girls tend to overestimate themselves while boys tend to underestimate their language abilities (Harrane, 2003; Broeder & Arts, 2005). This factor will be included in the current project as well. In this way, the current

¹⁷ Pupils learn several new languages in high school in the Netherlands (French, German, English and sometimes even Spanish or Russian). In this project, the attitude towards different dialects and non-dialects are mapped in order to see if there would be support for a possible offer of dialect as a second language as well.

project will propose to shed a new light on the operation and execution of using the self-assessment grid for decoding language abilities for high school learners (12-15 year-olds).

The main purpose of the research project will be dominated by the following overall, main research question: *“What is the relationship between self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual (decoding) language proficiency in dialect of high school students (12-15 year-olds) in the province of Drenthe?”* This question will be answered through the following sub-questions:

1. Does gender play a role in the self-assessment of language skills in relation to the actual language proficiency of the high school students according to the CEFR guidelines? [basic, independent, proficient user?]
 1. *Hypothesis: It is expected that girls will tend to over-estimate themselves in proficiency, while boys will tend to under-estimate themselves in proficiency*
2. To what extent does the attitude of high school students towards dialects play a role in relation to the self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency?
 1. *Hypothesis: If dialect-speakers have a positive attitude towards their dialect, it is assumed that they will assess themselves higher and perform better than dialect-speakers who have a negative attitude towards their dialect.*
3. To what extent does the amount of input in the different dialect domains play a role in relation to the self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency?
 1. *Hypothesis: If dialect-speakers are exposed to their dialect in more domains (informal/formal), it is assumed that they will assess themselves higher and perform better than dialect-speakers who have less domains (informal/formal) in which they exposed to their dialect.*

3 Method

3.1 *Participants*

The current research project focuses on the self-assessment, language proficiency and language attitude towards dialects in Drenthe of high school students (12-15 year-olds). A number of selection factors considering the current research should be taken into account in order to delineate the test group: only high school students of secondary vocational education (class 1/class 2) were included in the research (vmbo basis/kader). Kraaykamp (2005) concluded in his research that the level of education and dialect proficiency correlated negatively with each other. The higher the level of education, the less dialect was spoken among youth. By taking the lower levels of education, probably the participants with the most affinity with dialect will be taken into account and as a result can be mapped and compared with previous studies¹⁸ on the status and vitality of dialect in this youth group. Second, a differentiation has been made between dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers within the research. In addition, the possibilities of dialect education and promotion will be explored.

Keeping the research of Cornips (2013) and Swanenberg (2014) in mind, participants were divided into one of three groups: definitely speaking dialect, speaking some dialect, and not speaking dialect at all. The surveys of the first two groups were the same, but the distinction was made between those groups because previous studies showed that young people feel that they do not speak the traditional dialect (as well as their (grand)parents do) and these participants should not be excluded from the research beforehand. Non-dialect-speakers also got a survey, mainly to control for their attitude towards dialects in the province of Drenthe.

All high schools in the province of Drenthe were contacted by e-mail for participation. The testing period started on May 23, 2018 and ended June 25, 2018. In total, there are fourteen school communities in the province of Drenthe: nine school communities agreed to participate in the project. In total, the research is carried out by 15 teachers in 23 classes and included 376 high school students.¹⁹ 181 girls (48.1%) and 195 boys (51.9%) filled in the survey. Students were 13 years and 6 months old on average ($SD=0.88$). The average time to complete the survey was 24 minutes and 50 seconds ($SD=7.09$). Students were registered in vmbo basis lwoo²⁰ ($n=27$; 7.2%), vmbo basis ($n=120$; 31.9%) and vmbo kader ($n=229$; 60.9%).

¹⁸ e.g. Boves & Vousten (1996) as mentioned in the rationale (1.1) and Kraaykamp (2005).

¹⁹ In total, 389 high school students started with the survey. Not all results have been included in the analysis of the results, due to an incomplete answer, missing answer, meaningless answer like 'x' (which in fact means that the student wanted to skip the question) or unfinished survey. Students who finished >75% of their survey are included in the research. Therefore, it might occur that not all students have taken part in a question.

²⁰ Lwoo is short for *leerwegondersteunend onderwijs* 'learning support in education'

An overview of these schools, area in Drenthe and number of participants is given in table 2. Figure 3 displays the location of the schools in the province of Drenthe. A variety of high school teachers participated with their classes in the project: teachers who gave courses in English (1), Dutch (6), Mens & Maatschappij (people & society, 3), biology (1), visual arts (2), French (1), geography & history (2), mathematics (1), Mens, Techniek & Burgerschap (people, technology & citizenship, 1) and religion (1).²¹

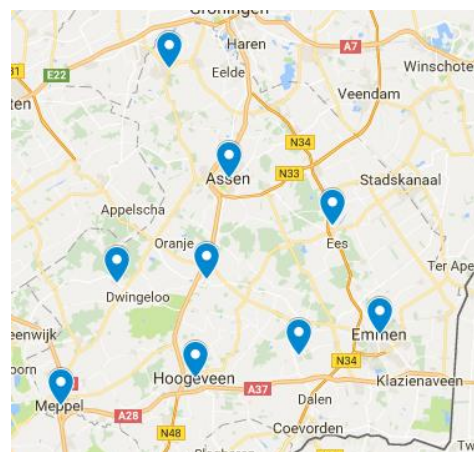


Figure 3: location of schools

TABLE 2: OVERVIEW PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS

School community	Place	Area ²²	Class(es)	Number of participants
CS Vincent van Gogh	Beilen	MD	1	13
Esdal College	Oosterhesselen	ZOZ	1	18
Esdal College	Borger	ZOZ	2	39
Gomarus College	Assen	MD	1	12
Hondsrug College	Emmen	ZOZ	3	59
Roelof van Echten College	Hogeveen	ZWZ	2	28
RSG de Borgen	Roden	NV	2	36
RSG Stad en Esch	Diever	ZWN	2	40
RSG Stad en Esch	Meppel	ZWZ	4	53
Terra College	Meppel	ZWZ	1	16
Wolfsbos College	Hogeveen	ZWZ	4	62
			23	376

3.2 Procedure

The research was carried out on the basis of a survey during a school lesson on the various schools. The survey was made digitally and could be carried out on mobile devices, laptops, chrome books etc.; in this way the research could be carried out in the classroom itself instead of a computer room and the data could be collected and analyzed more easily. Teachers were asked to convey the message that the students had to bring digital devices and earplugs for participation in advance. Spare earplugs were brought along for certainty by me. Since the survey contained listening fragments among other things; students needed earplugs so that they were able to listen these fragments all by themselves (instead of all together) at their own speed. The survey was embedded in a lesson-filling program, on the one hand to provide extra information about dialects and to ensure that the students completed the whole survey and thus limit the drop-out ration on the other hand. The research question mainly focused on dialect-speakers, but non-dialect-speakers also got a survey. In this survey, for example, questions about the willingness to learn a dialect and the assessment about the importance of (the existence of) dialect were questioned. This last group also participated in the attitude part of the survey, to measure their attitude towards dialects in the province as well.

²¹ Some teachers tutor more than one course in high school education.

²² Area abbreviations as explained in section 1.2.

Generally, a lesson lasted for 50 minutes.²³ In each class, the lesson basically consisted of three parts using a PowerPoint presentation: introduction about dialect (+/- 15 minutes), the survey (+/- 25 minutes) and a quiz (+/- 10 minutes). In the first part, the students were asked about their knowledge of dialect (what is a dialect?), their experiences (do you know any dialects?), sounds in dialect (how do you know that someone is speaking a dialect?) and many more things. I also paid attention to the different vowels in Drenthe (as shown in section 1.2) in the word 'water' [waoter/waeter/water] and pronounced these different sounds together with the students which gave a very nice effect and a good start. All students received the same lesson with equal examples, so this could not have affected the results. At the first page of the PowerPoint, a riddle in Drents dialect was shown. The students were dared to read the riddle aloud in Drents dialect and 'translate' it into Dutch. The riddle was as follows:

Veer aole wieven
Die kunnen mekaar niet kriegen
Zie luupen al veer even hard,
Rao, rao, wat is dat?²⁴

*Four old woman,
They cannot come close to each other,
They walk all four at the same speed,
Do you know the answer?*

After that, a short explanation with regard to the survey was given. The survey is broadly structured in two parts: for dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers. They were divided into these groups by skip-logic: if the answer on the question 'Do you speak dialect' was 'yes' or 'a little' speakers were divided into the 'dialect' group, while when the answer was 'no' speakers were divided into the 'non-dialect' group. Dialect-speakers got 90 questions in total; non-dialect-speakers got 88 questions in total. After finishing the survey, students watched videos in and about dialect. Some students finished the survey before other students. By adding films and videos, this time difference could be largely overcome and the students who needed more time could work quietly until they were completely finished as well.

Last, if there was time left, the quiz was carried out based on the tv-program *Echt Waar?!* (RTL 4). In this tv-program, the audience gets statements and two comedians tell different stories about that statement in a funny way. After that, the audience gets the chance to choose the story that they think is real. I designed a variant for Drents dialect, in which the students see a dialect word or expressions. After this game, the guest lesson was finished. Finally, teachers were asked to fill in seven questions about their opinion concerning dialect and their interest for activities considering dialect in the province. They received a calendar in Drents dialect and two books about/in dialect as appreciation for participation with their class(es) and their answers.

²³ Three classes had different time schedules: two of them lasted for 45 minutes and one class had a duration of one hour.

²⁴ The answer to the riddle is: the wings of a mill

3.3 *Materials*

The questions in the survey were distributed as follows: (1) general questions, (2) self-assessment grid and (3) language proficiency. The second part (self-assessment) was subdivided into a (a) statements part and a (b) grading part (giving marks to language skills). The third and last part (language proficiency) was subdivided into 7 different parts: (a) vocabulary (subdivided into dialect words, 'false friends' and expressions), (b) reading a story (and answering questions), (c) listening to a story (and answering questions), (d) attitude (assess speech) and (e) input of dialect (amount of input and exposure to dialect). For non-dialect-speakers, also their (f) opinions about dialect and (g) general language affinity (other languages) were asked. In table 3, an overview is given considering the division of questions. Beneath, the justification for this set-up and list of materials is explained briefly:

- i. *Statements/grades*: the statements are based on the CEFR self-assessment grid, as explained in section 2.3 (CEFR, 2011). Dialect-speakers got 8 statements in level A (basic user), 11 statements in level B (independent user) and 4 statements in level C (proficient user) about their knowledge of Drents dialect. Non-dialect-speakers got 6 statements in level A, 7 statements in level B and 5 statements in level C. Their statements were of a higher level in general than the dialect-speakers, since Dutch is their native language (and Drents dialect is a second language for the dialect-speakers). Students also got the chance to classify themselves into a category: they could choose a basic, mediocre or an advanced level with regard to their knowledge in dialect. Last, it was asked if the students were raised bi-/multilingually.

A four-point scalar has been added for the statements; since the youth generally does not speak dialect as well as they can understand dialect (as explained in section 1.3). By adding only a yes/no option of the statements, youth could feel limited in their response due to their dichotomy in performance and comprehension for Drents dialect or think that they should be able to speak/understand the traditional variant of dialect instead of their own variant. The self-assessment grid is focused on specific language tasks with regard to reading, listening and vocabulary and is determined on a four-point scale. By using a four-point scale, participants will consider their answer more carefully in relation to a three- or five-point scale since the participants cannot choose the middle answer. A few statements are assessed with a grade following the Dutch grading scale (1-10, in which 10 is the highest mark), targeting the overall proficiency (reading, listening, vocabulary). All statements are shown in the appendix, enclosure 3.

- ii. *Vocabulary*: The vocabulary part consisted of three different parts called regular dialect words, false friends (words that mean something different in Dutch than Drents dialect²⁵) and expressions. These words were randomly selected from the list²⁶ of Bloemhoff & Nijkeuter (2004), which contained a comprehensive collection of words in Drents dialect that came into being at the Low-Saxon institute from 1969 onwards.
- iii. *Reading & Listening*: Reading and listening are added to the survey besides vocabulary to test the language proficiency. The difference between vocabulary and reading/listening expresses in the possible context from which the students could get the meaning of the word/phrase/expression. Reading and listening are used as the decoding skills of language as explained in section 2.1. There is an overlap of certain questions between the surveys of dialect-speakers and non-dialect-

²⁵ For example: the word 'stoet' means *procession* in Dutch, while *bread* in Drents dialect.

²⁶ For the complete list, consult 'Taal in stad en land' part 'Drents': Chapter 9 'Lijst van Drentse woorden' p 106-121. ISBN90 12 09018 0.

speakers.²⁷ Besides language proficiency testing, also a test of confidence is taken additionally. In this way, the students can indicate how certain they feel about the given answer. On the other hand, it can be checked whether a ‘good’ answer might be a lucky guess while a ‘wrong’ answer can show the same result without knowing. In this way, the reliability of a multiple-choice language proficiency test can be increased (Janssen, 1968). How this part of the survey is analyzed exactly is further explained in section 3.3.

- I. Reading: The reading part contained two small texts for reading comprehension in dialect and filling the gap reading questions. The texts were collected from different sources.²⁸
 - II. Listening: The listening part contained five fragments with corresponding questions (see footnote 28).
- iv. *Attitude*: Attitude was measured on the basis of a Likert scale (1-5) with the help of six different contradictions: old-fashioned – modern [factor superiority], sociable - unsociable²⁹ [factor attractiveness], countrified – civilized [factor superiority], seriously – funny [factor attractiveness], pretty – ugly [factor attractiveness] and silly – intelligent [factor superiority]. The scales are based on Zahn & Hopper (1985) and Giles & Niedzielski (1998) as discussed in section 2.2. The last factor Zahn and Hopper mentioned (dynamism) is not taken into account in the current project, since these terms (e.g. ‘superficial’) are mostly unfamiliar to high school students of secondary vocational education and the concepts are often not clear enough (e.g. intimate – superficial).

Students got the same text fragment for each dialect, so they did not have to focus on the meaning of the whole fragment but purely on the sound pattern of the speaker’s voice. The text fragment reads as follows: *The Norwegian Olympic team has ordered 15.000 instead of 1.500 eggs by accident. The order was incorrectly translated from the Norwegian language to the Korean language by Google Translate. Luckily, the surplus of 13.500 eggs could be sent back without problems to the vendor. He did not mind that much.*³⁰ A translation of this text fragment in the different dialect versions can be found in the appendix, enclosure 4. The fragments were translated by different men and women (one person for each dialect) with a dialect background in the different areas in the province of Drenthe. The fragment was voiced by only women below the age of 40, so that there would be little variation in the spoken dialect concerning the gender of the speaker (e.g. in pitch). The speakers were also allowed to make changes to the provided text into their speech if they thought that another construction/word was more applicable. The fragments were listed as follows: (1) Middle-Drents [MD], (2) South-West-South Drents [ZWZ], (3) South-East-South Drents [ZOZ], (4) Noorderenvelds [NV] and (5) standard Dutch.

²⁷ All selected words/other assignments have been tested with six university students for a first check regarding the level of difficulty for vocabulary, reading and listening in order to cluster the questions and filter ambiguities. As a result, eight questions were deleted and two questions were adapted due to an inappropriate level, unclear structure of the question or too similar looking answers. Also, a general differentiation was made on the basis of these results for the two different surveys (dialect/non-dialect) which means that the very easy questions were given to the non-dialect-speakers and the other questions to the dialect-speakers. The hardest questions were removed from the survey.

²⁸ Some texts are gathered from ‘Drèents Kienderboek, gedichten en verhaalen veur kiender’ ISBN 90 6509 305 2, some fragments are gathered from Youtube.

²⁹ In Dutch, this is called ‘gezellig’ versus ‘ongezellig’. There is no exact, good translation for this word in English.

³⁰ Source: <https://www.nu.nl/opmerkelijk/5124626/noorse-olympische-delegatie-bestelt-per-ondeluk-15000-eieren.html>, consulted on March 29, 2018.

- v. *Input*: Input was measured on the basis of a rating scale (how often are you exposed to dialect/how many times do you see dialect in a certain setting) targeting the input of dialect in language education. Besides, input was measured in relation to the different language domains for dialect-speakers (with family/friends) or in relation to visibility in daily life (books/social media) for non-dialect-speakers. The language domains and functions are split in formal and informal domains, since speakers tend to make a difference in the choice of language for the different domains (Goossens, 1987; Willemys, Vandebussche & Drees, 2010). The formal domains are domains in which the environment is structured and language is used instructionally and more fixed (e.g. in the classroom). Informal domains are domains in which language can be used more spontaneously, for example around family.
- vi. *Opinions & language affinity*: This part was added for the non-dialect-speaking students. Since they do not speak dialect and they have no conscious affinity with dialect, it is asked if they had any interest in learning Drents dialect. Drents dialect is not part of their identity (another in-group), so it is asked whether they think Drents dialect should survive or disappear in the province (Brewer, 2001).

For all statements and/or attitude contradictions holds that they were placed randomly on/in the Likert scale/matrix to prevent that students carelessly fill in the questions without really reading the questions (based on Wilting, van Hout & Swanenberg, 2014). For the analysis, these statements will be reformulated³¹ so that they all can be interpreted the same way in scores in the next section (3). For example: the statement ‘if people talk in dialect on the television, I need subtitles to know what the conversation is about’ is reformulated to ‘I do not need subtitles if people talk in dialect on television.’

TABLE 3: STRUCTURE AND OVERVIEW OF QUESTION TYPES

Survey part	Question type	N (questions)
		<i>Dialect-speakers</i>
1. General	General questions	12(14)
2. Self-assessment	(a) Statements	25
	(b) Grades	6
3. Language proficiency	(c) Vocabulary	23
	(d) Reading	9
	(e) Listening	5
	(f) Attitude	4
	(g) Input	6
	Total	90(92)

³¹ This means that all statements will be reformulated to a positive statement. For example, the statement ‘people who speak dialect on the radio are hard to understand’ will be ‘people who speak dialect on the radio are well understood’ to compare the statements to each other and interpret the results more easily.

3.4 *Data-analysis & statistics*

The survey consisted of a quantitative (mainly dialect-speakers) and qualitative (mainly non-dialect-speakers) part. The mean and standard deviations will be displayed for general data like gender and age. The self-assessment grid, language proficiency, attitude and input are measured quantitatively and will be analyzed statistically as well. The opinions and language knowledge parts will be analyzed qualitatively, because these answers contain open questions without Likert scale or scoring. The scoring will be explained beneath.

3.3.1. *Self-assessment*

The self-assessment grid is based on how students view their knowledge of dialect. All statements are formulated in a way that students can fully agree, quite agree, quite disagree or fully disagree with the statement (e.g. 'If I do not understand a word in dialect directly, I can use the context to track down the meaning of that particular word'). In the case of the example, students are "awarded" points for their commitment and indicated proficiency in Drents dialect. If they fully agree with the statement they get 2 points, if they indicate that they quite agree with the statement they get 1 point. If they indicate that they quite disagree with the statement 0 points are awarded and if they fully disagree with the statement 1 point is taken away. In this way, a scoring format of their estimated knowledge can be made and be compared to the language proficiency. In total, 42 points³² can be attributed to a person on the basis of the grid. People are distributed to the basic category at a total of less than 10 points. The middle category, independent user, is reached if people 'score' between 11-25 points. The last category, proficient user, is used if one scores more than 26 points.³³ An overview of this scoring format is schematically provided in table 4.

TABLE 4: SCORING TABLE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY IN RELATION TO TEST OF CONFIDENCE

<i>Self-assessment grid</i>	<i>Points</i>
Fully agree	2
Quite agree	1
Quite disagree	0
Fully disagree	-1

<i>Score</i>	<i>Label</i>
< 10 points	Basic user
11 – 25 points	Independent user
> 26 points	Proficient user

³² 25 statements are given to the high school students, but only 21 are included in the analysis. The other four statements were focused on the attitude and will be analyzed in the attitude section later on instead of the self-assessment section.

³³ This scoring is based on the test taking with the university students and the test of confidence. If students mainly give wrong answers and their confidence about the test is very high, they will always receive less than 20 points. If students give both good and wrong answers and their confidence is shifting, they will receive the independent proficiency label. Last, if students mainly give right answers and their confidence about the test is high, they will receive a proficient user label.

3.3.2. Language proficiency

In the case of language proficiency, students are rewarded or ‘punished’ for right or wrong answers in order to score them for proficiency. The rough score only contains the total score of right/wrong answers, while the other score will be calculated on the basis of the right/wrong answers in combination with the test of confidence. For a good answer, 0-2 points can be rewarded (0 = not at all sure, ½ = quite uncertain, 1 = quite certain, 2 = very sure); for a wrong answer -1-0 points can be deducted (0 = not at all sure, -¼ = quite uncertain, - ½ = quite certain, -1 = very sure). The scoring divides the students into the three different categories of the CEFR (basis, independent, proficient users). In total, dialect-speakers can receive a maximum of 74 points. Non-dialect-speakers can receive a maximum of 60 points, but their survey is mainly based on a first, careful acquaintance with Drents dialect instead of measuring actual ‘proficiency’. Students were assessed to the basis user category if they achieved less than 20 points, independent user if they achieved 21-39 points and proficient user if they achieved more than 40 points.³⁴ The scoring table for the test of confidence and the allocation in one of the three categories is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5: SCORING TABLE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY IN RELATION TO TEST OF CONFIDENCE

<i>Test of confidence</i>	<i>Points</i>	
	<i>Correct answer</i>	<i>Incorrect answer</i>
Fully agree	2	-1
Quite agree	1	-1/2
Quite disagree	0	-1/4
Fully disagree	-1	0

<i>Score</i>	<i>Label</i>
< 20 points	Basic user
21 – 39 points	Independent user
> 40 points	Proficient user

3.3.3. Attitude

Attitude is measured with the help of five fragments, on the basis of six contradictions. This is analyzed on the basis of a Likert scale from 1-5. In this way, the fragments with dialect-speakers (4: NV, ZWZ, MD, ZOZ) and Dutch speaker (1) are given to the youth in order to determine the status and attractiveness they attribute to a language (variant).

