Proceedings

Third International Conference on Language Education and Testing

Language Education and Emotions

Mathea Simons
Tom F. H. Smits



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Opening new horizons

Universiteit Antwerpen

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Language Education and Emotions

PROCEEDINGS

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University of Antwerp (Belgium)

Composed by
Mathea Simons, Tom F.H. Smits

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Introduction

This volume contains a selection of presentations from the Third International Conference on Language Education and Testing. The first conference on the theme of 'Language Testing and HRM' brought together more than 100 participants from 12 countries in 1997. The second conference, organized in 2013, united more than 188 practitioners, policymakers and researchers from 26 countries. Its theme, 'Language Testing in Europe: Time for a New Framework?', arose from a need to respond to concrete issues associated with the use of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in language testing.

The 2018 conference, the full title of which reads '*What a Feeling!* Language Education and Emotions', is devoted to the affect in language learning and teaching and takes place from 26 until 28 November at the City Campus of the University of Antwerp in Flanders, Belgium. The research area of Language Education and Emotions may not be new, but the combination of perspectives represented by the contributions at the conference is unprecedented.

Jane Arnold Morgan (University of Sevilla, Spain) and Jean-Marc Dewaele (Birkbeck, University of London, UK) will give keynote presentations in order to enhance the discussions from their specific areas of expertise. Jakub Bielak and Anna Mystkowska-Wiertelak (Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan, Poland) receive the award for the selected plenary presentation.

The conference subthemes cover a range of topics relating to affective factors in language teaching and learning, centering on (1) emotions on the side of the language learner, such as foreign language anxiety, self-esteem, motivation, willingness to communicate, inhibition, autonomy, (2) emotions and the language teacher, e.g. self-efficacy, motivation, empathy and (3) emotions enclosed in or emanated by the teaching and learning process proper: language teaching methods, approaches in language teaching, learning materials/ tools, CALL, evaluation, etc.

Reflecting the overall preference of the 121 presenters, the conference contains slightly more contributions that address the emotions of the language learner: 48 papers discuss this topic, 22 others deal with language teachers' emotions, and 32 contributions describe the affect in the teaching and learning process.

In this volume, the full papers of thirty-five researchers within the vast area of language education and emotions have been brought together. All presenting participants underwent a double blind peer review procedure. The abstracts of all the presenters are included in the Book of Abstracts, which is downloadable from the conference website (https://www.uantwerpen.be/en/conferences/language-education-and-emotions/). Authors then had the option to prepare a paper for this proceedings volume of the 2018 conference.

The organizers wish to thank the university's Antwerp School of Education and its University and Community Department as well as the Flemish Research Foundation (FWO) for their financial support. Thanks too to the members of the organizing and scientific committees: Christian Ludwig (Pädagogische Hochschule Karlsruhe, Germany), Ferran Suñer Muñoz (Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium), Jesús García Laborda (Universidad de Alcalá, Spain), Jordi Casteleyn (University of Antwerp, Belgium), Jozef Colpaert (University of Antwerp, Belgium), Maria Giovanna Tassinari (Freie Universität Berlin, Germany), Pascale Hadermann (Ghent University, Belgium).

One of the objectives of this years' conference is to create a community on the topic of Language Education and Emotions and ask for and possibly challenge each participant's opinion(s). We therefore conducted a pre-conference survey into the challenges presenters see for the research domain. Its results will be presented during the opening session. Other types of interaction with the audience have been included in the programme as well, such as a voting session, discussion groups, and, not unimportantly many (coffee) breaks as well as a joint conference dinner.

We hope that you will enjoy this volume as it sheds light on new perspectives on the research field of Emotions in Language Education.

Antwerp, 31 October 2018

Mathea Simons & Tom F.H. Smits

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Emotions and the Language Learner

Expressing the L2 Self in Autobiographical Narratives: Lexical Choices and Thematic Preferences

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Abstract

Studies on the construction of the Self in bi-lingual and multilingual subjects show the perception of different selves in the respective languages, which in turn gives rise to different mental representations of oneself (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2001-2003; Pavlenko, 2006; Koven, 1998, 2007). In addition, bilinguals recognize that multiple linguistic codes and symbol systems have an impact on the subjective experience of what they are. In the respective languages, bi and multilingual individuals feel like different people (Pavlenko, 2006), as they have different social and psychological lives. Thus, socialization in multiple contexts gives rise to unequal linguistic forms of self-referral and locating oneself in one world or another.