3.3.4. Teacher opinions

Teachers received an e-mail with seven questions about dialect in general, their own dialect and their opinion about the (possible) added value of a dialect. For all teachers, this data will be described qualitatively on the basis of their answers. The answers will remain anonymous, to respect the privacy of the teachers about their opinions.

³⁴ See footnote 33 for a justification of the scoring.

3.3.5. Statistical analysis

In this paragraph, the statistical analysis will be explained and explicated one by one on the basis of the main question and sub-questions.

Main question: *“What is the relationship between self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual (decoding) language proficiency in dialect of high school students (12-15 year-olds) in the province of Drenthe?”*

- I. *Sub-question: Does gender play a role the self-assessment of language skills match the actual language proficiency of the high school students according to the CEFR guidelines? [basic, independent, proficient user?]*
- I. The main question and the first sub-question are fairly equal but differ on one point: the influence of gender on the results. The statistical analysis of these two questions will therefore be discussed together. The relation between self-assessment and language proficiency is analyzed with the help of Pearson’s correlation. In this way, the linear correlation coefficient can be measured to see how strong the relationship between these two variables is. Pearson’s correlation can range within a number from -1 to 1. The closer to -1, a negative association is found, which means that if one variable increases, the other one will decrease. The closer to 1, a positive association is found, which means that if one variable increases, it is likely that the other variable will increase as well. The closer to 0 means that there is no association between the variables. Overall, this means that it can be checked if there is a connection between the self-assessment and the language proficiency of high school students. Language proficiency consists of two scores: the rough score and the score in which the test of confidence (against gambling) is included (see table 5 for an extended overview of scoring). The analysis will be carried out in relation to self-assessment with the test of confidence. Also, the means of the two proficiency test scores will be calculated and analyzed with the help of comparing means to see if there is a significant difference in the rough scores and the score with tests of confidence included. A paired-samples t-test is conducted to compare the means of the rough score and total scores with test of confidence for the language proficiency. The different statements of the self-assessment grid will be compared to each other with an independent-samples t-test and Cronbach’s alpha is measured for the scale reliability and a Pearson’s correlation is carried out to see to what extent the items relate to each other as a group. An independent-samples t-test is also conducted to compare the means of boys and girls for both self-assessment (a) and language proficiency (b).
- II. *Sub-question: To what extent does the attitude of high school students towards dialects play a role in relation to the self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency?*
- II. A factor-analysis is executed on the six contradictions in the attitude matrix. By doing so, it is likely that the factors superiority and attractiveness, according to Zahn & Hopper (1985), will emerge from this analysis. The numbers are statistically calculated to see which variable belongs to which possible factor with the help of a pattern matrix, in which correlation between the variable attitude and the factors superiority and attractiveness will be calculated. As told before, the items were placed randomly on the scale to prevent students from tending to one side and fill in the matrix mindlessly. These items will be reversed in further analysis so that all values point the same way at the end. The attitude part will be made by as well dialect-speakers as non-dialect-speakers. The mean score of both groups will be compared using a paired samples t-test for significant differences in the assessment of the fragments by dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers for both the Dutch fragment and the dialect fragments.

A regression analysis is used to compare the self-assessment and language proficiency to each other as independent factors. The dependent factor attitude is used to calculate the r^2 : in this way, it can be calculated to what extent attitude can be predicted on the basis of relation between the self-assessment and language proficiency.

III. Sub-question: *To what extent does the amount of input in the different dialect domains play a role in relation to the self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency?*

III. A factor-analysis is executed on the six domains in the input matrix. By doing so, it is likely that the factors formal and informal will emerge from this analysis. The numbers are statistically calculated to see which variable belongs to which possible factor with the help of a pattern matrix, in which the correlation between the variable input and the factors formality and informality are calculated. Cronbach's alpha is measured for the scale reliability to see to what extent the items are related as a group. The inter-item correlations will be checked to see how the items correlated to each other in the group. An independent-samples t-test is conducted to compare the means in input (number of domains in which students are exposed to dialect) of the little dialect-speakers and full dialect-speakers to each other.

A regression analysis is used to compare the self-assessment and language proficiency to each other as independent factors. The dependent factor input is used to calculate the r^2 : in this way, it can be calculated to what extent input can be predicted on the basis of relation between the self-assessment and language proficiency.

4 Results

4.1 General data

In total, 376 students have filled in the survey (195 boys and 181 girls). The survey has been taken among various schools in Drenthe. For all data, the students were divided into a category: (1) full dialect-speakers, (2) little dialect-speakers or (3) non-dialect-speakers. Overall, 20.0% of the students indicated that they fully spoke dialect, 48.4% of the students spoke a little dialect and 31.6% of the students spoke no dialect at all (as shown in table 6). The ratio of high school students who had affinity with dialect varied between the different places: Assen (41.7% affinity), Beilen (62.5% affinity), Borger (77.6% affinity), Diever (70.0% affinity), Emmen (79.7% affinity), Hogeveen (76.9% affinity), Meppel (69.7% affinity), Oosterhesselen (83.3% affinity) and Roden (22.9% affinity).³⁵

TABLE 6: GENERAL OVERVIEW DIALECT, AGE AND GENDER

	Total		Boys	Girls
Number of participants	376		195	181
<i>Bilingual by birth?</i>				
Dialect speaking: 'yes'	75 (20.0%)	82%	49	26
Dialect speaking: 'a little'	182 (48.4%)	51%	88	94
Dialect speaking: 'no'	119 (31.6%)	29%	58	61

The domiciles of the participants were also mapped: 93.8% of the dialect-speakers was raised within the province of Drenthe against 85.7% of the non-dialect-speakers. For dialect-speakers, a lot of students were raised in the area of and outer areas of Hogeveen, Emmen, Borger, Meppel and Dwingeloo. For non-dialect-speakers, a lot of students were raised in the area of Hogeveen, Meppel and Roden. In figure 4 and 5, an overview of the domiciles of the students is provided.



Figure 4: Dialect-speakers: domiciles

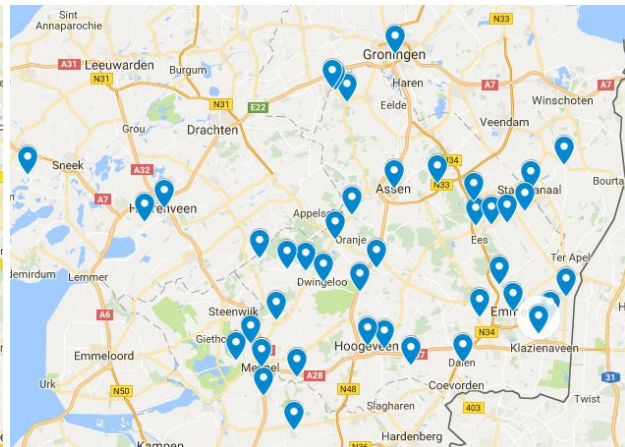


Figure 5: Non-dialect-speakers: domiciles

³⁵ For the concrete number of participants for each school, see table 2.

4.2 The relation between self-assessment and language proficiency

The main question of this thesis is focused on the relation between self-assessment and language proficiency. Before displaying the results to the main question, the outcomes of the self-assessment grid among high school students (section 4.2.1) and the results of the language proficiency test (section 4.2.2) should be discussed separately. The results will be explicated for gender as well and discussed in section 4.2.3. Last, the results considering the overall main question about the relationship between self-assessment and language proficiency will be discussed in section 4.2.4.

4.2.1 *The self-assessment grid*

On forehand, students were asked to ‘predict’ their language proficiency on the basis of three labels: basic user (low knowledge), independent user (medium knowledge) and proficient user (high knowledge). In this way, the assessment of skills in Drents dialect of high school students was asked based on their own judgment, without statements of the CEFR grid. This assessment of own abilities will be related to the self-assessment grid later on. 58 of the students (22.6%) assessed that they had a basic level of knowledge in Drents dialect. The most students assessed themselves with an independent user level and mediocre knowledge: this was a total number of 164 (63.8%) students. The last level of proficiency, the proficient user, was picked by 35 (13.6%) students. Besides, the full dialect-speakers assessed their knowledge as more proficient than the little dialect-speakers. All data is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7: ESTIMATING CEFR LABELS FOR PROFICIENCY

Knowledge	N	Dialect ‘yes’	Dialect ‘a little’
Basic user	58 (22.6%)	3 (4.0%)	55 (30.2%)
Independent user	164 (63.8%)	43 (57.3%)	121 (66.5%)
Proficient user	35 (13.6%)	29 (38.7%)	6 (3.3%)

As a sequel, students got the self-assessment grid with 21 statements about their proficiency in Drents dialect considering vocabulary, reading skills and listening skills to determine how they perceived their language skills in more detail. Points were given on the basis of commitment and indicated proficiency in Drents dialect: the more the number goes to 2, the more students fully agreed with the statement, the more the number goes to -1, the fewer students agreed with the statement. Students mostly agreed with statement 7: “I do not need subtitles to understand what is being said, if people talk in dialect on television” ($M= 1.37$; $SD= 0.86$) and the least with statement 16: “I know many words in Drents dialect, whether or not looking similar to Dutch words” ($M= 0.24$; $SD= 0.93$). A reliability analysis revealed that the self-assessment grid for Drents dialect had a high reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha= 0.89$.

The self-assessment of dialect-speakers who spoke fully dialect and dialect-speakers who spoke a little dialect was compared with an independent-samples t-test. A significant difference was found for almost all statements, except for statement 4 (*‘If I read a text, I do not skip pieces that do not seem interesting’*) and statement 10 (*‘If I do not understand a word in dialect, I use the context to extract the meaning of the word’*): both statements were focused on assessing the reading skills in Drents dialect. The dialect-speakers who indicated that they fully spoke dialect significantly assessed themselves higher in 19/21 statements than dialect-speakers who indicated that they spoke a little dialect. This difference was significant for the overall mean score of the 21 statements: $t(255)= -8.64$, $p= 0.00$. A broad overview of all tests, statements and data considering the self-assessment grid can be found in the appendix (enclosure 5).

On the basis of the statements, students were assigned a 'score'. The label 'basic user' was given to 57 (22.2%) students with a score of 10 or lower. The label 'independent user' was given to 128 (49.8%) of the students with a score between 11 and 25. The last label 'proficient user' was given to 72 (28.0%) students with a score above 25. The mean score of the basic users was 5.49 ($SD= 4.86$). The independent users had a mean score of 17.92 ($SD= 4.18$) points. The mean score of the proficient users was 32.25 ($SD= 4.30$) points. In the case of dialect-speakers who spoke a little dialect, the scores mainly fit the basic or independent user. In the case of dialect-speakers (full), the scores mainly fit the independent or proficient user. This is in accordance with the assessment of the proficiency in Drents dialect of the high school students on beforehand. Scores are displayed in table 8. Dialect-speakers (little) had a mean score of 16.0 ($SD= 9.32$) and got the label 'independent user'. Dialect-speakers who indicated that they fully spoke dialect had a mean score of 26.9 ($SD= 8.97$) and got the label 'proficient user'. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference between the two mean scores of dialect-speakers. A significant difference was found between dialect-speakers (full) and dialect-speakers (little) in the score of the self-assessment; $t(255)= -8.64, p= 0.00$.

TABLE 8: SCORE OF THE SELF-ASSESSMENT GRID BY STUDENTS

CEFR label	M	SD	Dialect: 'yes'	Dialect 'a little'	Total
Basic user	5.49	4.86	5 (6.6%)	52 (28.6%)	57 (22.2%)
Independent user	17.92	4.18	27 (36%)	101 (55.5%)	128 (49.8%)
Proficient user	32.25	4.30	43 (57.3%)	29 (15.9%)	72 (28.0%)

Last in the self-assessment component of the survey, students were also asked to grade their proficiency in dialect and the standard Dutch language with a grade from 1-10 to get a general idea of how they would rate their skills. The closer to 10, the higher they assessed their proficiency. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare language proficiency in listening, reading and vocabulary of (full) dialect-speakers and dialect-speakers who spoke a little dialect. A significant difference was found in all scores of Drents dialect in listening, reading and vocabulary between the full and little dialect-speakers. The full dialect-speakers assessed their proficiency in Drents dialect higher for all parts than the little dialect-speakers. No significant differences were found in the grades considering the skills in the Dutch language. All means and t-values are displayed in table 9.

TABLE 9: MEANS AND INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR GRADING

Question (grade 1-10)	Means		Dialect means
	M	SD	$p < 0.05^*$
Listening skills in Drents dialect	7.15	1.89	$t(254)= -5.80 p= 0.00^*$
Reading skills in Drents dialect	6.48	2.12	$t(254)= -4.63 p= 0.00^*$
Vocabulary in Drents dialect	6.56	2.14	$t(254)= -5.94 p= 0.00^*$
Listening skills in Dutch	8.81	1.61	$t(255)= -1.31 p= 0.19$
Reading skills in Dutch	8.46	1.73	$t(255)= -1.34 p= 0.18$
Vocabulary in Dutch	8.42	1.57	$t(255)= -1.98 p= 0.06$

Summarized, the little dialect-speakers assessed themselves significantly lower in proficiency in Drents dialect than the full dialect-speakers. In fact, the little dialect-speakers assessed themselves in the 'independent user' (middle) category, while the full dialect-speakers assessed themselves in the 'proficient user' (highest) category on average. Their judgement of proficiency on beforehand is in

accordance with these results. With regard to the grading of overall skills in Drents dialect and Dutch, the proficiency in Dutch was graded significantly higher than in Drents dialect. A significant difference was found between the means of the full dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers for listening, reading and vocabulary in Drents dialect (additional language for the students), but not for the Dutch language (native language of the students).

4.2.2 Language proficiency

After the self-assessment part of the survey, students continued with the language proficiency test in Drents dialect. The language proficiency test consisted of 9 reading items, 5 listening items and 23 vocabulary items. The scores were determined on the basis of a correct/incorrect system; a correct answer generated 1 point, while an incorrect answer did not yield anything. The maximum score was 74 points for all components of the test. The mean score overall of the high school students was 12 points ($SD= 3.39$). The mean score for reading was 2/18 points ($SD= 1.37$), for listening 2/10 ($SD= 0.96$) and for vocabulary 9/46 ($SD= 2.78$). The scores of full dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers were compared to each other using an independent-samples t-test. A significant difference was found between the total rough score of the language proficiency test of full dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers; $t(250)= -1.93, p= 0.05$. The scores for the full dialect-speakers were significantly higher than the scores for the little dialect-speakers, mainly due to a higher score in vocabulary for full dialect-speakers. Keeping the CEFR proficiency labels in mind, both groups were classified as ‘basic users’ regarding their proficiency in Drents dialect.

Besides the language proficiency test in Drents dialect, students were asked to indicate how certain they were about their given answers to every question. This test of confidence was taken besides the multiple-choice test to increase the reliability of the given answers.³⁶ The mean score overall of the language proficiency test, including the test of confidence, was 5/74 points ($SD= 4.89$). The mean score for reading was -0.5/18 points ($SD=2.26$), for listening 1/10 point ($SD= 1.57$) and for vocabulary 5/46 points ($SD= 3.24$). A significant difference was found between the combined scores with the test of confidence in the language proficiency of full dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers; $t(251)= -1.99, p= 0.05$, mainly due to a higher score in vocabulary for full dialect-speakers. The discussed data is shown in table 10 and 11; an overview of all data is displayed in the appendix (enclosure 6).

³⁶ The scoring format can be consulted in table 5.

TABLE 10: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: ROUGH SCORES³⁷

Rough score	Total		T-test means: Dialect 'yes' versus 'a little'
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i> = 0.05*
Total (max = 74)	12.49	3.39	t(250)= -1.93, p= 0.05*
Reading (max = 18)	2.35	1.37	t(252)= -0.81, p = 0.42
Listening (max = 10)	1.50	0.96	t(252)= 0.36, p = 0.72
Vocabulary (max = 46)	8.65	2.78	t(251)= -2.30, p= 0.03*

TABLE 11: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: TEST OF CONFIDENCE

Test of confidence	Total		T-test means: Dialect 'yes' versus 'a little'
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i> = 0.05*
Total (max = 74)	4.75	4.89	t(251)= -1.99, p = 0.05*
Reading (max = 18)	-0.53	2.26	t(252)= -1.46, p = 0.14
Listening (max = 10)	0.06	1.57	t(252)= 0.69, p = 0.49
Vocabulary (max = 46)	5.21	3.24	t(251)= -2.30, p = 0.02*

The scores that included the test of confidence were significantly lower than the rough scores; $t(251) = 49.62$, $p = 0.00$. For this reason, the total percentage of correct answers was calculated for each component in the language proficiency part attempting to clarify the given answers in relation to the score of the high school students. For the reading part, students chose the correct answer 26.14% times. They were generally quite sure about their choice of answer (44.72%). For the listening part, in 30.17% of the cases the correct answer was chosen by the students. They were generally quite sure about their choice of answer (47.95%). The last component of the language proficiency test was vocabulary. Students chose the correct answer 37.81% times and they were generally quite sure about their choice of answer (41.55%). In general, students fell for distractors with the same initial letter (48.20%) or the Dutch meaning instead of the meaning in Drents dialect (46.46%). For example, the target word *anhemmeln* 'cleaning up' was asked with the answers (1) *opruimen* 'cleaning up' (correct answer), (2) *bekijken* 'looking at' (distractor) and (3) *aanhouden* 'arresting' (distractor with the same initial letter). In the latter example, many students chose the last answer (3). In the case of false friends, students tend to choose the Dutch meaning of a word instead of the meaning in Drents dialect. For example, the word *lief* means 'kind' in Dutch, but 'body' in Drents dialect. Almost half of the students chose the Dutch meaning as the correct answer instead of the meaning in Drents dialect.

Summarized, the full dialect-speakers achieved a significant higher score in the language proficiency test for Drents dialect than the little dialect-speakers. However, both groups are classified in the 'basic user' category regarding their proficiency in Drents dialect. The difference between full dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers was mainly situated in the vocabulary part: full dialect-speakers had a larger vocabulary than the little dialect-speakers in Drents dialect. The test of confidence revealed that students were generally insecure about their answers: these scores were 7.5 points lower on average than the rough scores (for insecurity, -0.25 points were taken away on average for each question). This means that students felt insecure about a third of the test in general. Besides that, students tend to choose distractors that looked alike the target word (initial letter) or the Dutch meaning instead of the meaning in Drents dialect resulting in a high level of insecurity.

³⁷ Yes x little: dialect-speakers who indicated that they fully spoke dialect were characterized as 'dialect=yes', dialect-speakers who indicated that they spoke a little dialect were assigned with the label 'dialect=a little'

4.2.3 Self-assessment and language proficiency: gender

As explained in section 2.4, all results are explicated for boys and girls since research has shown that girls tend to overestimate and boys tend to underestimate themselves in the self-assessment of their own proficiency (Harrane, 2003; Broeder & Arts, 2005). For this reason, the results of the proficiency test are separated for boys and girls too, to compare the self-assessment of their proficiency in Drents dialect with their actual proficiency. On forehand, students were asked to assess their skills in Drents dialect in general (basic, independent or proficient user), without statements of the CEFR grid. On average, boys and girls assessed themselves as ‘independent users’ of Drents dialect. No large differences were found within the groups for the three categories. All values are displayed in table 12.

TABLE 12: ESTIMATING CEFR LABELS FOR PROFICIENCY

Knowledge	N	Girls	Boys
Basic user	58 (22.6%)	31 (25.8%)	27 (19.7%)
Independent user	164 (63.8%)	78 (65.0%)	86 (62.8%)
Proficient user	35 (13.6%)	11 (9.2%)	24 (17.5%)

The second part of the survey consisted of the self-assessment grid. Overall, boys tend to assess themselves with a higher proficiency in Drents dialect than girls. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference between boys and girls for all statements of the grid statistically. In 19/21 of the statements, boys agreed more with the statements than girls. For 6/21 statements, boys assessed themselves significantly higher ($M= 20.68$; $SD= 10.43$) than girls ($M=17.47$; $SD= 10.21$); $t(255)= -2.49$, $p= 0.01$. These scores match the CEFR label ‘independent user’ on average: 64% of all students already estimated that their proficiency level would be mediocre (see table 12). No significant differences were found between boys and girls in the grading with regard to the students’ skills in reading, listening and vocabulary. The differences in assessment between boys and girls using the self-assessment grid were mainly found within the assessment of the listening skills of the students in Drents dialect:

- **statement 1:** ‘I have no difficulty to understand dialect when the sentences are long’
 $M=0.72$; $SD= 0.94$; $t(255)= -2.82$, $p= 0.00$
- **statement 12:** ‘I think it is easy to understand, if people talk in dialect on television’
 $M= 1.08$; $SD= 0.91$; $t(255)= -2.62$, $p= 0.01$
- **statement 16:** ‘I know many words in Drents dialect, whether or not looking similar to Dutch words’
 $M= 0.24$; $SD= 0.93$; $t(255)= -2.37$, $p= 0.02$
- **statement 18:** ‘I can understand hard, difficult words perfectly’
 $M= 0.82$; $SD= 0.89$; $t(255)= -2.87$, $p= 0.00$
- **statement 19:** ‘I do not have to ask if people want to repeat a word/sentence repeatedly if they talk in dialect’
 $M= 1.05$; $SD= 0.88$; $t(255)= -1.94$, $p= 0.05$
- **statement 20:** ‘If people talk to me in Drents dialect, I do not mind what type of words are used (easy/difficult)’
 $M= 0.81$; $SD= 0.92$, $t(255)= -2.49$, $p= 0.01$

The students finished the survey completing the language proficiency test in Drents dialect. Boys scored barely perceptible higher ($M= 12.55$; $SD= 3.26$) than girls ($M= 12.43$; $SD= 3.54$): these rough scores did not significantly differ from each other ($t(250)= -0.28$, $p= 0.78$). These scores would divide

the students into the 'basic user' level. The test of confidence also showed no mutual differences within the groups. A broad overview of all conducted tests and data considering the grading part can be found in the appendix (enclosure 7).

All in all, there are generally no differences between boys and girls for the self-assessment of language proficiency in Drents dialect. Generally, boys assessed themselves higher in Drents dialect than girls, but this difference was not significant for 15/21 statements. For the language proficiency, boys scored hardly better than girls on average, but this difference was also not significant. For the current research, boys and girls assessed themselves as 'independent users' in Drents dialect (with the help of the self-assessment grid), but the language proficiency test showed that boys and girls are basic users in Drents dialect. Both boys and girls tend to overestimate their language abilities in Drents dialect.

4.2.4 Relation between self-assessment and language proficiency

The main question of this research is focused on the relation between self-assessment and language proficiency in Drents dialect. In section 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, these two parts were discussed separately and the main results were explicated. In the previous sections, differences were found between full and little dialect-speakers regarding their self-assessment and language proficiency in Drents dialect, but no mutual differences were found in gender for these two components. Therefore, besides the overall relationship between self-assessment and language proficiency, the relationship between these two factors will be discussed in the light of affinity with dialect (full and little dialect-speakers), but not in relation to gender.

A Pearson's correlation was used to measure the degree of coherence between the self-assessment and language proficiency of high school students. The strength of the relationship depends on the correlation coefficient: 0-0.30 indicates a weak relationship between the two variables, 0.31-0.70 a moderate relationship and 0.71-1 a strong relationship. Both the relation between self-assessment and the rough score and self-assessment and the test of confidence were measured. Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that a significant weak positive association between self-assessment and rough scores ($r(252) = 0.30, p = 0.00$) and a significant weak positive association between self-assessment and scores with the test of confidence included was found ($r(253) = 0.25, p = 0.00$).

For dialect-speakers who indicated that they spoke a little dialect, a Pearson correlation showed that a significant moderate positive association was found between self-assessment and rough scores ($r(180) = 0.36, p = 0.00$) and a significant weak positive association and scores with the test of confidence included ($r(180) = 0.24, p = 0.00$). For dialect-speakers who indicated that they fully spoke dialect, a Pearson correlation showed a weak positive association between self-assessment and rough scores ($r(72) = 0.09, p = 0.45$) and a weak positive association between self-assessment and scores with the test of confidence included ($r(73) = 0.19, p = 0.11$). No significant result was found in the last two correlations. All data is shown in table 13.

Summarized, mainly weak positive associations were found between the self-assessment of language proficiency and actual language proficiency in Drents dialect. Based on the current results, the little dialect-speakers (moderate association) are more capable of assessing their language skills than the full dialect-speakers (weak association). Still, the coherence between self-assessment and language proficiency is generally weak overall.

TABLE 13: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELF-ASSESSMENT AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY IN DRENTS DIALECT

Dialect?	Scores	Pearson's correlation	Explanation
		$p < 0.05^*$	
Total	Rough	$r(252) = 0.30, p = 0.00^*$	Weak positive association
	Test of confidence	$r(253) = 0.25, p = 0.00^*$	Weak positive association
Dialect: 'yes'	Rough	$r(72) = 0.09, p = 0.45$	Weak positive association
	Test of confidence	$r(73) = 0.19, p = 0.11$	Weak positive association
Dialect: 'a little'	Rough	$r(180) = 0.36, p = 0.00^*$	Moderate positive association
	Test of confidence	$r(180) = 0.24, p = 0.00^*$	Weak positive association

4.3 *The role of attitude with regard to self-assessment and language proficiency*

A part of the survey consisted of mapping the attitude of all students towards dialect and Dutch fragments. These results will be compared to self-assessment and language proficiency separately, to explore whether a correlation between those factors can be found. On forehand, dialect-speakers (full and little) were asked about their feeling towards their dialect on a Likert scale 1-5 (1 = very negative, 5 = very positive) to determine how they faced their own dialect in general: dialect-speakers who fully spoke dialect had a *very positive* attitude towards their dialect ($M = 4.77; SD = 0.45$) and dialect-speakers who spoke a little dialect had a *positive* attitude towards their dialect ($M = 3.88; SD = 0.94$). Overall, small differences were found between boys and girls in the attitude towards their dialect, but this difference was not significant on average; $t(255) = -1.27, p = 0.21$. Therefore, the results considering the attitude towards the fragments will not be further discussed for gender, but only for the difference in affinity with dialect (full vs. little dialect-speakers). All results are displayed in table 14.

TABLE 14: FEELING TOWARDS DIALECT BY STUDENTS

Feeling towards dialect	Total		Boys		Girls	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Total average	4.14	0.92	4.21	0.98	4.07	0.84
Dialect speaking: 'yes'	4.77	0.45	4.82	0.44	4.69	0.47
Dialect speaking: 'a little'	3.88	0.94	3.88	1.04	3.89	0.84

Attitude was measured on the basis of five fragments, four in dialect and one in the standard Dutch language. All students got to judge the different fragments on the basis of six contradictions. A factor-analysis was carried out to determine if the contradictions could be divided into factors (superiority and attractiveness). The factor-analysis did not yield clear, unambiguous results with regard to the two factors; the statements were assigned to each of the two factors for no apparent reason. Therefore, all factors have been analyzed separately and will be discussed below. The most important results are displayed below with a concise explanation for each contradiction in table 15.

a. old-fashioned – modern

On average, the Dutch language was assessed as very modern ($M= 4.43$; $SD= 1.03$), while the dialects were perceived as a bit old-fashioned ($M= 2.79$; $SD= 0.84$). A significant difference was found between the assessment of the Dutch language and dialects on this contradiction; $t(373)= -26.36$, $p= 0.00$, in which the Dutch language was perceived as more modern than the dialects on average.

No significant differences were found between the means of the attitude of the three groups (with different dialect backgrounds) for the fragments overall. All students assessed the dialects as more old-fashioned than the Dutch fragment. The results are graphically displayed in figure 6.

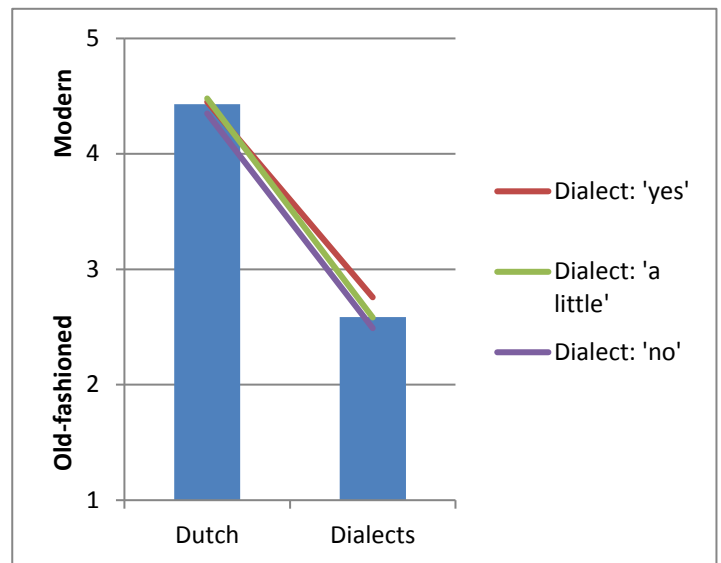


Figure 6: Attitude towards Dutch & Dialects: old-fashioned vs. modern

b. sociable – unsociable

For the contradiction sociable vs. unsociable, both the Dutch and dialect fragments were assessed as quite sociable on average. However, a significant difference between the means of the dialects ($M= 2.88$; $SD= 0.80$) and the Dutch fragment ($M= 2.58$; $SD= 1.38$) was found overall; $t(373)= 3.61$, $p= 0.00$, in which the Dutch language was perceived more sociable than the dialects.

Considering the various backgrounds of the students with regard to dialect, a dichotomy was found between the assessment of the full dialect-speakers, little dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers. As shown in figure 7, the full dialect-speakers (red line) assessed the Dutch fragment as more *unsociable* than the dialect fragments, while the little dialect-speakers (green line) and non-dialect-speakers (purple line) assessed the dialect fragments significantly more *unsociable* than the Dutch fragment.

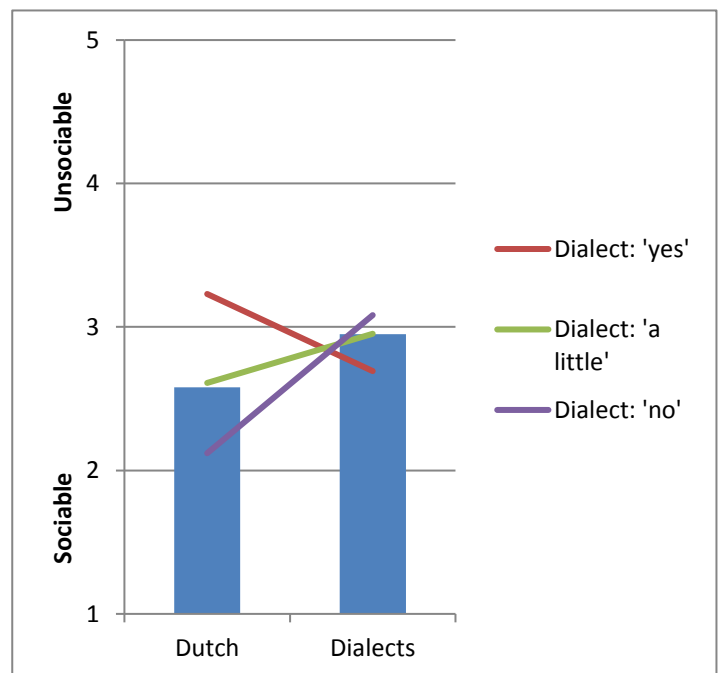


Figure 7: Attitude towards Dutch & Dialects: sociable vs. unsociable

c. countrified – civilized

The Dutch language was assessed as really civilized ($M= 4.43$; $SD= 0.91$), while the dialects were perceived as quite countrified ($M= 2.59$; $SD= 0.82$) on average. A significant difference was found between the means of the assessment of the dialect and Dutch fragments; $t(373)= -28.54$, $p= 0.00$, in which the Dutch language was perceived more civilized than the dialects. No significant differences were found between the means of the three groups (with different dialect backgrounds) for the fragments separately. All students assessed the dialects as more countrified than the Dutch fragment. The results are graphically displayed in figure 8.

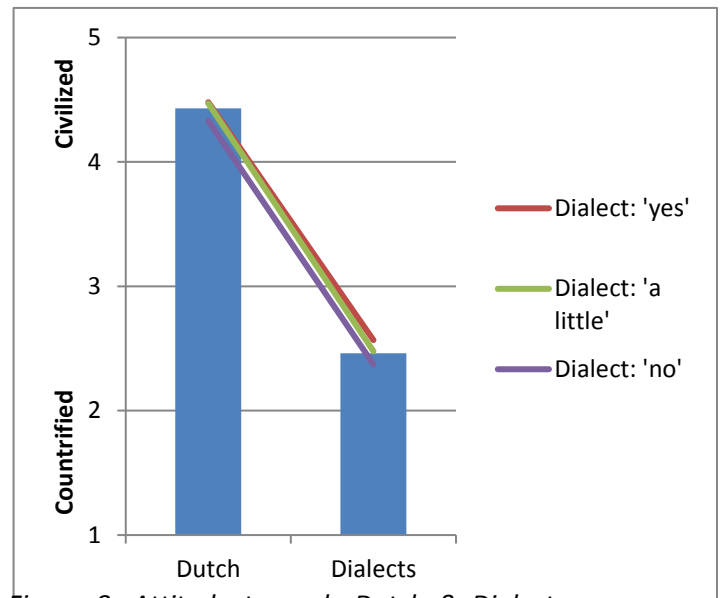


Figure 8: Attitude towards Dutch & Dialects: countrified vs. civilized

d. seriously – funny

In the assessment of the dialects and dialect language, almost all fragments were assessed in the direction of seriousness: all fragments were assessed as having a serious character on average. In general, the Dutch language was perceived quite serious ($M= 2.06$; $SD= 1.18$) and the dialects as neither serious nor funny ($M= 2.84$; $SD= 0.83$). A significant difference was found in the assessment of the dialects and the Dutch fragment: $t(373)= 10.31$, $p= 0.00$, in which the Dutch fragment was assessed as more serious than the dialect fragments. Considering the dialect affinity of the high school students, no significant differences were found. All students perceived both the Dutch as the dialect fragments as rather seriously.

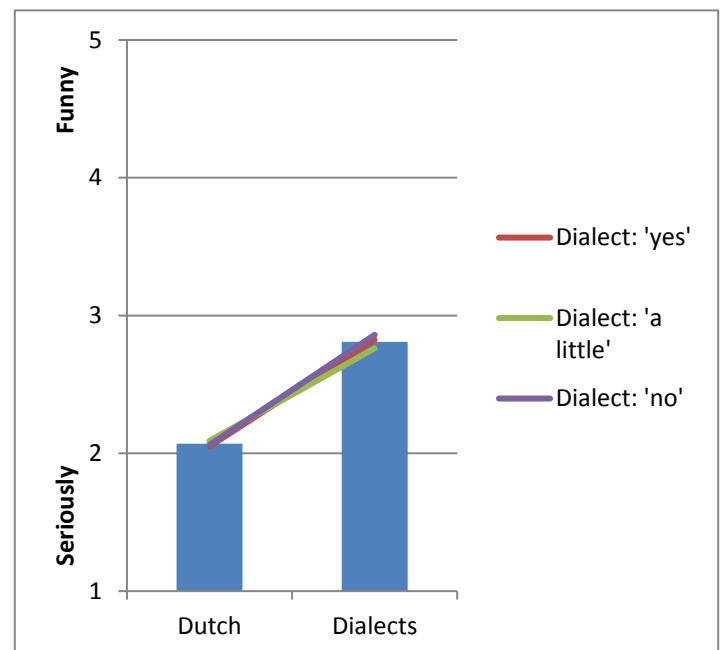


Figure 9: Attitude towards Dutch & Dialects: seriously vs. funny

e. pretty – ugly

For the contradiction pretty versus ugly, the standard language was perceived as most pretty ($M= 2.56$; $SD= 1.36$, while the dialects were assessed as neither pretty nor ugly ($M= 3.10$; $SD= 0.87$). A significant difference was found between the two means; the Dutch fragment was perceived as prettier than the dialects: $t(373)= 6.09$, $p= 0.00$.

Considering the various backgrounds of the students with regard to dialect, a dichotomy was found between the assessment of the full, little and non-dialect-speakers. The full dialect-speakers assessed the dialect fragments as *prettier* than the Dutch fragment, while the little dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers assessed the Dutch fragment as *prettier* than the dialect fragments (as shown in figure 10 as well).

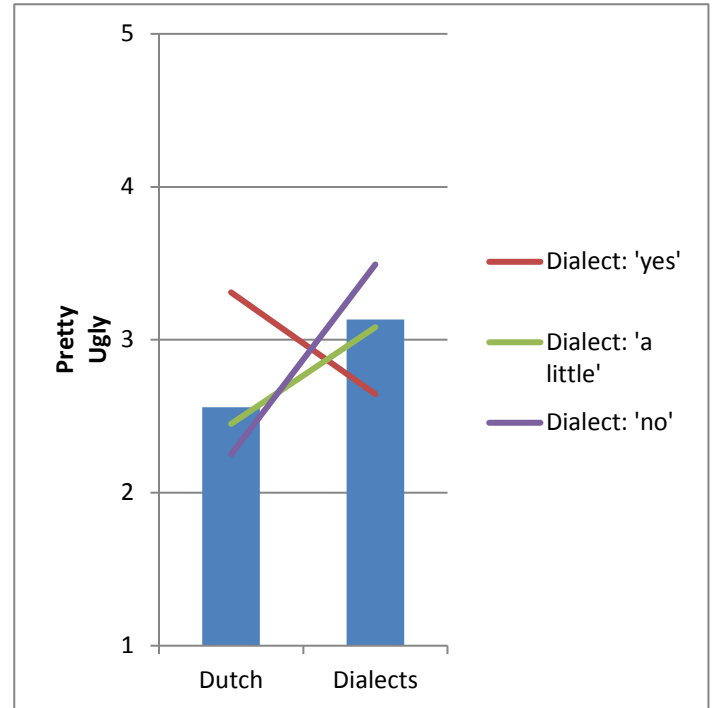


Figure 10: Attitude towards Dutch & Dialects: pretty vs. ugly

f. silly – intelligent

In general, the Dutch language ($M= 3.77$; $SD= 1.24$) was assessed more intelligent than the dialects ($M= 2.90$; $SD= 0.79$). The dialects were perceived as neither silly nor intelligent, while the Dutch fragment was assessed quite intelligent by the students on average. This difference was significant; $t(373)= -10.95$, $p= 0.00$, in which the Dutch language was perceived more intelligent than the dialects.

Considering the various backgrounds of the students with regard to dialect, a dichotomy was found between the assessment of the full dialect-speakers, little dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers. The full dialect-speakers assessed both the dialect fragments as the Dutch fragment equally, which means that they assessed the fragments as neither silly nor intelligent. On the other hand, the little dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers assessed the Dutch fragment as *more intelligent* than the dialect fragments (as shown in figure 11 as well).

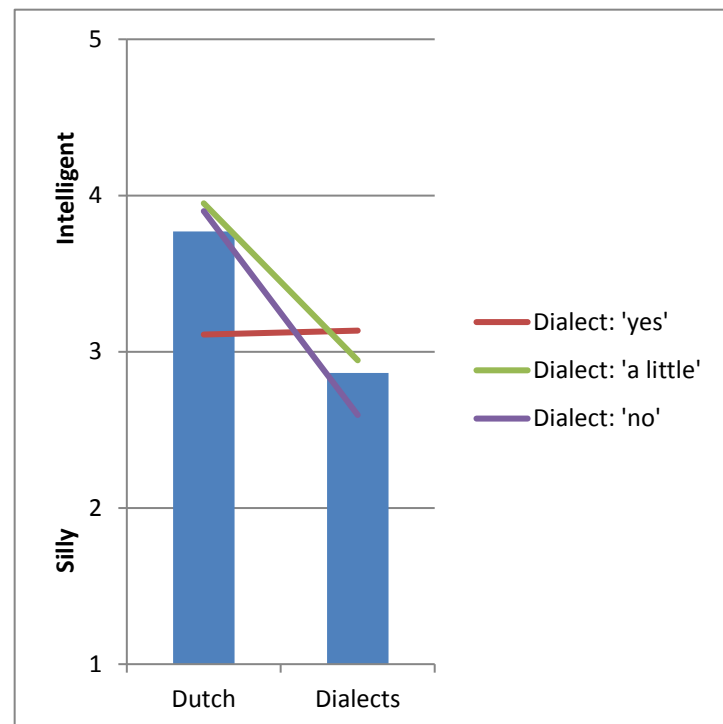


Figure 11: Attitude towards Dutch & Dialects: silly vs. intelligent

In figure 12 (area abbreviations as explained in section 1.2), an overview of all attitudes of the students towards the Dutch and dialect fragments is displayed. In general, the Dutch language (D) is assessed as more modern, more civilized, more serious, prettier and more intelligent than the dialects. This difference was significant for all six contradictions (as displayed in table 15). For three contradictions (1. Sociable vs. unsociable; 2. Pretty vs. ugly; 3. Silly vs. intelligent), a difference was found between the full dialect-speakers on the one hand and the little dialect-speakers and the non-dialect-speakers on the other hand. The full dialect-speakers judged the fragments exactly inverted in relation to the other two groups (little and non-dialect-speakers). In the case of sociable vs. unsociable and pretty vs. ugly: full dialect-speakers assessed the Dutch language as more unsociable and uglier than the dialect fragments, opposite to the other two groups. The contradiction silly vs. intelligent showed a clear difference in the assessment of little and non-dialect-speakers, who assessed the Dutch language as more intelligent than the dialects, while the full dialect-speakers indicated that they did not notice any difference in intelligence between the speakers of the fragments. So overall, the assessment of the little dialect-speakers and the non-dialect-speakers mostly matched, while the assessment of the full dialect-speakers differed from the two other groups at times.

For all six contradictions, the most important results are summarized in table 15 below. An extended overview of all results is displayed in the appendix, enclosure 8.