The aim of this study is to observe how 3 Italian-speaking students of intermediate level Spanish describe themselves in their own language and in a foreign language. To achieve this, pairs of lexical choices and thematic preferences elaborated in Spanish and Italian are analyzed by means of autobiographical description tests (How are you?). These experimental tests (the verbal expression of the Self) allow us to see how speakers of foreign languages construct systems of meaning on themselves and choose specific words in the respective languages. The lexical choices generate multidimensional comparisons (Spanish and Italian) that allow us to approach the psychological processes and analyze the attitudes of the multilingual experimental subjects.

To this purpose, a pilot, exploratory, descriptive and observational study with a cognitive and cross-sectional approach was carried out. In more detail, the analysis of the thematic preferences made it possible to check the percentage of correspondence between the types of mental states in Spanish and Italian. Within these thematic preferences, the observation of lexical choices shows a differentiation in the content of these states. The results show that, in the description of one's own physicist, the lexical choices differ in the two languages, which leads to postulate the perception of different selves by the participants, as well as an "intracategorial" variation in the cognitive processing of the self. Thus, for example, one participant preferred to define himself with "brown" hair in Italian and "blond" in Spanish, which suggests the subconscious activation of different reference worlds and different self-memories. On the other hand, in the characteristic description, different thematic preferences increase and unequal choices decrease. Consequently, the need to evidence different personality traits is inferred, as well as an "extracategorial" variation in the perception of the self.

The results reinforce the hypothesis that informants perceive, process, categorize and represent the self differently in the two languages. In the transcripts analyzed, people refer to themselves differently in the two languages and show different traits of their personality. The fact that they are related languages could consolidate the hypotheses of data obtained in other languages. In conclusion, the Self seems to have a flexible, deictic and pragmatic nature that manifests itself and becomes tangible if it is analyzed from different linguistic perspectives.

The improbability of using different words in different languages to describe oneself is explained by the activation in the mind of different reference systems to self-value, identify and recognize within different sociolinguistic communities.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

Sociolinguistic communities use different reference systems to assess, identify and recognize what is appropriate and what is socially accepted. For example, a person can be defined as tall or brown, however, the essential characteristic of height (or identity) with which people describe themselves, has different attributes in different countries because of different ideologies determined by geolectal and socio-cultural criteria. These criteria in turn activate a specific ideology or cosmovision (Buttazzi, 2015). There is a relationship between culture and nature that influences the establishment of human (organic) norms. Learning a new language implies the reconstruction and reorganization of the processes of language use and socialization. Involves much more than simply learning skills or a system of grammar rules; it implies an alteration of self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and new ways of being, therefore it has a significant impact on the social nature of the student (Williams & Burden, 1999, p.123).

The development of human relationships entails the need to be able to narrate and explain oneself to the other, locating ourselves in storyline: "*who am I?"* and "*How am I*?" (Blommaert, 2005). Language learning carries one's own reconstruction in a foreign language (FL henceforth) and it implies a new vision of oneself and of the external world. Also, it supposes that users learn to see and attribute meaning to themselves from the new values of host community. One's being restructuring implies destabilization, since the already established patterns of categorization, interpretation and representation have to be re-established in order to adapt them to those of the new language.

Accordingly, we infer the need of investigations to determine how users restructure the lexical attention patterns focused on themselves during FL acquisition. This is what Pavlenko (2014) refers to as our relativity experience. In the FL do we see ourselves and feel in the same way as in our mother tongue? Do the lexical forms with which we define ourselves and which define our essence and existence differ?