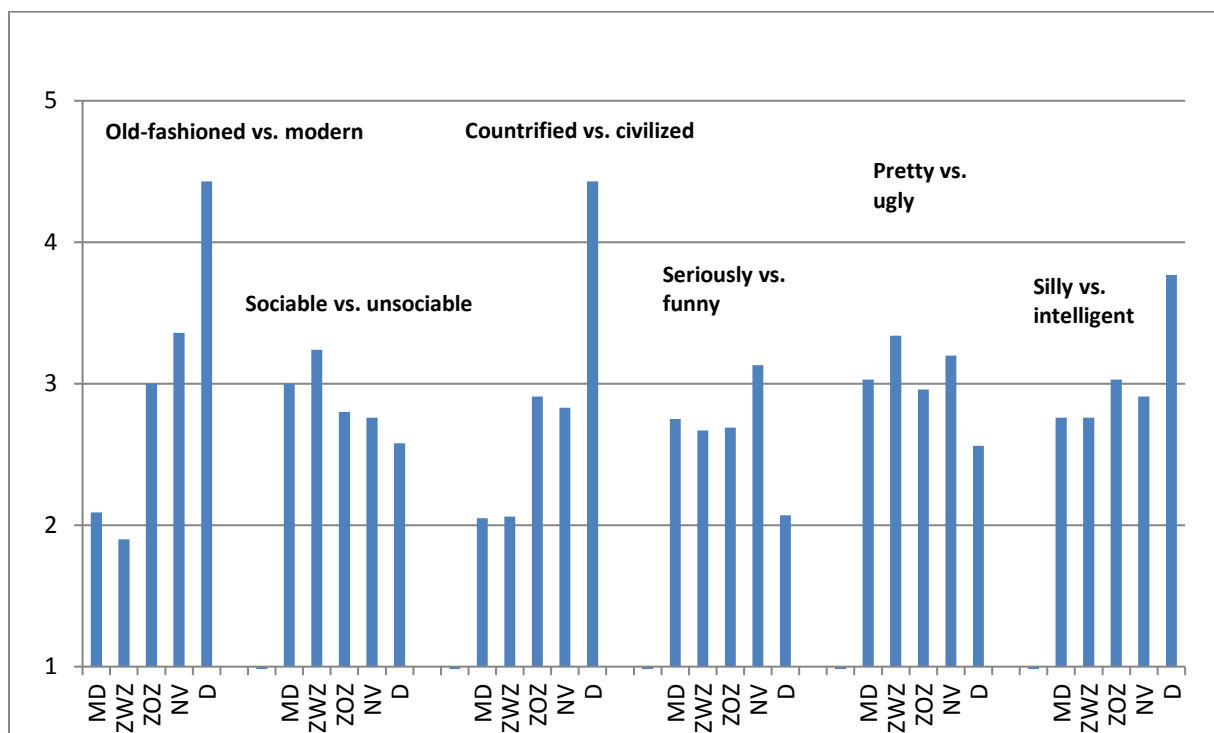


Figure 12: Overview attitude towards Dutch and dialect fragments by the students

TABLE 15: ATTITUDE IN THREE GROUPS: DIALECT (YES), DIALECT (LITTLE) AND DIALECT (NO)

Attitude statements	Dialects		Dutch		Paired-samples t-test (dialect versus Dutch)	ANOVA (dialect no x little x yes)	Bonferroni post-hoc test
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$p < 0.05^*$	$p < 0.05^*$	$p < 0.05^*$
Old-fashioned vs. Modern	2.79	0.84	4.43	1.03	$t(373) = -26.36,$ $p = 0.00^*$	$F(2,371) = 1.561,$ $p = 0.21$	-
Sociable vs. Unsociable	2.88	0.80	2.58	1.38	$t(373) = 3.61,$ $p = 0.00^*$	$F(2,371) = 3.612,$ $p = 0.03^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.02^*$
Countrified vs. Civilized	2.59	0.82	4.43	0.91	$t(373) = -28.54,$ $p = 0.00^*$	$F(2,371) = 0.802,$ $p = 0.45$	-
Seriously vs. Funny	2.84	0.83	2.06	1.18	$t(373) = 10.31,$ $p = 0.00^*$	$F(2,219) = 0.850,$ $p = 0.43$	-
Pretty vs. Ugly	3.10	0.87	2.56	1.36	$t(373) = 6.09,$ $p = 0.00^*$	$F(2,219) = 4.064,$ $p = 0.02^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.02^*$
Silly vs. Intelligent	2.90	0.79	3.77	1.23	$t(373) = -10.95,$ $p = 0.00^*$	$F(2,219) = 2.805,$ $p = 0.06$	-

Last, a multiple-regression analysis showed that the attitude counted for 8.6% of the explained variance in relation to self-assessment and language proficiency. A Pearson's correlation revealed that both the relation between self-assessment and attitude was significant weak: $r(374) = 0.22$ $p = 0.00$, and the relation between language proficiency and attitude was weak as well: $r(374) = 0.11$, $p = 0.08$.

4.4 *The role of input with regard to self-assessment and language proficiency*

A part of the survey consisted of mapping the number of domains in which the students were exposed to dialect. These results will be compared to self-assessment and language proficiency separately, to explore whether a correlation between those factors can be found. Before indicating the domains of dialect, students were asked to write down the name of the dialect they were able to speak. Mostly, the names 'Drents, Drens, Drentse, Drenthe, Drenths, Drenthes, Drent's, Drentsch, Drends, and plat' (targeting: Drents dialect) were mentioned. Students were asked if they were raised bilingually with Drents dialect by birth: 49/60 (82%) of the full dialect-speakers indicated that they were raised bilingually. Among the dialect-speakers who spoke a little dialect, 74/146 (51%) indicated that they were raised with their dialect by birth. For the non-dialect-speakers, 30/105 (29%) indicated that they were raised with another language besides the Dutch language.³⁸

Students were asked to rank the amount of input they received for each domain: almost never (1), once in a while (2), often (3) or almost always (4). Most students indicated that they came in contact once in a while with dialect in all domains ($M = 2.32$; $SD = 0.72$). The domains 'parents' and 'grandparents' were assessed as the domain with the most possibilities to come into contact with dialect, followed by the domain of 'friends'. The domains 'teachers', 'staff' and 'social media' were seen as the least attractive domains for dialect. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means for the input of dialect for speakers who spoke fully and little dialect. A significant difference was found for all six domains in input between the means of the full dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers, in which the dialect-speakers spoke significantly more dialect in each domain than the little dialect-speakers: $t(253) = -7.13$, $p = 0.00$. The domain 'parents' was assessed with the

³⁸ This question was added later on the request of NHL Stenden, to see if bilingual/multilingual students had a more positive attitude towards dialects than monolingual students. The total amount of students that participated in this question is therefore lower than the total number of students that participated in the survey.

highest amount of input for both groups, while the lowest amount of input manifested in the domain ‘teachers’. All means are displayed in table 16.

TABLE 16: INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR INPUT AND DIALECT AFFINITY

Input	Total		Dialect: ‘yes’		Dialect ‘a little’		Independent samples t-test <i>p</i> < 0.05*
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Parents	2.76	1.17	3.41	0.91	2.50	1.16	<i>t</i> (254)= -6.05, <i>p</i> = 0.00*
Friends	2.41	1.18	2.99	1.08	2.17	1.14	<i>t</i> (254)= -5.24, <i>p</i> = 0.00*
Teachers	1.56	0.93	1.77	1.07	1.47	0.86	<i>t</i> (253)= -2.36, <i>p</i> = 0.02*
Grandparents	2.77	1.13	3.24	1.00	2.57	1.12	<i>t</i> (254)= -4.45, <i>p</i> = 0.00*
Staff	1.68	0.97	2.01	1.10	1.54	0.87	<i>t</i> (254)= -3.61, <i>p</i> = 0.00*
Social media	1.88	1.06	2.20	1.15	1.76	1.00	<i>t</i> (254)= -3.13, <i>p</i> = 0.00*

A factor analysis was executed on the six domains of input to see if any domains could be taken together as a separate factor. Two components could be extracted from the existing data, which will be called the ‘formal’ and ‘informal’ factor. The matrix showed that the domains parents and grandparents could be attributed to the informal factor (since the difference is > 0.2 between the two factors in the matrix and is higher charged at the second component (informal) than the first component (formal). The correlation coefficients are displayed in table 17. The domains friends, staff, teachers and social media can be attributed to the formal factor according to the factor analysis. The correlation between the two factors was *r*(255) = 0.40, *p* = 0.00. A reliability analysis showed that the two domain factors had an acceptable high reliability, Cronbach’s alpha = 0.72.

TABLE 17: COMPONENT MATRIX WITH CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Domain	Component 1: ‘formal’	Component 2: ‘informal’
Parents		0.62
Friends	0.73	
Teachers	0.79	
Grandparents		0.95
Staff	0.52	
Social media	0.79	

A multiple-regression analysis showed that the input [factor formal] counted for 6.5% and the input [factor informal] counted for 22.4% of the explained variance in relation to self-assessment and language proficiency. In total, 28.9% of the variance can be explained by the factor input. The inter-item correlation was calculated on 0.40. A Pearson’s correlation revealed for the formal factor a weak positive significant association between self-assessment and input; *r*(255)= 0.27, *p*= 0.00, but no association between language proficiency and input; *r*(251)= 0.06, *p*= 0.36. For the informal factor, a Pearson’s correlation revealed a moderate positive significant association between self-assessment and input; *r*(256)= 0.47, *p*= 0.00, and a weak positive significant association between language proficiency and input; *r*(252)= 0.23, *p*= 0.00. All results are displayed in table 18.

TABLE 18: THE ROLE OF INPUT WITH REGARD TO SELF-ASSESSMENT AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Input	Component	Pearson's correlation	Explanation
Total	<i>Self-assessment</i>	$p < 0.05^*$ $r(255) = 0.45, p = 0.00^*$	Moderate positive association
	<i>Language proficiency</i>	$r(251) = 0.18, p = 0.00^*$	Weak positive association
Formal factor	<i>Self-assessment</i>	$r(255) = 0.27, p = 0.00^*$	Weak positive association
	<i>Language proficiency</i>	$r(251) = 0.06, p = 0.36$	No association
Informal factor	<i>Self-assessment</i>	$r(256) = 0.47, p = 0.00^*$	Moderate positive association
	<i>Language proficiency</i>	$r(252) = 0.23, p = 0.00^*$	Weak positive association

Summarized, the six domains can be classified on the basis of two factors: informal and formal domains. Parents and grandparents are seen as informal settings, while the other four domains (friends, teachers, staff, and social media) are seen as formal settings. In the informal domains, significantly more contact with dialect is usual than in the formal domains. The full dialect-speakers came significantly more in contact with dialect in all domains compared to the little dialect-speakers. 82% of the full dialect-speakers was raised with dialect by birth, while 51% of the little dialect-speakers was raised with dialect by birth by (grand)parents. This would explain the high amount of contact in these informal domains in relation to the formal domains. A moderate association was found between input and self-assessment, which means that a high exposure to dialect in many domains is related to a high score on the self-assessment grid or the other way around.

4.5 Opinions and language affinity

The students also got a few questions about their opinions about Drents dialect itself and Drents dialect in education. The questions will be displayed below and then briefly explained.

- ✓ Students with dialect affinity got the following three questions. For all questions, students could answer if they fully disagreed (-1), quite disagreed (0), quite agreed (1) or fully agreed (2): the same scoring format as the self-assessment grid.

1. *I like the sound of Drents dialect a lot more than the sound of the Dutch language*

Dialect-speakers who indicated that they fully spoke dialect agreed with the statement that Drents dialect sounded more beautiful than the Dutch language ($M = 1.15$; $SD = 1.11$). Dialect-speakers who indicated that they spoke a little dialect disagreed more with the statement and indicated that they liked the Dutch language more ($M = 0.29$; $SD = 1.09$). An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the dialect-speakers (full vs. little). A significant difference was found in the means of the two groups: $t(255) = -5.72, p = 0.00$, which means that the full dialect-speakers preferred the sound of Drents dialect more than the little dialect-speakers did.

2. *Drents should be a course in high school education*

Students were asked if they would see Drents dialect as a separate course in high school education (next to regular courses like German and French). Full dialect-speakers indicated that they quite agreed with this statement and that they could see Drents dialect as a school course ($M= 1.00$; $SD= 1.23$). Dialect-speakers who only spoke a little dialect quite disagreed with this statement and were less positive about Drents dialect as a course in high school education ($M= 0.18$; $SD= 1.14$). A significant difference was found between the two groups: $t(165)= -4.27$, $p= 0.00$, in which the dialect-speakers (full) were more positive about the idea of Drents dialect in high school education than dialect-speakers (little).

3. *I would mind if Drents dialect would disappear completely*

Last, students were asked if they would mind not seeing and hearing the Drents dialect around anymore. The dialect-speakers who indicated that they only spoke a little dialect stated that they would not like it at all when the Drents dialect would disappear ($M= 1.12$; $SD= 1.02$). The dialect-speakers who indicated that they fully spoke dialect stated that they would certainly mind the disappearance of Drents dialect ($M= 1.61$; $SD= 0.86$). An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the two groups: a significant difference was found $t(165)= -3.04$, $p= 0.00$, in which the dialect-speakers (full) agreed more with the statement than dialect-speakers (little). In table 19, an overview of the data about all these three statements is provided.

All in all, full dialect-speakers are more positive about the existence and preservation of Drents dialect than little dialect-speakers. The latter group would mind if Drents dialect disappeared as a language, but is not willing to invest time in learning Drents dialect (better) in high school. The sound of Drents dialect is perceived by this group as unpleasant, while the full dialect-speakers prefer the sound of Drents dialect over the Dutch language.

TABLE 19: INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR OPINIONS AND DIALECT AFFINITY

Statement	Dialect 'yes'			Dialect 'little'			Independent samples t-test $p < 0.05^*$
	n^{39}	M	SD	n	M	SD	
1	75	1.15	1.11	182	0.29	1.09	$t(255)= -5.72$, $p= 0.00^*$
2	54	1.00	1.23	113	0.18	1.14	$t(165)= -4.27$, $p= 0.00^*$
3	54	1.61	0.86	113	1.12	1.02	$t(165)= -3.04$, $p= 0.00^*$

✓ Students with no dialect affinity got the following four questions:

1. *Do you think it is important that Drents dialect should continue to exist? (and why?)*

For this question, students got a yes/no answer, with an open answer box behind that had to be filled in before continuing to the next question. 53.78% ($n= 64$) of the students stated that they did not find it important if the Drents dialect would exist or not, while 46.22% of the students ($n=55$) indicated that they did find it important for Drents dialect to exist.

Explanations for the answer that Drents dialect does not necessarily have to exist are shown in the block below. Common answers that were mentioned were related to the appreciation of the language

³⁹ The number of participants differs for this question, due to the fact that this question was included later in the survey for a complete image on dialect in education in both groups.

(no affinity, outdated), own skills with regard to the language (not able to speak/understand) and language range within the country (the Dutch language has a wider coverage).

- *The Dutch language is more useful in other cities*
- *If you are not raised with Drents dialect, you cannot understand the language*
- *I have no affinity with Drents dialect*
- *A lot of people are not able to read or understand Drents dialect*
- *It is outdated*
- *Drents dialect is not used by a lot of people anymore*
- *I make no use of Drents dialect by myself*
- *I cannot speak/understand the language*
- *Actually, I do not care so much if Drents dialect would disappear or continue to exist*

Explanations for the answer that Drents dialect needs to exist are shown in the block below. Common answers that were mentioned were related to the uniqueness of the language (own language, part of the culture, special) and the fact that everyone must be able to express themselves in a language that is important to him/her.

- *It is special for the Netherlands*
- *A lot of people speak Drents dialect*
- *Drents dialect is nice*
- *Some people like to speak their own language and I think that it should be possible in the Netherlands*
- *It is part of Drenthe*
- *Drents dialect exists already for a long time*
- *People are raised with Drents dialect as a native language*
- *Drents dialect is a culture of its own with an own history*
- *Especially older people speak Drents dialect and the language is part of Drenthe*
- *I do not care if Drents dialect would disappear or continue to exist*
- *Drents dialect is a funny language*

2. Which language is the most important to you? [Drents dialect, Dutch, English]

Students were asked to rank three languages (Drents, Dutch and English); in which 1 was the most important language and 3 was the least important language. Drents dialect got a mean of 2.75 ($SD=0.54$), the Dutch language got a mean of 1.45 ($SD=0.59$) and the English language got a score of 1.80 ($SD=0.68$) on average. In general, 79.83% of the high school students ranked Drents dialect as the least important language (3) in total. The Dutch language was assessed as the most important language by 59.66% of the high school students, while the English language received second place by 49.58% of the students. A paired-samples t-test showed a significant difference between Drents and Dutch ($t(118)=21.97$, $p=0.00$) and Drents and English ($t(118)=25.28$, $p=0.00$). No significant difference was found between the mean rankings of Dutch and English ($t(118)=0.62$, $p=0.54$). The results are displayed in table 20.

TABLE 20: RANKINGS DUTCH, ENGLISH AND DRENTS

Language	Rank			Mean	SD	Paired-samples t-test
	1	2	3			
Drents	5.04% (6)	15.13% (18)	79.83% (95)	2.75	0.54	$p < 0.05^*$ Drents x English $t(118) = 25.28, p = 0.00^*$
English	35.29% (42)	49.58% (59)	15.13% (18)	1.80	0.68	English x Dutch $t(118) = 0.62, p = 0.54$
Dutch	59.66% (71)	35.28% (42)	5.04% (6)	1.45	0.59	Dutch x Drents $t(118) = 21.97, p = 0.00^*$

3. How do you like the sound of the following languages? [Drents dialect, Dutch, English]

Students were asked to rate the likeability of three languages: Dutch, Drents and English. The Dutch language was assessed as most pleasant ($M = 3.24$; $SD = 0.56$), 67.23% of the students labeled the Dutch language as quite pleasant to hear. The Dutch language was followed by the English language ($M = 3.11$; $SD = 0.87$). The English language was perceived quite pleasant by 43.22% of the high school students and even totally pleasant by 37.29% of students. Last, Drents dialect was assessed as quite unpleasant to hear ($M = 2.18$; $SD = 0.87$) by 42.24% of the high school students. Table 21 shows an overview of the distribution of high school students in the sound rating of the languages.

TABLE 21: SOUND RATING DIFFERENT LANGUAGES

Language	Sound rating			
	Totally unpleasant	Quite unpleasant	Quite pleasant	Totally pleasant
Dutch	1.68% (2)	1.68% (2)	67.23% (80)	29.41% (35)
Drents	23.28% (27)	42.24% (49)	27.59% (32)	6.90% (8)
English	6.78% (8)	12.71% (15)	43.22% (51)	37.29% (44)

4. *Would you like to learn Drents dialect? (and why?)*

Last, the students with no affinity with Drents dialect were asked if they were willing to learn Drents dialect. 81.51% (97) of the high school students stated that they were not willing to learn the language, opposite to 18.49% (22) of the students who indicated that they would like to learn Drents dialect.

Explanations for the answer that they were not willing to learn Drents dialect are shown in the block below. Common answers that were mentioned were related to language coverage (small language coverage in the Netherlands, international more useful), the difficulty of learning the language and the language sound (unpleasant):

- *I do not feel like doing that*
- *It is useless*
- *I do not like the dialect*
- *I am not really into the dialect*
- *I do not like the sound that much*
- *I prefer learning another language than Drents dialect in that way*
- *I do not like the dialect*
- *I think learning Drents dialect is really difficult*
- *I would rather prefer learning more international languages*
- *The Dutch language is more important, since everyone can understand that language*

Explanations for the answer that they would like to learn Drents dialect are shown in the block below. Common answers that were mentioned were related to the possible use of the language in the peer-group and the general appearance of the language (seems interesting/funny to learn):

- *You can understand people with the same dialect in that way*
- *It looks like fun if I could speak that language*
- *Speaking other languages is fun*
- *It seems very interesting*
- *It seems very funny*
- *It seems like a nice language and not so difficult to learn*
- *My friends are able to speak the language in contrast to myself, so it would be nice if I could speak the language as well*

All in all, non-dialect-speakers are generally not thrilled about learning or preserving Drents dialect. More than 80% of the students does not feel the need to learn Drents dialect and more than half of the students would not mind if Drents dialect would disappear completely. Drents dialect is seen as the least important language: international languages like English are given preference and priority due to the larger language coverage when students are asked about their willingness to learn a language.

4.6 Teacher opinions

The survey was taken among high school students, with the help of 15 teachers. All 15 teachers received a short questionnaire with 7 questions about their affinity with dialect and the possibilities of dialect in high school education in the (possible) nearby future. This data was collected on behalf of Huus van de Taol to gain more insight in the possibilities of implementing Drents dialect in high school education as an extension to the current-running project. 11 teachers responded to the questionnaire

with their answers. Keeping in mind the privacy of the teachers, the answers are commonly explained and not linked to specific persons. The questions and answers will be displayed below and shortly explained.

1. *Do you speak dialect yourself? If the answer is yes, which dialect do you speak?*

Most teachers answered that they spoke Drents dialect (or specific variants of Drents dialect) themselves: they added mostly that they were raised with the dialect as well. Two teachers, in the northern region of Drenthe answered that they were able to understand the dialect, but not able to speak the dialect themselves. One of the teachers specifically mentioned that the dialect was spoken at home and among some friends, but definitely not on school grounds.

2. *What is the value of dialects to you?*

Almost all teachers believed that dialects are an added value to a person's identity. They said that Drents dialect felt very safe and had a certain sense of belonging. One teacher stated that Drents dialect is a language full of emotion and gave a better opportunity to express oneself. Practically, one teacher mentioned that speaking the language that belongs to a specific place or area makes it easier to keep in contact with locals and let you feel more at home. Several teachers also mentioned that they considered dialect as part of their identity and that they were happy to notice that more attention was paid to the value of dialects lately. They stated that they felt that they had not to be ashamed of speaking a dialect anymore, but in contrast they could be publicly proud of their dialect. One teacher replied that dialect had no added value for him/her, but that he/she appreciated the fact that it still exists.

3. *Are students able to speak dialect in class?*

There appeared to be a dichotomy in the answers of the teachers considering this question. Teachers who are situated in the more northern parts of Drenthe replied that students do not speak Drents dialect in class, because they mostly do not speak dialect themselves. Teachers who are situated in the more southern parts of Drenthe replied that students are able to (and make use of) speaking dialect in class. One teacher stated that the instruction was always given in the standard language, but individual instruction was given in the language in which the students could express him/her best. Another teacher wrote that the students do not speak dialect by themselves that much, but mostly when the teacher encouraged them to speak their dialect in class.

4. *Are you willing to integrate dialect in your lesson program (with outside help?)*

Five teachers were very enthusiastic about the idea of dialect in the high school program. However, they really would like help from professional organizations with the implementation and provision of materials. One teacher mentioned that a permanent place for dialect in high school education was probably unrealizable, but that he/she would love to introduce dialect in a project-based form. Some teachers replied that their school already had some projects considering dialect and that they did not feel the need to expand this offer. Several teachers indicated that they were not teaching Dutch and that they did not see any option fitting dialect into their regular lesson program.

5. *Would you be interested to dedicate a day/afternoon to dialect in the own province or multilingualism in general?*

Five teachers replied that they would be interested in activities considering dialect in the province. One teacher spoke Frisian him/herself, so Drents dialect was not the highest priority for him/her. Two teachers also stated that they had little time at the moment and that they were not willing to spend time on dialect in their spare time.

6. *Would there be any support for promoting dialect at your school?*

Almost all teachers replied that they did not immediately know whether the school would want to pay attention to this subject. However, it was often answered that they thought their colleagues would find the subject interesting. One teacher mentioned that already a lot of compulsory afternoon activities were carried out at their school and that colleagues often were not interested in the subject anymore. One teacher replied that the school has other priorities considering updating teachers than dialect.

7. *Would you like updates on behalf of the activities considering dialect in the province of Drenthe?*

Two teachers did not answer the question. Seven teachers would really like to receive updates on behalf of dialect activities.⁴⁰

In conclusion, teachers agreed on the value of dialects: dialect is a part of one's identity and preserving a dialect is essential. They felt happy about the regained attention to dialects and the improving image about dialects in general. Integrating Drents dialect in education is a step too far for these teachers though. They were enthusiast about the idea of dialect in the high school program, but the current curriculum is filled completely. Offering Drents dialect in a project-based form would however fit in the curriculum, when integrated in the existing lessons. In this way, Drents dialect would nevertheless gain attention among high school students.⁴¹



⁴⁰ The contact details of these teachers will be, in accordance with the teachers, transferred to Huus van de Taol in Beilen for a further settlement and perhaps promotion of dialect in high school education in the future.

⁴¹ Source image: <https://www.hunebednieuwscafe.nl/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/Sticker-hier-kuj-Drents-praoten.jpg>, consulted on August 8, 2018.

5 Discussion

The main question of the current research project is: *“What is the relationship between self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual (decoding) language proficiency in dialect of high school students (12-15 year-olds) in the province of Drenthe?”* A significant weak, positive association was found between self-assessment of Drents dialect and the actual decoding language proficiency in Drents dialect of high school students: $r(252) = 0.30, p = 0.00$. For dialect-speakers who indicated that they spoke only a little dialect, this association was significant moderate positive ($r(180) = 0.36, p = 0.00$). In the case of dialect-speakers who indicated that they fully spoke dialect, no association was found between self-assessment and language proficiency: ($r(72) = 0.09, p = 0.45$). This means that no direct relation between the self-assessment of students and their proficiency was found: a high self-assessment does not directly lead to a higher score in the language proficiency test.

However, a few remarks to this conclusion should be taken into account. The current results can be explained according to the following three scenarios:

- 1) There is no relation between self-assessment of knowledge and language proficiency in Drents dialect among high school students and this is displayed in the results correctly.
- 2) There is no relation between self-assessment of knowledge and language proficiency in Drents dialect. However, the self-assessment grid is not a good predictor of the estimated knowledge about Drents dialect or the high school students are not capable of assessing their language skills accurately which has distorted the results.
- 3) There is no relation between self-assessment of knowledge and language proficiency in Drents dialect. However, the language proficiency test is not a good predictor of the language knowledge about Drents dialect, resulting in a test that is too easy or too difficult for the high school students which has distorted the results.

All three scenarios will be discussed below in the light of the current research.

✓ *Scenario 1: There is no relation between self-assessment and language proficiency*

The current results show a significant weak association between the self-assessment of Drents dialect and the actual decoding language proficiency in Drents dialect. On the basis of the current research, it must be concluded that students tend to overestimate themselves in relation to their actual language proficiency in reading, listening and vocabulary. The students assessed their knowledge as ‘independent user’ (little dialect-speakers) or ‘proficient user’ (full dialect-speakers) on average, while the language proficiency test classified all students as ‘basic users’ in Drents dialect. As mentioned before, this means that no direct relation between self-assessment of knowledge and proficiency was found and that a high self-assessment score does not directly lead to a higher score in the language proficiency test. These results are not consistent with the research of Harrane (2003): Harrane found a high correlation between self-assessment on tasks by learners and exam grades by teachers among learners in elementary schools. She concluded that young learners were perfectly able to assess their own skills in relation to their marks.

However, conflicting results are found in the field of self-assessment and proficiency. As stated before, Jones (2002) found that children were less able to assess their knowledge in relation to adults and Little (2004) also concluded that learners were not able to assess their language skills accurately and tend to overestimate their own abilities. On the other hand, Bachman and Palmer (1989) and Blanche (1990) concluded that the self-assessment grid was a reliable measurement to assess the language proficiency by learners and that the results of the self-assessment matched the language proficiency accurately. All in all, it is possible that the results are correct and no relation exists between self-assessment of knowledge and actual language proficiency.

✓ *Scenario 2: The self-assessment grid is not a good indicator of the estimated knowledge*

A flaw in the current study might manifest in the design and execution of the self-assessment grid. As mentioned before, Drents dialect is not one of the languages in the CEFR language grid for self-assessment (probably) due to the small language coverage in the Netherlands. For that reason, the self-assessment grid for the Dutch language was shortened (due to time limits) and the statements were adjusted for Drents dialect. The dialect-speakers were divided into two groups: students who indicated that they spoke a little dialect and students who indicated that they fully spoke dialect. With the help of the self-assessment grid, little dialect-speakers assessed themselves in the 'independent user' category, while the full dialect-speakers assessed themselves in the 'proficient user' category. The difference between the two groups was significant; $t(255) = -8.64, p = 0.00$. The students' estimation of the language knowledge on forehand matched these results fairly: little dialect-speakers assessed their proficiency as basic or independent on average, while full dialect-speakers assessed their proficiency as independent or proficient. The fact that the two groups were divided into two different categories on the basis of the self-assessment grid, suggest that the self-assessment grid is a good indicator of students' language proficiency. A reliability analysis also revealed that the self-assessment grid for Drents dialect had a high reliability; Cronbach's alpha was determined on 0.89, which indicates that the test can be considered as reliable for measuring self-assessment of language knowledge. Besides that, the CEFR is a standardized test appeared in 37 languages (CEFR, 2011) and only converted (not newly designed) for Drents dialect in the current research.

Keeping the language proficiency test in mind, dialect-speakers were classified in a 'basic user' category (both full and little dialect-speakers). Full dialect-speakers barely scored higher than the little dialect-speakers on the proficiency test in Drents dialect. The self-assessment of language skills [independent user on average] and the scores of language proficiency [basic user on average] did not match based on the current results. Since the self-assessment grid proved to be a reliable tool, there are two possibilities: (a) students are not capable of assessing their own skills and overestimate their language proficiency just like Little (2004) concluded. This was as one of the three concerns he mentioned with regard to using the self-assessment grid as a tool for raising language awareness: which means that the self-assessment grid is indeed reliable or (b) the language proficiency test is not a good indicator of the actual proficiency and the self-assessment grid did provide a full-formed picture of the students' language abilities. The last point (b) will be discussed at scenario 3.

✓ *Scenario 3: The language proficiency test is not a good indicator of the actual proficiency*

A flaw in the current study might manifest in the design and execution of the language proficiency test. As mentioned before, Harrane (2003) found a high correlation between self-assessment of language skills and actual language proficiency among elementary school children. In her research, the language proficiency was tested with the help of entrance test level A1 in the native language of the children. There are however no standardized tests to measure language proficiency in Drents dialect. Therefore, a new test for measuring proficiency in Drents dialect was designed. This may have contributed to the fact that the designed test was too difficult for the target group after all, or that questions were not well understood by the students in one way or another. It was also noted that students picked a distractor that started with the same letter or looked like the Dutch meaning in many cases. All in all, these results might have caused a distorted picture in assessing knowledge against language proficiency overall. It is possible that the students actually overestimated themselves in their knowledge of Drents dialect and have shown this, but it could also be the case that they really thought the test was too hard. In that last case, the result cannot be charged to them in relation to their assessment. This was also shown in the mean results of the rough scores and scores with the test of confidence included in the language proficiency test: the scores with the test of confidence included were significantly lower than the rough scores, which indicates a lot of insecurity of the students about their answers ($t(251) = 49.62, p = 0.00$). It is likely that the test was too hard, due to the fact that students were insecure about generally a third of the test and achieved a basic user score on general (for all students, with different dialect backgrounds).

✓ Research sub-questions and hypotheses

Last, the sub-questions will be answered and placed in perspective for the current research with the help of the existing literature. Possible explanations for the results will be given and discussed.

✓ Sub-question 1: Does gender play a role in the self-assessment of language skills match the actual language proficiency of high school students according to the CEFR guidelines? [basic, independent, proficient user?]

- I. *Hypothesis: It is expected that girls will tend to over-estimate themselves in proficiency, while boys will tend to under-estimate themselves in proficiency*

Studies have shown that girls are more positive towards self-assessment than boys and besides that, girls tend to overestimate themselves while boys tend to underestimate their language abilities (Harrane, 2003; Broeder & Arts, 2005). In the current project, boys assessed themselves significantly higher than girls; $t(255) = -2.49, p = 0.01$. These scores match the CEFR label 'independent user': 64% of all students already estimated that their proficiency level would be mediocre. Girls tended to estimate their proficiency lower than boys. Considering the scores of the language proficiency test, boys scored barely perceptible higher than girls. These scores would divide all students into the 'basic user' level. All in all, it seems that both boys and girls tend to overestimate their language abilities, but boys overestimate themselves significantly higher than girls during this project. Therefore, these results are contradictory with the studies of Harrane (2003) and Broeder and Arts (2005), who found exactly the opposite results in their research.

✓ Sub-question 2: To what extent does the attitude of high school students towards dialects play a role in relation to the self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency?

- II. *Hypothesis: If dialect-speakers have a positive attitude towards their dialect, it is assumed that they will assess themselves higher and perform better than dialect-speakers who have a negative attitude towards their dialect.*

In general, the Dutch language was perceived as more modern, civilized, serious, pretty and intelligent than the dialects in this research. However, it is necessary to add that this does not mean that the dialects are completely old-fashioned or silly in this way. The Dutch language is often judged with the utmost of a scale by the students, opposite to the more mediate scale in the assessment of dialects by the students. This means that the dialects were actually, for example, seen as neither civilized nor countrified, but perhaps even more that students did not really know how to classify the dialects in a way.

According to the research of Zahn and Hopper (1985), attitude variables can be globally labelled into (1) superiority, (2) attractiveness and (3) dynamism. For the current research project, a factor-analysis did not show a clear scale for the statements and did not divide them in one of these variables logically. However, the description of the different factors by Zahn and Hopper fits the outcome of the research with respect to the attitude towards Dutch and the different dialects. The Dutch language is perceived more civilized and intelligent than the dialects, which would resemble an increased superiority of the Dutch language with regard to the dialects. However, an in-depth analysis for the three groups (full, little and non-dialect-speakers) revealed that the full dialect-speakers turned away from the opinion of the other two groups. Therefore, it can be concluded that some evidence was found for an in-group love, out-group hate conflict as Brewer (2001) defined with regard to the group of full dialect-speakers. The latter group assessed the dialects as more intelligent, prettier and more sociable than the Dutch language, which could indicate a high identification with the features and overall norms and values of the (dialect) in-group (LeVine & Campbell, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). On the other hand, the non-dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers assessed the Dutch language as superior to the dialects on all features, which would indicated an out-group hate conflict (towards the dialects) in comparison with the own unique features of the Dutch language. The little dialect-speakers are in collusion with the non-dialect-speakers. They have a positive attitude towards the Dutch language and a less positive attitude towards the dialects.

The ethnocentrism that Sumner (1906) described in his research did arise a bit among the high school students in Drenthe, since all groups generally assessed the standard language with more prestige and attractiveness than the dialects. This was also noted in the research of Ebertowski (1977) and Van Bezooijen (2001), who also found that dialects were often assigned with a lower prestige than the standard language. The ethnocentrism is mainly expressed in the group with non-dialect-speakers and little dialect-speakers, who clearly regard the Dutch language with a higher prestige. For the latter group, the ethnocentrism is not reflected by glorifying the dialect among the own in-group (of dialect-speakers). It is possible that these dialect-speakers still feel inferior by the dialect they speak, compared to the Dutch language in a conversation and sense that they are still not considered as full-fledged discussion partners when speaking their dialect (Kroon & Liebrand, 1984; Kocks, 1996; Swanenberg, 2017). On the other side, both the Dutch language and the dialects were perceived as more 'seriously' than 'funny' by all groups, which would indicate that they do consider dialect-speakers as full-fledged partners in the conversation.

Broeder and Arts (2005) mentioned in their research that the recognition of speaking and understanding another language through self-assessment gives people the self-confidence that this

language really matters and might lead to an increase of attitude. In the light of the current study, it was calculated to what extent attitude played a role in the relation between self-assessment and language proficiency. A Pearson's correlation revealed a significant weak relation between self-assessment and attitude ($r(374)=0.22$), and a weak relation between language proficiency and attitude ($r(374)=0.11$). This means that attitude can only be predicted very little based on self-assessment and language proficiency. Students who have a very positive attitude towards their dialect will not necessarily assess themselves higher and achieve a higher language proficiency score or vice versa. However, as discussed above, the fact the students get recognition that their language matters and should be assigned with a higher prestige like the standard language (with help of the obtained insights due to the self-assessment grid), can help and strengthen them in their belief of persevering their dialect in the future.

✓ **Sub-question 3:** To what extent does the amount of input in the different dialect domains play a role in relation to the self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual language proficiency?

III. *Hypothesis: If dialect-speakers speak their dialect in more domains (informal/formal), it is assumed that they will assess themselves higher and perform better than dialect-speakers who have less domains (informal/formal) in which they are able/willing to speak their dialect.*

Students were asked to indicate in which of the domains they were exposed to dialect. Students clearly made a difference between the informal (parents, grandparents) and formal settings (teachers, staff, social media, friends) for their language choice: in the informal settings 'parents' and 'grandparents', the language choice happened to be more spontaneously than in the structured settings like the classroom or social media apparently (as described by Goossens, 1987; Willemyns, Vandebussche & Drees; 2010). However, the domain 'friends' was divided into the formal category, while it was expected that this factor would be subdivided in the informal category. It is possible that students thought that the question was targeting if they would be exposed to dialect with their friends at school. Since school is mostly assessed as a formal domain in which the standard language is spoken, this can explain why they indicated a low exposure to dialect in the domain 'friends'.

If the language domains were divided into 'almost no contact with dialect' [input 1 (almost never) or 2 (once in a while) tapped] and 'almost always contact with dialect' [input 3 (often) or 4 (almost always) tapped]; it was revealed that 64.6% of the little dialect-speakers almost never came in contact with dialect in the domains, while almost 23.0% of the dialect-speakers (full) did. For the 'almost always dialect' category, the dialect-speakers (full) indicated that they often came in contact with dialect in 77.1% of the times in the domains opposite to 35.3% of the little dialect-speakers. Thus, full dialect-speakers have more contact with dialect in more domains than the little dialect-speakers. Positive experiences with a language result in an overall positive outcome for the language (Stokmans, 2009), indicating that the full dialect-speakers are more positive about their dialect than little dialect-speakers. A Pearson's correlation between the factors also revealed a positive, moderate association $r(255)=0.40$, $p=0.00$, which means that if students were exposed to dialect in an informal domain often, the chance of high exposure in a formal domain would be very likely.

Factually, a dichotomy was indeed found in the attitude towards the dialect between dialect-speakers (full) and dialect-speakers (little) with regard to their direct opinion. Dialect-speakers (full) indicated that they had a *very* positive attitude towards their dialect ($M=4.77/5.00$) and dialect-speakers (little) had a *quite* positive attitude towards their dialect ($M=3.88/5.00$). In the light of the current study, it was calculated to what extent input played a role in the relation between self-

assessment and language proficiency. A Pearson's correlation revealed a significant moderate association between self-assessment and input ($r(255) = 0.45$) and a significant weak association between language proficiency and input ($r(251) = 0.18$). This means that input can be predicted with an average accuracy based on self-assessment and language proficiency. Students who come into contact in more domains often will probably assess themselves higher and achieve a higher language proficiency score and vice versa; this increases the chances of persevering a dialect since that depends on the number of domains in which a dialect is represented too (Van Bezooijen, 2001; Driessen, 2006). Kocks (1996) also stated that the more positive people were about their dialect, the more likely that they would speak their dialect in the various settings and domains: the current research project also showed that the full dialect-speakers were significantly more positive about their dialect and came in contact with dialect in more domains than the little dialect-speakers. Although the dialect-speakers were pretty positive towards their dialect overall, the group with little dialect-speakers is much larger than the group that indicated that they fully spoke dialect. Also, the number of domains in which dialect is spoken was lower in the group with little dialect-speakers than in the group with full dialect-speakers. This means that the chances that the dialect is fading among youth increase as Kocks (1996) described.

Finally, 257 students (70%) indicated that they spoke a certain amount of dialect. Students did mention that they considered Drents dialect as part of the existing culture and history and that Drents dialect is something special in relation to the rest of the Netherlands. It is however noteworthy that students were not able to spell the name of their dialect correctly. There are several forms that are passing by: Drens, Drentse, Drenths, Drenthes, Drent's, Drentsch and Drends (targeting: Drents). The difference in these forms indicates that no overt attention is paid to the encoding language skills of Drents dialect and matches the idea of Drents dialect as a 'listening language' that Cornips (2013) described. It seems that Drents dialect is mainly learned by listening to other people who do speak the dialect. The results showed that 82% of the students that indicated that they fully spoke dialect were raised bilingually with Drents by birth, in contrast to 51% of the students that indicated that they only spoke a little dialect. The fact that they might have learned the language through listening might declare why only half of the students indicated that they were (actively) raised bilingually by birth. This passive attention to dialect is also shown in high schools. Teachers were asked if students were able to speak dialect in class; students mostly had to be encouraged to speak their dialect, teachers indicated that students would not start speaking dialect on their own in class and felt mostly inexperienced and insecure about their language use of dialect.

The target group (vmbo basis/kader) showed that almost 70% of the students had affinity with dialect. This was in contrast to the research of Boves and Vousten (1996), who found that only 20% of the students in high school education spoke dialect. However, it must be mentioned that the latter authors had a test group with students of all levels of education (vmbo-havo-vwo) and, as described earlier, dialect and education correlate negatively to each other (Kraaykamp, 2005). The results of Boves and Vousten (1996) cannot be interpreted entirely accurately for the current research, since it is not known how many percent of the students with dialect affinity was derived from vmbo. However, the percentage is of such a low rate, that the affinity of dialect for the current group could be interpreted as hopeful (20% in 1993 vs. 70% in 2018) considering the position of dialect among youth.

6 Conclusion

6.1 *Recapitulation and conclusion*

Summarized, there seems to be no relationship between the self-assessment of dialect knowledge and actual decoding language proficiency in dialect of high school students in the province of Drenthe in the current research. A moderate relation was found for the little dialect-speakers, while no association was found for the full dialect-speakers between self-assessment and language proficiency. As stated before, three scenarios can explain the current results. A summary of these three scenarios will be given below and an assessment will be made whether or not the mentioned scenarios are plausible.

- 1) There is no relation between self-assessment of knowledge and language proficiency in Drents dialect among high school students and this is displayed in the results correctly.