In this framework, autobiographical narration in the FL have proved to be a very useful tool for the verbal expression of the self "*how are you?"* By observing the lexical choices and thematic preferences for describing themselves in the FL and in the first language (L1 henceforth), it is possible to define the experimental subject's perception of themselves and to determine how FL speakers construct systems of meaning about themselves (what they are). In more detail, to observe how they feel and how they look in the FL and, in the same way, to examine how the perception of their own identity changes during the acquisition of the FL, three Italian-speaking student's lexical decisions are observed. In these tasks, it is assumed that, through heuristic strategies of simplification and representation, the subject activates in their mind themselves ideas and concepts that are most available at that time. Specifically, these are lexical units chosen by themselves through written narrative or autobiographical description tasks that allow linguistic decisions about oneself - the verbal expression of the self -, from the stimulus *Define, characterize and describe yourself.*

2. Multilinguals exhibit different personality traits and feel like different persons in the languages they speak

Recent research focused on bi- and multilinguals shows that participants perceive different selves in their respective languages. They perceive linguistic worlds as differently, that is, change their way of thinking, perspectives, linguistic and non-linguistic behaviours. Specifically, these changes are due to different cultural and conversational expectations with which they are committed in their respective contexts, as well as, to a greater degree of emotionality and intimacy in L1 (Pavlenko 2006; Pavlenko 2014). Furthermore, they are aware that the activation of more than one language supposes an internal change in them (Pavlenko, 2006, Koven, 1998, 2007).

At the same time, we know that self verbal expression is a process that involves both perception and production (Koven, 1998, p. 421). Thus, from different contexts the same person creates experiences, feels, is perceived and is represented in different ways. According to this, the same person expresses, describes and refers to himself in a different way in the languages he speaks (Koven, 1998, 2007).

Within the framework of a longitudinal research carried out by Dewaele and Pavlenko between 2001 and 2003, Pavlenko (2006) analyzed the results of the 33th question of the *Bilingualism and Emotions Web Questionnaire* (BEQ henceforth): "Do you feel like a different person sometimes when you use your different languages?" (*Ibid*., 2006, p. 6). The results analysis revealed that 65% (n = 675)

of the participants answered the question positively, 25% (n = 266) negatively and 6% (n = 64) gave an ambiguous answer (no but). Most of the positive responses showed a high degree of elaboration, which suggests that the participants felt the need to justify and explain their answers (Pavlenko 2006, p. 12). In this context, it has been demonstrated that the languages that are learned after the critical period produce weaker responses due to a sense of distance and incorporation. What the participants defined as "artificial". Thus, the responses of the BEQ reflect this difference in the processing of emotionality, hence, that different selves are perceived. According to investigator, the perception of these selves is a characteristic that most bi and multilinguals experience, nevertheless, the results suggest that people living in bilingual contexts do not necessarily perceive their linguistic selves as different. These findings prove that different languages can lead to the creation of multiple selves, which gives rise to linguistic repertoires, cultural patterns, autobiographical memories and different levels of emotionality experienced in the respective languages. Multilinguals and multiculturals produce different autobiographical narratives in their respective languages and have difficulties in translating the same experiences into other languages (Pavlenko 2014, p. 188).

Similarity, ethnic studies (Koven, 1998, 2007) carried out to determine the impact of language on personality, show that speakers who socialize in different contexts have different linguistic repertoires in in their respective languages. The perception of different selves by the participants was manifested in the use of different registers and different lexical and morphosyntactic resources in French and Portuguese. They used different words to refer to them despite telling the same story. They emphasized and underlined different personality traits according to the language and said they perceived and felt differently due to the two languages being projected in their imagination at different places and times. Also, they were described differently by the external evaluators who listened to the recordings of their productions (Koven 1998, 2007).

These results demonstrate that the language of coding and recovery influences how we perceive ourselves and narrate ourselves and how we locating ourselves in storylines: in a different way and focusing on significant and relevant cultural aspects for the context. Different contexts create in the same person experiences and different ways of feeling, perceiving and representing themselves, hence, they express, describe and refer to themselves differently in the respective languages (Koven, 1998).

From another perspective, psychological studies show that if a FL is used to solve moral dilemmas, a more utilitarian and less emotional perspective is adopted regarding whether they are done in the L1 (Costa *et al*. 2014). Thus, making moral decisions in FL causes a reduced emotional response and provides a psychological distance from the concerns.