*Conflicting results are found in the field of self-assessment and proficiency. As stated before, Jones (2002) and Little (2004) found that learners were not able to assess their language skills accurately, while Bachman and Palmer (1989), Blanche (1990) and Harrane (2003) concluded that learners were able to estimate their knowledge accurately in relation to their proficiency. All in all, it is possible that the current results are correct and no relation exists between self-assessment of knowledge and actual language proficiency like Jones (2002) and Little (2004) stated before. **Based on these findings, this scenario (no relation, results are correct) is yet nor rejected nor accepted.***

- 2) There is no relation between self-assessment of knowledge and language proficiency in Drents dialect, since the self-assessment grid is not a good predictor of the estimated knowledge

*The self-assessment grid classified the little dialect-speakers as 'independent users' and full dialect-speakers as 'proficient users'. The students' estimation of the language knowledge on forehand matched the scores of the self-assessment grid fairly. The fact that the two groups with a different dialect backgrounds were divided into two different categories on the basis of the self-assessment grid, suggests that the self-assessment grid is a good indicator of students' language proficiency. A reliability analysis also revealed that the self-assessment grid for Drents dialect had a high reliability ($\alpha = 0.89$) which indicates that the test can be considered as reliable for measuring self-assessment of language knowledge. Besides that, the CEFR is a standardized test appeared in 37 languages (CEFR, 2011) and only converted (not adapted) for Drents dialect in the current research. **Based on these findings, this scenario (self-assessment grid is not a good indicator of students' abilities) is presumably not plausible.***

- 3) There is no relation between self-assessment of knowledge and language proficiency in Drents dialect, since the language proficiency test is not a good predictor of the language knowledge

*No standardized tests for measuring language proficiency in Drents dialect are available in the field, so the results of the offered proficiency test might not be charged to the students in relation to their assessment. Students might not have overestimated their language abilities in the self-assessment grid, but might just have been unable to perform rightly at the language proficiency test because the test was unreliable for measuring proficiency. **Based on these findings, this scenario (language proficiency is not a good predictor) is considered most plausible for the current research.***

In conclusion for the sub-questions with regard to the current research: the role of gender, attitude and input were measured in relation to self-assessment and language proficiency. Attitude was measured for all students. On average, the Dutch language was assessed as more intelligent, prettier, more modern, more civilized and serious; the dialects were mostly perceived as neither the one nor the other. It seems that the image of Drents dialect is changing: dialects are not mainly perceived as old-fashioned and countrified anymore, but instead as a language that has a slightly lower prestige than the standard language. For example, students assessed that both the Dutch language and the dialects sounded serious, but the Dutch language was assessed significantly more serious than the dialects. All in all, the corresponding scores considering the attitude towards the Dutch and dialect fragments between the three groups (full, little and non-dialect-speakers) showed that dialect-speakers were indeed considered as full-fledged partners in conversation. Besides, 70% of the students on vmbo basis/kader indicated having affinity with dialect: this percentage is a good start for initiatives in/about Drents dialect in the future.

Last, input was measured for six different domains. The results showed that full dialect-speakers had more access to dialect in more domains than the little dialect-speakers. The informal settings were more suitable for all students to be exposed to dialect. Preserving a dialect is also largely related to the number of domains in which students come in contact with their dialect. Further research must show if the use of dialect in the domains depends on the internal language will of the speaker or perhaps the external language options that are offered (and accepted) in the domains by society. In the next section, initiatives for follow-up research will be discussed and recommendations for the implementation of Drents dialect at high school education will be provided.

6.2 Further research and recommendations

At the very beginning of this thesis, in the rationale (1.1), the activities in and about Drents dialect were mentioned. Those activities were mainly focused on learning and being occupied with Drents dialect in a playful and attractive way like the Liedtiesfestival and shows by comedians. Also, the existing methods and initiatives were emphasized. The last point raised the concern that the attitude and imago towards Drents dialect was tacked admittedly, but that there were no standardized tests to measure the progress of the learners and increase of the language's vitality among youth. Especially, given the expansion of the project to high school education, no measurement for mapping the language skills of the students was available. Therefore, for the current project, a self-assessment grid for language proficiency and a language proficiency test in Drents dialect were designed for and tested on the target group (vmbo basis/kader, class 1/2). The self-assessment grid was adjusted in Drents dialect from the existing Dutch standardized CEFR language assessment grid and the language proficiency test was designed from scratch. As a result, no relation between the assessment of the language and the language proficiency was found. As explicated above, it is likely that the language proficiency was not a good predictor for the language proficiency. In this case, relying on the assessment of the youth only would be easier, but less reliable. The design of this language proficiency test was a good start for providing a standardized measurement, but probably failed to map the proficiency of the students correctly. Further research might focus on designing and testing a full language proficiency test for Drents dialect, in order to accurately map the proficiency of students during/after elementary school to gain insight in the language progress and vitality. In this way, the language skills that the youth might have gained in elementary school will not be wasted.

In high school education, there seems to be a restraint of dialect among students and teachers. Frijns, Mulder and Visser (2014) described that Drents dialect suffers because of the non-permanent place in education (both elementary, high school as higher education). Besides, the existence of Drents dialect depends on the awareness of seeing Drents dialect as a benefit in the students' careers. On the other hand, teachers do think it is hard to pay attention towards dialects during school time and that fitting Drents dialect into the current curriculum would be too hard. This attitude of the teachers does also not contribute to the possible implementation of Drents dialect in high school education. However, one of the teachers suggested that offering a course in/about Drents dialect would be time-consuming and complicated, but that he/she would love the idea of offering Drents dialect in a project-based manner that could be integrated in the existing lessons though.

The results of the students concerning the offer of a regular course in Drents dialect at high school education differ from each other. The full dialect-speakers are excited about this idea, while the little dialect-speakers and non-dialect-speakers are not very enthusiastic about this suggestion. This last group contains the majority of the students (almost 80%), who think that Drents dialect should not be offered as a course. Further research should show whether several schools (and students) would be open to offer dialect in a project-based form within existing lessons instead of regular courses. Besides, further research must be carried out to see if the group of little dialect-speakers is increasing among youth. The possible causes (listening language, regiolect or maybe decreased attention) need to be identified in order to actually tackle the possible decline of Drents dialect in the future.

Practically speaking, what would the implementation of Drents dialect in high school education look like (as a project within regular courses)? Students could learn about the similarities and differences between the Dutch language and Drents dialect, and the existence of Drents dialect in relation to the existence of the Dutch language. They could combine the pros and cons of speaking a dialect into a discussion variant in the lessons Dutch or practice writing an argumentative essay with these statements. In creative art courses, posters could be made in/about Drents dialect considering the existing activities, music bands and other things they associate (or miss) in/about Drents dialect. During music lessons, attention can be paid to bands that sing and perform in Drents dialect on stage. A course called CKV (cultural classical education) is given in the upper part of secondary vocational education (class 3/class 4). In this course, the focus is put on the importance of art and culture in society and students have to actively participate in at least four cultural activities that are offered. This could, for example, be a museum performance or cabaret show. Offering a Drents dialect activity (whether or not obligatory, e.g. the conference of Wakker Nijeveen or a show of Helligen Hendrik) would certainly fit into the present curriculum and could raise the awareness and attention of students towards Drents dialect. Hopefully, students might change their attitude towards dialects as a language with a high prestige itself and see the benefits of speaking Drents dialect in the future. Besides, they could slowly get used to the idea of Drents dialect being part of their education in the future.

Frijns, Mulder and Visser (2014) also noted in their article that promotion that fits the experience of young people really keeps the dialect alive. Drents dialect is more accessible for the youth, when offered on (music) festivals and/or when they come in contact with dialect through other activities that appeal to them. It is therefore very important that Drents dialect, besides the already existing initiatives, keeps working on its image with promotion activities that actually connect with the experiences of young people. Teaching methods for high school education, whether or not perhaps as a regular course or project-based form in the future, must really be focused on the acquaintance with

dialect, to deepen the (perhaps existing) knowledge but also to radiate the pleasure (and benefits) of speaking Drents dialect in daily life. Instead of tolerate dialect passively in the school environment; dialect in education has to be actively promoted. A changed policy and more visibility in different classes for Drents dialect might help hereby. All in all, this would surely strengthen the position of Drents dialect among youth.

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Appendix

Enclosure 1: Common References Levels CEFR

Baslagebruiker	
A1	Kan vertrouwde dagelijkse uitdrukkingen en basiszinnen gericht op de bevrediging van concrete behoeften begrijpen en gebruiken. Kan zichzelf aan anderen voorstellen en kan vragen stellen en beantwoorden over persoonlijke gegevens zoals waar hij/zij woont, mensen die hij/zij kent en dingen die hij/zij bezit. Kan op een simpele wijze reageren, aangenomen dat de andere persoon langzaam en duidelijk praat en bereid is om te helpen.
A2	Kan zinnen en regelmatig voorkomende uitdrukkingen begrijpen die verband hebben met zaken van direct belang (bijvoorbeeld persoonsgegevens, familie, winkelen, plaatselijke geografie, werk). Kan communiceren in simpele en alledaagse taken die een eenvoudige en directe uitwisseling over vertrouwde en alledaagse kwesties vereisen. Kan in eenvoudige bewoordingen aspecten van de eigen achtergrond, de onmiddellijke omgeving en kwesties op het gebied van diverse behoeften beschrijven.
Onafhankelijk gebruiker	
B1	Kan de belangrijkste punten begrijpen uit duidelijke standaardteksten over vertrouwde zaken die regelmatig voorkomen op het werk, op school en in de vrije tijd. Kan zich redden in de meeste situaties die kunnen optreden tijdens het reizen in gebieden waar de betreffende taal wordt gesproken. Kan een eenvoudige lopende tekst produceren over onderwerpen die vertrouwd of die van persoonlijk belang zijn. Kan een beschrijving geven van ervaringen en gebeurtenissen, dromen, verwachtingen en ambities en kan kort redeneren en verklaringen geven voor meningen en plannen.
B2	Kan de hoofdgedachte van een ingewikkelde tekst begrijpen, zowel over concrete als over abstracte onderwerpen, met inbegrip van technische besprekingen in het eigen vakgebied. Kan zo vloeiend en spontaan reageren dat een normale uitwisseling met moedertaalsprekers mogelijk is zonder dat dit voor een van de partijen inspanning met zich meebrengt. Kan duidelijke, gedetailleerde tekst produceren over een breed scala van onderwerpen; kan een standpunt over een actuele kwestie uiteenzetten en daarbij ingaan op de voor- en nadelen van diverse opties.
Vaardig gebruiker	
C1	Kan een uitgebreid scala van veeleisende, lange teksten begrijpen en de impliciete betekenissen herkennen. Kan zichzelf vloeiend en spontaan uitdrukken zonder daarvoor aantoonbaar naar uitdrukkingen te moeten zoeken. Kan flexibel en effectief met taal omgaan ten behoeve van sociale, academische en beroepsmatige doeleinden. Kan een duidelijke, goed gestructureerde en gedetailleerde tekst over complexe onderwerpen produceren en daarbij gebruikmaken van organisatorische structuren en verbindingswoorden.
C2	Kan vrijwel alles wat hij hoort of leest gemakkelijk begrijpen. Kan informatie die afkomstig is van verschillende gesproken en geschreven bronnen samenvatten, argumenten reconstrueren en hiervan samenhangend verslag doen. Kan zichzelf spontaan, vloeiend en precies uitdrukken en kan hierbij fijne nuances in betekenissen, zelfs in complexere situaties, onderscheiden.

Enclosure 2: Assessment grid Dutch

	Begrijpen		Spreken		Schrijven
	Luisteren	Lezen	Productie	Interactie	
C2	Ik kan moeiteloos gesproken taal begrijpen, in welke vorm dan ook, hetzij in direct contact, hetzij via radio of tv, zelfs wanneer in een snel moedertaaltempo gesproken wordt als ik tenminste enige tijd heb om vertrouwd te raken met het accent.	Ik kan moeiteloos vrijwel alle vormen van de geschreven taal lezen, inclusief abstracte, structureel of linguïstisch complexe teksten, zoals handleidingen, specialistische artikelen en literaire werken.	Ik kan een duidelijke, goedlopende beschrijving of redenering presenteren in een stijl die past bij de context en in een doeltreffende logische structuur, zodat de toehoorder in staat is de belangrijke punten op te merken en te onthouden.	Ik kan zonder moeite deelnemen aan welk gesprek of discussie dan ook en ben zeer vertrouwd met idiomatische uitdrukkingen en spreektaal. Ik kan mezelf vloeiend uitdrukken en de fijnere betekenisnuances precies weergeven. Als ik een probleem tegenkom, kan ik mezelf hememen en mijn betoog zo herstructureren dat andere mensen het nauwelijks merken.	Ik kan een duidelijke en vloeiend lopende tekst in een gepaste stijl schrijven. Ik kan complexe brieven, verslagen of artikelen schrijven waarin ik een zaak weergeef in een doeltreffende, logische structuur, zodat de lezer de belangrijke punten kan opmerken en onthouden. Ik kan samenvattingen van en kritieken op professionele of literaire werken schrijven.
C1	Ik kan een langer betoog begrijpen, zelfs wanneer dit niet duidelijk gestructureerd is en wanneer relaties slechts impliciet zijn en niet expliciet worden aangegeven. Ik kan zonder al te veel inspanning tv-programma's en films begrijpen.	Ik kan lange en complexe feitelijke en literaire teksten begrijpen, en het gebruik van verschillende stijlen waarden. Ik kan gespecialiseerde artikelen en lange technische instructies begrijpen, zelfs wanneer deze geen betrekking hebben op mijn terrein.	Ik kan duidelijke, gedetailleerde beschrijvingen geven over complexe onderwerpen en daarbij sub-thema's integreren, specifieke standpunten ontwikkelen en het geheel afronden met een passende conclusie.	Ik kan mezelf vloeiend en spontaan uitdrukken zonder merkbaar naar uitdrukkingen te hoeven zoeken. Ik kan de taal flexibel en effectief gebruiken voor sociale en professionele doeleinden. Ik kan ideeën en meningen met precisie formuleren en mijn bijdrage vaardig aan die van andere sprekers relateren.	Ik kan me in duidelijke, goed gestructureerde tekst uitdrukken en daarbij redelijk uitgebreid standpunten uitzetten. Ik kan in een brief, een opstel of een verslag schrijven over complexe onderwerpen en daarbij de voor mij belangrijke punten benadrukken. Ik kan schrijven in een stijl die is aangepast aan de lezer die ik in gedachten heb.
B2	Ik kan een langer betoog en lezingen begrijpen en zelfs complexe redeneringen volgen, wanneer het onderwerp redelijk vertrouwd is. Ik kan de meeste nieuws- en actualiteitenprogramma's op de tv begrijpen. Ik kan het grootste deel van films in standaarddialect begrijpen.	Ik kan artikelen en verslagen lezen die betrekking hebben op eigentijdse problemen, waarbij de schrijvers een bepaalde houding of standpunt innemen. Ik kan eigentijds literair proza begrijpen.	Ik kan duidelijke, gedetailleerde beschrijvingen presenteren over een breed scala van onderwerpen die betrekking hebben op mijn interessegebied. Ik kan een standpunt over een actueel onderwerp verklaren en de voordelen en nadelen van diverse opties uitzetten.	Ik kan zodanig deelnemen aan een vloeiend en spontaan gesprek, dat normale uitwisseling met moedertaalsprekers redelijk mogelijk is. Ik kan binnen een vertrouwde context actief deelnemen aan een discussie en hierin mijn standpunten uitleggen en ondersteunen.	Ik kan een duidelijke, gedetailleerde tekst schrijven over een breed scala van onderwerpen die betrekking hebben op mijn interesses. Ik kan een opstel of verslag schrijven, informatie doorgeven of redenen aanvoeren ter ondersteuning vóór of tegen een specifiek standpunt. Ik kan brieven schrijven waarin ik het persoonlijk belang van gebeurtenissen en ervaringen aangeef.
B1	Ik kan de hoofdpunten begrijpen wanneer in duidelijk uitgesproken standaarddialect wordt gesproken over vertrouwde zaken die ik regelmatig tegenkom op mijn werk, school, vrije tijd enz. Ik kan de hoofdpunten van veel radio- of tv-programma's over actuele zaken of over onderwerpen van persoonlijk of beroepsmatig belang begrijpen, wanneer er betrekkelijk langzaam en duidelijk gesproken wordt.	Ik kan teksten begrijpen die hoofdzakelijk bestaan uit hoogfrequente, alledaagse of aan mijn werk gerelateerde taal. Ik kan de beschrijving van gebeurtenissen, gevoelens en wensen in persoonlijke brieven begrijpen.	Ik kan uitingen op een simpele manier aan elkaar verbinden, zodat ik ervaringen en gebeurtenissen, mijn dromen, verwachtingen en ambities kan beschrijven. Ik kan in het kort redenen en verklaringen geven voor mijn meningen en plannen. Ik kan een verhaal vertellen, of de plot van een boek of film weergeven en mijn reacties beschrijven.	Ik kan de meeste situaties aan die zich kunnen voordoen tijdens een reis in een gebied waar de betreffende taal wordt gesproken. Ik kan onvoorbereid deelnemen aan een gesprek over onderwerpen die vertrouwd zijn, of mijn persoonlijke belangstelling hebben of die betrekking hebben op het dagelijks leven (bijvoorbeeld familie, hobby's, werk, reizen en actuele gebeurtenissen).	Ik kan eenvoudige samenhangende tekst schrijven over onderwerpen die vertrouwd of van persoonlijk belang zijn. Ik kan persoonlijke brieven schrijven waarin ik mijn ervaringen en indrukken beschrijf.
A2	Ik kan zinnen en de meest frequente woorden begrijpen die betrekking hebben op gebieden die van direct persoonlijk belang zijn (bijvoorbeeld basisinformatie over mezelf en mijn familie, winkelen, plaatselijke omgeving, werk). Ik kan de belangrijkste punten in korte, duidelijke eenvoudige boodschappen en aankondigingen volgen.	Ik kan zeer korte eenvoudige teksten lezen. Ik kan specifieke voorspelbare informatie vinden in eenvoudige, alledaagse teksten zoals advertenties, folders, menu's en dienstregelingen en ik kan korte, eenvoudige, persoonlijke brieven begrijpen.	Ik kan een reeks uitdrukkingen en zinnen gebruiken om in eenvoudige bewoordingen mijn familie en andere mensen, leefomstandigheden, mijn opleiding en mijn huidige of meest recente baan te beschrijven.	Ik kan communiceren over eenvoudige en alledaagse taken die een eenvoudige en directe uitwisseling van informatie over vertrouwde onderwerpen en activiteiten betreffen. Ik kan zeer korte sociale gesprekken aan, alhoewel ik gewoonlijk niet voldoende begrip om het gesprek zelfstandig gaande te houden.	Ik kan korte, eenvoudige notities en boodschappen opschrijven. Ik kan een zeer eenvoudige persoonlijke brief schrijven, bijvoorbeeld om iemand voor iets te bedanken.
A1	Ik kan vertrouwde woorden en basiszinnen begrijpen die mezelf, mijn familie en directe concrete omgeving betreffen, wanneer de mensen langzaam en duidelijk spreken.	Ik kan vertrouwde namen, woorden en zeer eenvoudige zinnen begrijpen, bijvoorbeeld in mededelingen, op posters en in catalogi.	Ik kan eenvoudige uitdrukkingen en zinnen gebruiken om mijn woonomgeving en de mensen die ik ken, te beschrijven.	Ik kan deelnemen aan een eenvoudig gesprek, wanneer de gesprekspartner bereid is om zaken in een langzamer spreektempo te herhalen of opnieuw te formuleren en mij helpt bij het formuleren van wat ik probeer te zeggen. Ik kan eenvoudige vragen stellen en beantwoorden die een directe behoefte of zeer vertrouwde onderwerpen betreffen.	Ik kan een korte, eenvoudige ansichtkaart schrijven, bijvoorbeeld voor het zenden van vakantiegroeten. Ik kan op formulieren persoonlijke details invullen, bijvoorbeeld mijn naam, nationaliteit en adres noteren op een hotelinschrijvingsformulier.

Enclosure 3: Self-assessment grid for Drents dialect on the basis of CEFR

<i>CEFR</i>	<i>Statement</i>	<i>Assessment</i>
A1	Ik begrijp dialect alleen als mensen langzaam tegen mij praten	Likert 1-4
A1	Als er Drents wordt gepraat tegen mij, vind ik het prettig als er wat gemakkelijkere woorden worden gebruikt	Likert 1-4
A2	Ik moet vaak vragen of iemand een woord wil herhalen als hij/zij in dialect praat	Likert 1-4
A2	Als ik een woord in dialect niet direct snap, kan ik vaak wel uit de context (rest van de tekst) halen wat iemand bedoelt	Likert 1-4
A2	Lange of korte teksten in dialect: ik kan beide prima lezen	Likert 1-4
A2	Ik ken voornamelijk Drentse woorden die erg lijken op het Nederlands	Likert 1-4
A2	Ik snap een verhaal in dialect alleen, als er gemakkelijke woorden worden gebruikt	Likert 1-4
A2	Ik vind het Nederlands mooier klinken dan het Drents	Likert 1-4
B1	Hoe langer de zinnen in dialect worden, hoe moeilijk ik het vind om het dialect te verstaan.	Likert 1-4
B1	Ik kan een gesprek in dialect over het algemeen goed volgen	Likert 1-4
B1	Als ik op televisie iemand zie die Drents praat, vind ik dat lastig te verstaan	Likert 1-4
B1	Mensen die op de radio in het Drents praten, zijn lastig te verstaan.	Likert 1-4
B1	Ik vind het prettig als mensen die Drents spreken op televisie ondertiteld worden, anders begrijp ik het niet	Likert 1-4
B1	Ik vind het lastig om filmpjes in Drents dialect op (bijv.) Youtube te volgen	Likert 1-4
B1	Ik kijk wel eens filmpjes in Drents dialect op (bijv.) Youtube omdat ik dat leuk vind.	Likert 1-4
B1	Figuurlijk taalgebruik (bijv. ze kook van woede) vind ik lastig te begrijpen in dialect	Likert 1-4
B2	Als ik een tekst lees in dialect, hoef ik eigenlijk geen woorden op te zoeken	Likert 1-4
B2	Als ik een tekst lees, dan sla ik vaak stukken over die mij niet interessant lijken	Likert 1-4
B2	Ik ken veel Drentse woorden	Likert 1-4
C1	Ik begrijp veel uitdrukkingen in dialect	Likert 1-4
C1	Langere, moeilijke woorden begrijpen in dialect, is geen enkel probleem voor mij	Likert 1-4
C1	Als een band in het Drents zingt, dan versta ik daar niks van	Likert 1-4
C2	Ik vind het lastig een zin te begrijpen als de volgorde van de woorden anders is in dialect dan in het Nederlands	Likert 1-4
A	Drents moet als schoolvak worden aangeboden	Likert 1-4
A	Ik zou het niet erg vinden als het Drents verdwijnt	Likert 1-4
G	Hoe goed versta je mensen die Drents tegen je praten?	Grade 1-10
G	Hoe goed begrijp je teksten in het Drents?	Grade 1-10
G	Ken je veel Drentse woorden?	Grade 1-10
G	Hoe goed versta je mensen die Nederlands tegen je praten?	Grade 1-10
G	Hoe goed begrijp je teksten in het Nederlands?	Grade 1-10
G	Ken je veel Nederlandse woorden?	Grade 1-10

Enclosure 4: Translation of the attitude text fragment in dialect

Dutch

De Noorse Olympische ploeg heeft per ongeluk niet vijftienhonderd, maar vijftienduizend eieren besteld. De bestelling werd helaas verkeerd vertaald van het Noors naar het Koreaans door Google Translate. Het overschot van dertienduizendvijfhonderd eieren kon gelukkig, zonder problemen, gelijk worden teruggestuurd naar de verkoper. Hij kon er wel om lachen.

ZuidWestZuid Drents (variant Hooqveen/Hollandscheveld)

De olympische ploeg uut Noorwegen hef per ongeluk niet vieftienhonderd mar vieftienduzend eier besteld. Google Translate vertaalde de bestelling jammer genog verkeerd van het Noors naar het Koreaans. De dartienduzendviefhonderd eier die as overbleven kunden zonder trammelant geliek weer terug-estuurd worden naor de verkoper. Die kun der wel om lachen.

ZuidOostZand (variant Odoorn, tal van Oring)

De Noorse olympische ploeg hef per ongeluk gien vieftienhonderd, maor vieftiendoezend eier besteld. De bestelling weur jammer genog fout vertaald van het Noors naor het Koreaans deur Google Translate. De dartiendoezend eier die over waren, kunden gelukkig, zunder preblemen, metien terugstuurd worden naor de verkioper. Hie kun der wal um lachen.

Midden-Drents (variant Groller/Papenvoortse Drents)

De Noorse olympische ploeg hef per ongeluk gien vieftienhonderd, maor vieftiendoezend eier besteld. De bestelling weur jammer genog deur Google Translate verkeerd vertaald oet het Noors naor het Koreaans. Het teveul van dartiendoezendviefhonderd eier kun gelukkig zunder preblemen terugstuurd worden naor de verkoper. Hie kun der wel um lachen.

Noortdenvelds (variant van Nörg)

De Noorse olympische ploeg hef per ongeluk gien vieftienhonderd, maor vieftiendoezend eier besteld. De bestelling wör jammer genog verkeerd vertaald van het Noors nor het Koreaans deur de vertaolmesine van Google Translate. Het overschot van dartiendoezendviefhonderd eier kun gelukkig, zunder problemen, daolijk weeromstuurd worden nor de verkoper. Hij kun der wel om lachen.

ZuidOostVeen (variant van Barger-Compascuum)

De Noorse Olympische ploeg, hef per ongeluk niet vieftienhonderd, maor vieftienduzend eier besteld. De bestelling wurd jammer genog verkeerd vertaald van het Noors naor het Koreaans deur Google Translate. Het overschot van dertienduzend viefhonderd eier kun gelukkig zonder problemen geliek terugstuurd worden naor de verkoper. Die kon der wel om lachen.

Enclosure 5: T-test self-assessment grid and grading for dialect and gender

Nr.	Statement	M		SD		Dialect: yes		Dialect: a little		T-test means
		B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
1	I have no difficulty to understand dialect when the sentences are long	<i>B(137)⁴²</i>	<i>G(120)</i>	<i>B(49)</i>	<i>G(26)</i>	<i>B(88)</i>	<i>G(94)</i>			<i>p < 0.05*</i>
		0.72	0.94	1.31	0.79	0.47	0.89			<i>t(255)= -7.06</i>
										<i>p= 0.00*</i>
2	I understand a lot of idiom in dialect	B=0.87	B=0.95	B=1.39	B=0.76	B=0.58	B=0.92			
		G=0.54	G=0.91	G=1.15	G=0.83	G=0.37	G=0.86			
		algB/G⁴³=	yB/G=	alB/G=						
3	It is no problem to understand a sentence in dialect if the order of the words deviates from the standard language	<i>t(255)= -2.82</i>	<i>t(73)= -1.23</i>	<i>t(180)= -1.58</i>						
		<i>p= 0.00*</i>	<i>p= 0.22</i>	<i>p= 0.12</i>						
		0.87	0.79	1.12	0.89	0.77	0.72			<i>t(255)= -3.31</i>
4	If a read a text, I do not skip pieces that do not seem interesting	B=0.93	B=0.82	B=1.10	B=0.94	B=0.84	B=0.73			
		G=0.80	G=0.75	G=1.15	G=0.78	G=0.70	G=0.72			<i>p= 0.00*</i>
		algB/G=	yB/G=	alB/G=						
3	It is no problem to understand a sentence in dialect if the order of the words deviates from the standard language	<i>t(255)= -1.37</i>	<i>t(73)= 0.24</i>	<i>t(180)= -1.30</i>						
		<i>p= 0.17</i>	<i>p= 0.81</i>	<i>p= 0.20</i>						
		0.87	0.83	1.27	0.74	0.71	0.81			<i>t(255)= -5.13</i>
4	If a read a text, I do not skip pieces that do not seem interesting	B=0.96	B=0.85	B=1.33	B=0.75	B=0.76	B=0.84			
		G=0.77	G=0.80	G=1.15	G=0.73	G=0.66	G=0.78			<i>p=0.00*</i>
		algB/G=	yB/G=	alB/G=						
4	If a read a text, I do not skip pieces that do not seem interesting	<i>t(255)= -1.90</i>	<i>t(73)= -0.96</i>	<i>t(180)= -0.84</i>						
		<i>p= 0.06</i>	<i>p= 0.34</i>	<i>p= 0.40</i>						
		0.34	1.07	0.43	1.14	0.31	1.04			<i>t(255)= -0.81</i>
4	If a read a text, I do not skip pieces that do not seem interesting	B=0.27	B=1.13	B=0.31	B=1.18	B=0.25	B=1.11			
		G=0.43	G=1.00	G=0.65	G=1.06	G=0.36	G=0.98			<i>p= 0.419</i>
		algB/G=	yB/G=	alB/G=						
4	If a read a text, I do not skip pieces that do not seem interesting	<i>t(255)= 1.16</i>	<i>t(73)= 1.26</i>	<i>t(180)= 0.72</i>						
		<i>p= 0.25</i>	<i>p= 0.21</i>	<i>p= 0.47</i>						

⁴² B= boys, G=girls, M= mean = standard deviation. The number in brackets indicated the number of participants for B/G and degrees of freedom for the t-test.

⁴³ AlgB= t-score for the dialect means, yb/g = dialect 'yes' difference boys/girls, alb/g = dialect 'a little' difference boys/girls

5	People do not have to adjust the speed of the conversation for me in order to understand the dialect	1.02	0.89	1.52	0.74	0.81	0.86	$t(255) = -6.27$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.10 G=0.92	B=0.88 G=0.89	B=1.57 G=1.42	B=0.68 G=0.86	B=0.84 G=0.78	B=0.87 G=0.86	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -1.68$ $p = 0.10$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.82$ $p = 0.41$		alB/G= $t(180) = -0.50$ $p = 0.62$		
6	I can follow a conversation in dialect well generally	1.20	0.80	1.44	0.11	1.10	0.05	$t(255) = -3.11$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.22 G=1.18	B=0.86 G=0.72	B=1.37 G=1.58	B=1.04 G=0.64	B=1.14 G=1.07	B=0.75 G=0.71	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -0.36$ $p = 0.72$		yB/G= $t(73) = 0.94$ $p = 0.35$		alB/G= $t(180) = -0.58$ $p = 0.57$		
7	I do not need subtitles to understand what is being said, if people talk in dialect on television	1.37	0.86	1.69	0.72	1.23	0.66	$t(255) = -4.06$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.38 G=1.35	B=0.93 G=0.77	B=1.67 G=1.73	B=0.77 G=0.60	B=1.22 G=1.24	B=0.96 G=0.79	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -0.28$ $p = 0.78$		yB/G= $t(73) = 0.33$ $p = 0.74$		alB/G= $t(180) = 0.22$ $p = 0.83$		
8	People who talk in dialect on the radio are easy to understand	1.14	0.88	1.57	0.74	0.96	0.87	$t(255) = -5.39$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.19 G=1.08	B=0.90 G=0.86	B=1.59 G=1.54	B=0.73 G=0.76	B=0.97 G=0.95	B=0.90 G=0.85	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -1.04$ $p = 0.30$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.30$ $p = 0.77$		alB/G= $t(180) = -0.15$ $p = 0.88$		
9	I can understand a band who sings in dialect perfectly	1.05	1.03	1.47	0.91	0.88	0.08	$t(255) = -4.26$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.09 G=1.02	B=1.03 G=1.03	B=1.49 G=1.42	B=0.87 G=0.99	B=0.86 G=0.90	B=1.05 G=1.02	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -0.55$ $p = 0.58$		yB/G= $t(73) = -3.02$ $p = 0.76$		alB/G= $t(180) = 0.27$ $p = 0.79$		

10	If I do not understand a word in dialect, I use the context to extract the meaning of the word	0.86	0.85	0.91	1.03	0.84	0.77	$t(255)=-0.57$ $p=0.58$
		B=0.87 G=0.85	B=0.91 G=0.77	B=0.94 G=0.85	B=1.05 G=1.01	B=0.83 G=0.85	B=0.83 G=0.70	
		algB/G= $t(255)=-0.18$ $p=0.86$		yB/G= $t(73)=-0.37$ $p=0.71$		alB/G= $t(180)=0.19$ $p=0.85$		
11	I understand a story in dialect perfectly	0.84	0.88	1.45	0.74	0.59	0.81	$t(255)=-8.00$ $p=0.00^*$
		B=0.92 G=0.75	B=0.88 G=0.87	B=1.47 G=1.42	B=0.77 G=0.70	B=0.61 G=0.56	B=0.79 G=0.82	
		algB/G= $t(255)=-1.55$ $p=0.12$		yB/G= $t(73)=-0.26$ $p=0.80$		alB/G= $t(180)=-0.42$ $p=0.68$		
12	I think it is easy to understand, if people talk in dialect on television	1.08	0.91	1.44	0.81	0.93	0.91	$t(255)=-4.19$ $p=0.00^*$
		B=1.22 G=0.93	B=0.87 G=0.93	B=1.53 G=1.27	B=0.74 G=0.92	B=1.05 G=0.83	B=0.90 G=0.91	
		algB/G= $t(255)=-2.62$ $p=0.01^*$		yB/G= $t(73)=-1.34$ $p=0.19$		alB/G= $t(180)=-1.61$ $p=0.11$		
13	If I read a text in dialect, I do not need a dictionary for hard words	0.84	0.85	1.24	0.84	0.67	0.80	$t(255)=-5.12$ $p=0.00^*$
		B=0.91 G=0.76	B=0.91 G=0.78	B=1.20 G=1.31	B=0.91 G=0.68	B=0.74 G=0.61	B=0.86 G=0.74	
		algB/G= $t(255)=-1.38$ $p=0.17$		yB/G= $t(73)=0.51$ $p=0.61$		alB/G= $t(180)=-1.11$ $p=0.27$		
14	I can read both short and long texts perfectly	0.99	0.88	1.40	0.87	0.82	0.82	$t(255)=-5.02$ $p=0.00^*$
		B=1.06 G=0.92	B=0.92 G=0.82	B=1.35 G=1.50	B=0.95 G=0.71	B=0.90 G=0.76	B=0.87 G=0.77	
		algB/G= $t(255)=-1.30$ $p=0.20$		yB/G= $t(73)=0.72$ $p=0.47$		alB/G= $t(180)=-1.17$ $p=0.24$		
15	Movies in dialect are easy to follow	1.07	0.85	1.51	0.74	0.90	0.83	$t(255)=-5.52$ $p=0.00^*$

		B=1.15 G=0.98	B=0.87 G=0.82	B=1.58 G=1.38	B=0.74 G=0.75	B=0.92 G=0.87	B=0.86 G=0.81	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -1.60$ $p = 0.11$		yB/G= $t(73) = -1.04$ $p = 0.30$		alB/G= $t(180) = -0.39$ $p = 0.70$		
16	I know many words in Drents dialect, whether or not looking similar to Dutch words	0.24	0.93	0.47	1.02	0.14	0.88	$t(255) = -2.56$ $p = 0.01^*$
		B=0.36 G=0.09	B=1.01 G=0.81	B=0.53 G=0.35	B=1.06 G=0.94	B=0.27 G=0.02	B=0.98 G=0.76	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -2.37$ $p = 0.02^*$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.75$ $p = 0.46$		alB/G= $t(180) = -1.94$ $p = 0.06$		
17	Metaphorical language is easy to understand in dialect	1.00	0.89	1.31	0.90	0.87	0.85	$t(255) = -3.64$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.00 G=1.00	B=0.93 G=0.84	B=1.33 G=1.27	B=0.94 G=0.83	B=0.82 G=0.93	B=0.88 G=0.83	
		algB/G= $t(255) = 0.00$ $p = 1.00$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.26$ $p = 0.80$		alB/G= $t(180) = 0.85$ $p = 0.40$		
18	I can understand hard, difficult words perfectly	0.82	0.89	1.32	0.84	0.61	0.82	$t(255) = -6.27$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=0.96 G=0.65	B=0.86 G=0.89	B=1.37 G=1.23	B=0.81 G=0.91	B=0.74 G=0.49	B=0.81 G=0.81	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -2.87$ $p = 0.00^*$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.67$ $p = 0.51$		alB/G= $t(180) = -2.07$ $p = 0.04^*$		
19	I do not have to ask if people want to repeat a word/sentence repeatedly if they talk in dialect	1.05	0.88	1.41	0.86	0.90	0.85	$t(255) = -4.43$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.15 G=0.93	B=0.90 G=0.86	B=1.47 G=1.31	B=0.87 G=0.84	B=0.97 G=0.83	B=0.86 G=0.84	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -1.94$ $p = 0.05^*$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.78$ $p = 0.44$		alB/G= $t(180) = -1.08$ $p = 0.28$		
20	If people talk to me in Drents dialect, I do not mind what type of words are	0.81	0.92	1.20	0.89	0.65	0.88	$t(255) = -4.55$ $p = 0.00^*$

	used (easy/difficult)							
		B=0.94 G=0.66	B=0.90 G=0.92	B=1.27 G=1.08	B=0.86 G=0.94	B=0.76 G=0.54	B=0.87 G=0.89	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -2.49$ $p = 0.01^*$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.88$ $p = 0.38$		alB/G= $t(180) = -1.68$ $p = 0.10$		
21	I know a lot of words in Drents dialect	1.01	0.90	1.45	0.81	0.82	0.87	$t(255) = -5.36$ $p = 0.00^*$
		B=1.07 G=0.93	B=0.96 G=0.83	B=1.47 G=1.42	B=0.87 G=0.70	B=0.85 G=0.80	B=0.94 G=0.81	
		algB/G= $t(255) = -1.24$ $p = 0.22$		yB/G= $t(73) = -0.23$ $p = 0.82$		alB/G= $t(180) = -0.42$ $p = 0.68$		

Statements (as shown above)	M	SD	Dialect 'yes' vs. 'a little'	Boys versus Girls
			$p < 0.05^*$	$p < 0.05^*$
1	0.72	0.94	$t(255) = -7.06$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -2.82$ $p = 0.00^*$
2	0.87	0.79	$t(255) = -3.31$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.37$ $p = 0.17$
3	0.87	0.83	$t(255) = -5.13$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.90$ $p = 0.06$
4	0.34	1.07	$t(255) = -0.81$ $p = 0.42$	$t(255) = 1.16$ $p = 0.25$
5	1.02	0.89	$t(255) = -6.27$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.68$ $p = 0.10$
6	1.20	0.80	$t(255) = -3.11$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -0.36$ $p = 0.72$
7	1.37	0.86	$t(255) = -4.06$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -0.28$ $p = 0.78$
8	1.14	0.88	$t(255) = -5.39$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.04$ $p = 0.30$
9	1.05	1.03	$t(255) = -4.26$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -0.55$ $p = 0.58$
10	0.86	0.85	$t(255) = -0.57$ $p = 0.58$	$t(255) = -0.18$ $p = 0.86$
11	0.84	0.88	$t(255) = -8.00$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.55$ $p = 0.12$
12	1.08	0.91	$t(255) = -4.19$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -2.62$ $p = 0.01^*$
13	0.84	0.85	$t(255) = -5.12$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.38$ $p = 0.17$
14	0.99	0.88	$t(255) = -5.02$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.30$ $p = 0.20$
15	1.07	0.85	$t(255) = -5.52$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.60$ $p = 0.11$
16	0.24	0.93	$t(255) = -2.56$ $p = 0.01^*$	$t(255) = -2.37$ $p = 0.02^*$
17	1.00	0.89	$t(255) = -3.64$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = 0.00$ $p = 1.00$
18	0.82	0.89	$t(255) = -6.27$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -2.87$ $p = 0.00^*$
19	1.05	0.88	$t(255) = -4.43$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.94$ $p = 0.05^*$
20	0.81	0.92	$t(255) = -4.55$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -2.49$ $p = 0.01^*$
21	1.01	0.90	$t(255) = -5.36$ $p = 0.00^*$	$t(255) = -1.24$ $p = 0.22$

Question (grade 1-10)	Means		Dialect 'yes'		Dialect 'a little'		Dialect means	B/G means
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	$p < 0.05^*$	$p < 0.05^*$
Listening skills in Drents dialect	7.15	1.89	8.16	1.86	6.74	1.75	$t(254) = -5.80$ $p = 0.00^*$	
	B=7.10 G=7.20	B=2.08 G=1.66	B=8.06 G=8.36	B=2.04 G=1.47	B=6.57 G=6.89	B=1.92 G=1.57		$t(254) = 0.42$ $p = 0.68$
Reading skills in Drents dialect	6.48	2.12	7.41	2.21	6.10	1.97	$t(254) = -4.63$ $p = 0.00^*$	
	B=6.47 G=6.49	B=2.30 G=1.90	B=7.35 G=7.52	B=2.34 G=1.98	B=5.99 G=6.21	B=2.15 G=1.78		$t(254) = 0.05$ $p = 0.96$
Vocabulary in Drents dialect	6.56	2.14	7.73	1.93	6.09	2.03	$t(254) = -5.94$ $p = 0.00^*$	
	B=6.61 G=6.50	B=2.30 G=1.94	B=7.65 G=7.88	B=2.13 G=1.51	B=5.57 G=6.14	B=2.20 G=1.88		$t(254) = -0.41$ $p = 0.69$
Listening skills in Dutch	8.81	1.61	9.01	1.28	8.73	1.72	$t(255) = -1.31$ $p = 0.19$	
	B=8.80 G=8.82	B=1.68 G=1.54	B=8.92 G=9.16	B=1.41 G=0.99	B=8.73 G=8.72	B=1.81 G=1.64		$t(255) = 0.15$ $p = 0.88$
Reading skills in Dutch	8.46	1.73	8.68	1.51	8.36	1.81	$t(255) = -1.34$ $p = 0.18$	
	B=8.46 G=8.44	B=1.80 G=1.67	B=8.61 G=8.76	B=1.61 G=1.33	B=8.38 G=8.35	B=1.90 G=1.74		$t(255) = 0.05$ $p = 0.96$
Vocabulary in Dutch	8.42	1.57	8.72	1.46	8.30	1.59	$t(255) = -1.98$ $p = 0.06$	
	B=8.47 G=8.37	B=1.60 G=1.53	B=8.69 G=8.84	B=1.60 G=1.14	B=8.35 G=8.24	B=1.60 G=1.60		$t(255) = 0.59$ $p = 0.55$

Enclosure 6: T-test language proficiency: rough scores and test of confidence

Rough score	Total		Dialect 'yes'		Dialect 'a little'		T-test dialect means
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	<i>p</i> < 0.05*
Total (max = 74)	12.49	3.39	13.14	3.62	12.23	3.27	Yes x little <i>t</i> (250)= -1.93 <i>p</i> = 0.05*
Boys	12.55	3.26	12.61	3.45	12.52	3.18	
girls	12.43	3.54	14.08	0.74	11.97	0.35	Boys x girls <i>t</i> (250)= -0.28 <i>p</i> = 0.78
Reading (max = 18)	2.35	1.37	2.43	1.40	2.31	1.35	Yes x little <i>t</i> (252)= -0.81 <i>p</i> = 0.42
Boys	2.45	1.40	2.31	1.27	2.53	1.47	
girls	2.24	1.33	2.73	1.64	2.10	1.20	Boys x girls <i>t</i> (252)= -1.26 <i>p</i> = 0.21
Listening (max = 10)	1.50	0.96	1.46	0.96	1.52	0.97	Yes x little <i>t</i> (252)= 0.36 <i>p</i> = 0.72
Boys	1.46	0.93	1.38	0.97	1.50	0.91	
girls	1.55	1.00	1.62	0.94	1.53	1.02	Boys x girls <i>t</i> (252)= 0.72 <i>p</i> = 0.47
Vocabulary (max = 46)	8.65	2.78	9.25	3.03	8.41	2.65	Yes x little <i>t</i> (251)= -2.30 <i>p</i> = 0.03*
Boys	8.65	2.80	8.98	3.21	8.48	2.57	
girls	8.65	2.76	9.73	2.69	8.34	2.72	Boys x girls <i>t</i> (251)= -0.01 <i>p</i> = 1.00

Test of confidence	Total		Dialect 'yes'		Dialect 'a little'		T-test dialect means
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	<i>p</i> < 0.05*
Total (max = 74)	4.75	4.89	5.58	6.22	4.37	4.16	Yes x little <i>t</i> (251)= -1.99 <i>p</i> = 0.05*
Boys	4.81	4.93	5.20	5.76	4.60	4.44	
girls	4.69	4.86	6.63	7.13	4.15	3.88	Boys x girls <i>t</i> (251)= -0.19 <i>p</i> = 0.85
Reading (max = 18)	-0.53	2.26	-0.32	2.90	-0.66	1.87	Yes x little <i>t</i> (252)= -1.46 <i>p</i> = 0.14
Boys	-0.53	2.36	-0.47	2.71	-0.56	2.15	
girls	-0.52	2.15	0.30	3.44	-0.75	1.57	Boys x girls <i>t</i> (252)= 0.03 <i>p</i> = 0.98
Listening (max = 10)	0.06	1.57	-0.05	1.83	0.11	1.46	Yes x little <i>t</i> (252)= 0.69 <i>p</i> = 0.49
Boys	0.05	1.73	-0.10	1.93	0.13	1.62	
girls	0.07	1.37	0.05	1.62	0.08	1.30	Boys x girls <i>t</i> (252)= 0.09 <i>p</i> = 0.93
Vocabulary (max = 46)	5.21	3.24	5.95	3.78	4.92	2.97	Yes x little <i>t</i> (251)= -2.30 <i>p</i> = 0.02*
Boys	5.28	3.42	5.76	3.98	5.02	3.08	

girls	5.14	3.04	6.29	3.45	4.82	2.86	Boys x girls $t(251) = -0.33$ $p = 0.75$
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Enclosure 7: Self-assessment and language proficiency, focused on gender

CEFR label	Gender	N	M	SD	B/G means
Basic user	Boys	27	5.20	4.34	$p < 0.05^*$ $t(55) = 0.40$, $p = 0.69$
	Girls	31	5.71	5.28	
Independent user	Boys	86	18.18	4.21	$t(126) = -0.72$, $p = 0.47$
	Girls	78	17.65	4.16	
Proficient user	Boys	24	32.21	4.29	$t(70) = 0.10$, $p = 0.92$
	Girls	11	32.32	4.39	

Question (grade 1-10)	Gender	M	SD	B/G means
Listening skills in Drents dialect	Boys	7.10	2.08	$p < 0.05^*$ $t(254) = 0.42$, $p = 0.68$
	Girls	7.20	1.66	
Reading skills in Drents dialect	Boys	6.47	2.30	$t(254) = 0.05$, $p = 0.96$
	Girls	6.49	1.90	
Vocabulary in Drents dialect	Boys	6.61	2.30	$t(254) = -0.41$, $p = 0.69$
	Girls	6.50	1.94	
Listening skills in Dutch	Boys	8.80	1.68	$t(255) = 0.15$, $p = 0.88$
	Girls	8.82	1.54	
Reading skills in Dutch	Boys	8.46	1.80	$t(255) = -0.05$, $p = 0.96$
	Girls	8.44	1.67	
Vocabulary in Dutch	Boys	8.47	1.60	$t(255) = -0.59$, $p = 0.55$
	Girls	8.37	1.53	

Rough score	Gender	Total	T-test means 'Boys versus girls'	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$p < 0.05^*$
Total (max = 74)	Boys	12.55	3.26	$t(250) = -0.28$, $p = 0.78$
	Girls	12.43	3.54	
Reading (max = 18)	Boys	2.45	1.40	$t(252) = -1.26$, $p = 0.21$
	Girls	2.24	1.33	
Listening (max = 10)	Boys	1.46	0.93	$t(252) = 0.72$, $p = 0.47$
	Girls	1.55	1.00	
Vocabulary (max = 46)	Boys	8.65	2.80	$t(251) = -0.01$, $p = 1.00$
	Girls	8.65	2.76	

Test of confidence	Gender	Total	T-test means 'Boys versus girls'	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$p < 0.05^*$
Total (max = 74)	Boys	4.81	4.93	$t(251) = -0.19$, $p = 0.85$
	Girls	4.69	4.86	
Reading (max = 18)	Boys	-0.53	2.36	$t(252) = 0.03$, $p = 0.98$

Listening (max = 10)	Girls	-0.52	2.15	t(252)= 0.09, p = 0.93
	Boys	0.05	1.73	
Vocabulary (max = 46)	Girls	0.07	1.37	t(251)= -0.33, p = 0.75
	Boys	5.28	3.42	
	Girls	5.14	3.04	

*Enclosure 8:
Attitude
dialect-
speakers,*

gender and dialect affinity

Attitude

Independent samples t-
test

	MD		ZWZ		ZOZ		NV		NL	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Old-fashioned vs. modern	2.09	1.08	1.90	0.94	3.00	1.34	3.36	1.31	4.43	1.03
Boy	2.09	1.15	1.93	0.94	2.88	1.40	3.21	1.39	4.36	1.11
Girl	2.09	1.01	1.87	0.95	3.13	1.27	3.52	1.19	4.51	0.94
'no'	2.06	1.05	1.69	0.88	2.93	1.27	3.28	1.23	4.35	1.05
'little'	1.99	1.02	1.94	0.92	3.05	1.35	3.35	1.37	4.48	0.96
'yes'	2.35	1.21	2.22	1.05	2.97	1.44	3.49	1.30	4.45	1.17
Sociable vs. unsociable	3.00	1.31	3.24	1.21	2.80	1.22	2.76	1.23	2.58	1.38
Boy	2.77	1.34	3.14	1.18	2.88	1.30	2.83	1.28	2.77	1.44
Girl	3.22	1.25	3.36	1.24	2.71	1.13	2.68	1.18	2.37	1.29
'no'	3.05	1.13	3.60	1.24	2.92	1.14	2.76	1.16	2.12	1.16
'little'	3.08	1.33	3.16	1.14	2.81	1.24	2.76	1.28	2.61	1.37
'yes'	2.75	1.47	2.70	1.10	2.56	1.29	2.76	1.25	3.23	1.48
Countrified vs. civilized	2.05	1.16	2.06	1.02	2.91	1.27	2.83	1.26	4.43	0.91
Boy	2.05	1.24	2.13	1.04	2.82	1.31	2.73	1.25	4.43	0.93
Girl	2.04	1.08	1.97	1.00	3.01	1.22	2.93	1.28	4.42	0.88
'no'	1.89	1.04	1.95	1.03	2.84	1.25	2.81	1.28	4.33	0.97
'little'	2.03	1.20	2.11	1.04	2.94	1.28	2.83	1.27	4.47	0.86
'yes'	2.31	1.21	2.15	0.99	2.96	1.30	2.85	1.24	4.48	0.92
Seriously vs. funny	2.75	1.28	2.67	1.30	2.69	1.21	3.13	1.21	2.07	1.19
Boy	2.85	1.33	2.69	1.28	2.68	1.28	3.12	1.26	2.05	1.21
Girl	2.65	1.22	2.64	1.32	2.70	1.14	3.13	1.16	2.10	1.17
'no'	2.81	1.01	2.85	1.28	2.76	1.18	3.02	1.17	2.06	1.10
'little'	2.68	1.34	2.57	1.34	2.68	1.23	3.12	1.26	2.09	1.20
'yes'	2.81	1.45	2.56	1.22	2.61	1.25	3.32	1.13	2.05	1.30
Pretty vs. ugly	3.03	1.35	3.34	1.31	2.96	1.18	3.20	1.18	2.56	1.36
Boy	2.75	1.40	3.18	1.36	3.02	1.25	3.25	1.26	2.79	1.41
Girl	3.29	1.25	3.55	1.21	2.90	1.10	3.14	1.09	2.31	1.25
'no'	3.42	1.23	3.96	1.11	3.25	1.12	3.34	1.10	2.25	1.19
'little'	3.06	1.34	3.19	1.29	2.92	1.13	3.16	1.20	2.45	1.28
'yes'	2.42	1.33	2.48	1.16	2.61	1.29	3.07	1.25	3.31	1.52
Silly vs. intelligent	2.76	1.24	2.76	1.13	3.03	1.13	2.91	1.14	3.77	1.24
Boy	2.75	1.32	2.89	1.18	3.05	1.19	2.88	1.18	3.65	1.34
Girl	2.77	1.17	2.60	1.06	3.02	1.06	2.94	1.09	3.89	1.10
'no'	2.48	1.10	2.38	1.05	2.76	1.10	2.76	1.11	3.90	1.07
'little'	2.84	1.24	2.86	1.08	3.11	1.08	2.97	1.14	3.95	1.06
'yes'	2.96	1.37	3.30	1.20	3.29	1.19	2.99	1.16	3.11	1.61

Attitude statements	ANOVA	Bonferroni
A1 – old-fashioned/modern	$F(2,221) = 1.957, p = 0.14$	-
A1 – sociable/unsociable	$F(2,221) = 1.129, p = 0.33$	-
A1 – countrified/civilized	$F(2,221) = 1.867, p = 0.16$	-
A1 – seriously/funny	$F(2,221) = 0.307, p = 0.74$	-
A1 – pretty/ugly	$F(2,221) = 8.189, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ Yes x little > $p = 0.01$
A1 – silly/intelligent	$F(2,221) = 2.458, p = 0.89$	-
A2 – old-fashioned/modern	$F(2,149) = 3.101, p = 0.05^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.05$
A2 – sociable/unsociable	$F(2,149) = 5.611, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$
A2 – countrified/civilized	$F(2,149) = 0.539, p = 0.59$	-
A2 – seriously/funny	$F(2,149) = 0.864, p = 0.42$	-
A2 – pretty/ugly	$F(2,149) = 14.867, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ Yes x little > $p = 0.03$
A2 – silly/intelligent	$F(2,149) = 6.850, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ No x little > $p = 0.05$
A3 – old-fashioned/modern	$F(2,372) = 0.285, p = 0.75$	-
A3 – sociable/unsociable	$F(2,372) = 2.130, p = 0.12$	-
A3 – countrified/civilized	$F(2,372) = 0.282, p = 0.75$	-
A3 – seriously/funny	$F(2,372) = 0.356, p = 0.70$	-
A3 – pretty/ugly	$F(2,372) = 7.280, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ No x little > $p = 0.05$
A3 – silly/intelligent	$F(2,372) = 6.193, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ No x little > $p = 0.02$
A4 – old-fashioned/modern	$F(2,372) = 0.614, p = 0.54$	-
A4 – sociable/unsociable	$F(2,372) = 0.00, p = 1.00$	-
A4 – countrified/civilized	$F(2,372) = 0.034, p = 0.97$	-
A4 – seriously/funny	$F(2,372) = 1.455, p = 0.24$	-
A4 – pretty/ugly	$F(2,372) = 1.406, p = 0.25$	-
A4 – silly/intelligent	$F(2,372) = 1.441, p = 0.24$	-
A5 – old-fashioned/modern	$F(2,372) = 0.592, p = 0.55$	-
A5 – sociable/unsociable	$F(2,372) = 16.041, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ Yes x little > $p = 0.00$ No x little > $p = 0.01$
A5 – countrified/civilized	$F(2,372) = 0.973, p = 0.38$	-
A5 – seriously/funny	$F(2,372) = 0.032, p = 0.97$	-
A5 – pretty/ugly	$F(2,372) = 16.405, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ Yes x little > $p = 0.00$
A5 – silly/intelligent	$F(2,372) = 14.329, p = 0.00^*$	Yes x no > $p = 0.00$ Yes x little > $p = 0.00$

Attitude: Dialect vs. Nederlands	Dialect	Paired-samples t-test	M/SD dialect	M/SD NL
Old-fashioned vs. modern		$t(373) = -26.36, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.79$ $SD = 0.84$	$M = 4.43$ $SD = 1.03$
	No	$t(117) = -13.97, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.70$ $SD = 0.87$	$M = 4.35$ $SD = 1.05$
	Little	$t(181) = -20.32, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.79$ $SD = 0.82$	$M = 4.89$ $SD = 0.79$
	Yes	$t(73) = -10.18, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.92$ $SD = 0.85$	$M = 4.45$ $SD = 1.17$
Sociable vs. unsociable		$t(373) = 3.61, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.88$ $SD = 0.80$	$M = 2.58$ $SD = 1.38$
	No	$t(117) = 7.11, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.99$ $SD = 0.85$	$M = 2.12$ $SD = 1.16$
	Little	$t(181) = 2.37, p = 0.02^*$	$M = 2.89$ $SD = 0.79$	$M = 2.61$ $SD = 1.37$
	Yes	$t(73) = -3.05, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.68$ $SD = 0.73$	$M = 3.26$ $SD = 1.46$
Countrified vs. civilized		$t(373) = -28.54, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.59$ $SD = 0.82$	$M = 4.43$ $SD = 0.91$
	No	$t(117) = -15.73, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.52$ $SD = 0.82$	$M = 4.33$ $SD = 0.97$
	Little	$t(181) = -20.79, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.61$ $SD = 0.82$	$M = 4.47$ $SD = 0.86$
	Yes	$t(73) = -11.71, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.67$ $SD = 0.84$	$M = 4.50$ $SD = 0.91$
Seriously vs. funny		$t(373) = 10.31, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.84$ $SD = 0.83$	$M = 2.06$ $SD = 1.18$
	No	$t(117) = 6.28, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.87$ $SD = 0.82$	$M = 2.06$ $SD = 1.10$
	Little	$t(181) = 6.66, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.81$ $SD = 0.85$	$M = 2.09$ $SD = 1.20$
	Yes	$t(73) = 4.79, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.90$ $SD = 0.80$	$M = 2.01$ $SD = 1.27$
Pretty vs. ugly		$t(373) = 6.09, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 3.10$ $SD = 0.87$	$M = 2.56$ $SD = 1.36$
	No	$t(117) = 8.29, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 3.42$ $SD = 0.90$	$M = 2.25$ $SD = 1.19$
	Little	$t(181) = 5.08, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 3.06$ $SD = 0.83$	$M = 2.45$ $SD = 1.28$
	Yes	$t(73) = -2.96, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.70$ $SD = 0.73$	$M = 3.31$ $SD = 1.53$
Silly vs. intelligent		$t(373) = -10.95, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.90$ $SD = 0.79$	$M = 3.77$ $SD = 1.23$
	No	$t(117) = -9.52, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.65$ $SD = 0.82$	$M = 3.90$ $SD = 1.07$
	Little	$t(181) = -10.02, p = 0.00^*$	$M = 2.98$	$M = 3.95$

Yes	$t(73) = -0.02, p = 0.98$	$SD = 0.73$ $M = 3.13$ $SD = 0.76$	$SD = 1.06$ $M = 3.14$ $SD = 1.60$
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Paired samples t-test	Contradictions
A1 Old-fashioned vs. modern	A1xA3 $t(222) = -7.15, p = 0.00^*$
	A1xA4 $t(222) = -10.78, p = 0.00^*$
	A1xA5 $t(222) = -22.63, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA3 $t(151) = -10.08, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA4 $t(151) = -13.08, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA5 $t(151) = -21.32, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA4 $t(373) = -4.56, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA5 $t(373) = -17.49, p = 0.00^*$
	A4xA5 $t(374) = -14.70, p = 0.00^*$
A2 Sociable vs. unsociable	A1xA3 $t(222) = 2.11, p = 0.04^*$
	A1xA4 $t(222) = 1.70, p = 0.09$
	A1xA5 $t(222) = 3.21, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA3 $t(151) = 2.90, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA4 $t(151) = 3.90, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA5 $t(151) = 3.60, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA4 $t(373) = 0.59, p = 0.56$
	A3xA5 $t(373) = 2.38, p = 0.02^*$
	A4xA5 $t(374) = 2.01, p = 0.05^*$
A3 Countrified versus civilized	A1xA3 $t(222) = -8.28, p = 0.00^*$
	A1xA4 $t(222) = -6.55, p = 0.00^*$
	A1xA5 $t(222) = -22.21, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA3 $t(151) = -7.89, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA4 $t(151) = -6.98, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA5 $t(151) = -20.70, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA4 $t(373) = 1.14, p = 0.25$
	A3xA5 $t(373) = -19.05, p = 0.00^*$
	A4xA5 $t(374) = -20.06, p = 0.00^*$
A4 Seriously vs. funny	A1xA3 $t(222) = 0.00, p = 1.00$
	A1xA4 $t(222) = -3.64, p = 0.00^*$
	A1xA5 $t(222) = 5.08, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA3 $t(151) = 0.56, p = 0.58$
	A2xA4 $t(151) = -3.12, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA5 $t(151) = 4.49, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA4 $t(373) = -5.56, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA5 $t(373) = 7.05, p = 0.00^*$
	A4xA5 $t(374) = 12.30, p = 0.00^*$
A5 Pretty vs. ugly	A1xA3 $t(222) = 0.79, p = 0.43$
	A1xA4 $t(222) = -2.32, p = 0.02^*$
	A1xA5 $t(222) = 3.11, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA3 $t(151) = 3.02, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA4 $t(151) = 2.13, p = 0.04^*$
	A2xA5 $t(151) = 4.35, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA4 $t(373) = -3.35, p = 0.00^*$
	A3xA5 $t(373) = 4.36, p = 0.00^*$
	A4xA5 $t(374) = 7.01, p = 0.00^*$
A6 Silly vs. intelligent	A1xA3 $t(222) = -2.70, p = 0.01^*$
	A1xA4 $t(222) = -0.76, p = 0.45$
	A1xA5 $t(222) = -8.34, p = 0.00^*$
	A2xA3 $t(151) = -2.12, p = 0.04^*$
	A2xA4 $t(151) = -2.12, p = 0.04^*$

A2xA5	$t(151) = -6.20, p = 0.00^*$
A3xA4	$t(373) = 1.80, p = 0.07$
A3xA5	$t(373) = -8.58, p = 0.00^*$
A4xA5	$t(374) = -9.63, p = 0.00^*$

Colofon

Auteur: Joanne van der Boom
Titel: Assessing versus Achieving: if you think you can('t), can('t) you do it?;
A survey about the self-assessment of language [Drents dialect] in
relation to language proficiency of high school students in Drenthe.
Een uitgave van: Wetenschapswinkel Taal, Cultuur & Communicatie
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Contact

Wetenschapswinkel Taal, Cultuur & Communicatie
Postbus 716
9700 AS Groningen
tawi@rug.nl
@ScienceShopsRug

Nederlandse samenvatting

Het doel van deze thesis is het in kaart brengen van de relatie tussen de zelfinschatting van dialectkennis en daadwerkelijke taalvaardigheid in Drents dialect bij middelbare scholieren (vmbo basis/kader) in de provincie Drenthe. Daarnaast wordt de affiniteit van de scholieren met dialect gepeild en worden er aan het einde aanbevelingen gedaan voor het implementeren van Drents dialect op de middelbare school. Deze thesis is uitgevoerd met behulp van een vragenlijst, bestaande uit vier onderdelen: (1) stellingen met betrekking tot de zelfinschatting van dialectkennis, (2) een taalvaardigheidstest in Drents dialect, (3) een attitude onderdeel waar de houding van de scholieren ten opzichte van dialecten en het Nederlands wordt gemeten en (4) de domainen waarin de scholieren in contact komen met dialect worden op een rij gezet. De scholieren worden gesplitst in drie groepen: scholieren die geen, een beetje of veel dialect spreken. De scholieren die geen dialect spreken zijn meegenomen in het onderzoek om hun houding ten opzichte van de dialecten en het Nederlands te kunnen vergelijken met de dialectsprekers. De resultaten laten zien dat scholieren goed in staat waren hun vaardigheden in te schatten: volledige dialectsprekers vonden hun kennis 'zeer vaardig' terwijl dialectsprekers (een beetje) hun kennis als 'middelmatic' inschatten. De zelfinschatting van de scholieren kwam niet geheel overeen met de scores van de taalvaardigheidstest: toch bleken de stellingen een betrouwbare maat voor het inschatten van dialectkennis ($\alpha = 0.89$). De houding van alle scholieren (met verschillende dialectachtergronden) was redelijk gelijk: het Nederlands werd door alle groepen hoger gewaardeerd dan de dialecten. Daarentegen werden de dialecten niet als 'dom' of 'grappig' beschouwd; het lijkt erop dat dialectsprekers toch als een volwaardig communicatiepartner worden gezien. Aan het einde werd aan de scholieren gevraagd of zij het Drents als schoolvak zouden zien. Dialectsprekers (veel) zagen dit wel voor zich, maar dialectsprekers (een beetje) vonden dit een minder goed idee. Het Drents zou wel een opleving kunnen krijgen als het samengevoegd zou kunnen worden met bestaande vakken op de middelbare school. Op deze manier kunnen scholieren rustig aan het idee wennen dat Drents dialect bij hun cultuur en onderwijsprogramma hoort.