3. Lexical choices and thematic preferences in autobiographical narrative tests

With the aim to investigate the effects of the two languages on the self-image and the lexical choices of 3 intermediate level Italian students of Spanish, we provoked an autobiographical description in Spanish (FL) and in Italian (L1) where students produced lexical decisions about themselves. This study was guided by the question: Do people look and feel like different people and show different personal traits when they describe themselves in Spanish and Italian? that is, does it exist a manifest difference between the pairs of lexical choices and thematic preferences that the student produces about themselves in the test that activates LE and in those which activates the L1? Successively, we examined these autobiographical linguistic conjectures in their multimodal representations for a denotative characterization of how the observed subjects refer to themselves. The tasks helped us compare the productions that students generate to name and describe themselves and to observe the lexical decision in the context of the autobiographical description. Specifically, the lexical choices and thematic preferences in both languages showed, in a deictic manner, specific informants' attitudes towards the referents, (in this case, they themselves) and their identity. It was possible to carry out psychological considerations about the informants, through its effect in the real world.

The autobiographical description provoked the informants to describe their own physique and character in both languages (*How are you? How is your character? Briefly describe*). They were provided on the same day with a break of 7 minutes apart. The instructions were identical for the tests, but, pronounced respectively in Spanish and Italian.

The results were weighted by comparing pairs of lexical choices and thematic preferences. It was calculated in the data collection:

- the number of coincidence and dissidence pairs of thematic choices: (1) corresponding in both languages in form and content (type and content of mental state), that is, the same morphosyntactic structures with the same semantic content; (2) present in Spanish and not in Italian or present in Italian and not in Spanish;

- the number of coincidence and dissidence pairs of lexical choices: (1) the number of dissidence pairs, that is, the same form (type of mental state) in Italian and Spanish, but, not corresponding, different in content (semantic); (2) the number of coincidence pairs of lexical choices present in Spanish and not in Italian or present in Italian and not in Spanish.

The group that was observed in this pilot, cognitive and observational research was formed by 3 Italian students of Spanish as a FL: two men and one woman aged 32 to 50 years with Italian as L1. The subjects belonged to the Inlingua Imola school, they attended the Spanish B1 course in 2013/2014.

3.1. How are you physically? Briefly describe yourself

The first observation indicates that the 3 subjects produced different lexical decisions in Spanish and Italian, that is, they preferred to use different words, adjectives and attributes in the two languages: there was a majority of corresponding thematic preferences, in other words, the students chose to use the same morphosyntactic structures to describe themselves both in Italian and Spanish ("be + height", "have hair + colour", etc.). In spite of this, we will focus on the qualitative contents of the mental states that were activated during the description.

[1E] *Yo soy **bastante alto**, tengo ojos **azules** y el pelo que durante el verano parece **rubio**.*	I'm **quite tall**, I have **blue** eyes and hair that looks **blond** during the summer
[1I] *Sono **mediamente alto**, di corporatura **media**, con occhi **azzurri** e capelli **castani***	I'm **medially tall**, of **medium** build, with **blue** eyes and **brown** hair

In [1] the subject used the same structure to define his own height in both languages and, nevertheless, he did it thought adjectives and specifications with different degrees: *enough* in the FL and *half* in the L1. Similarly, he claimed to have blue eyes in both languages. A thematic preference did not correspond: in Italian, he preferred to define himself "of medium build", something he did not do in Spanish. This difference is due to the fact that, probably, the subject, in his MT, needed to express an adequacy or suitability to the world of action in relation to a certain characteristic of comparison, that is feeling "fair with respect to the average" of the sociolinguistic group to which it refers implicitly. On the other hand, 1 dissident lexical choice Is observed: he claimed to have "brown hair" in Italian his MT, however, in Spanish he chose to define himself as "blond", arguing that during the summer he looks blond. Probably, the FL caused the memory and the activation of the idea of himself during holidays in Spain, which makes plausible this apparent incongruence caused from comparison of both choices.

[2E] *Soy **delgada**, de **media** altura. Tengo el pelo **castaño** y **corto***	I'm **thin**, of **medium** height. I have **brown** and **short** hair
[2I] *Sono **magra**, di **media** altezza, ho i capelli **castani** di lunghezza **media***	I am **thin**, of **medium** height, I have **medium-long brown** hair

As above, also in [2] the second participant used coincident lexical choices in Spanish and Italian: "thin", "of medium height" and "with brown hair." Despite claiming to have brown hair in both languages, she produced a dissident lexical choice and saw herself "with short hair" in Spanish and "medium-long" in Italian. From our perspective, it is plausible that a woman has a special sensibility to certain manners of wearing hair and taking care of it, hence it is possible that she has seen herself and felt more comfortable describing herself with shorter hair in Spanish, where the tacit community of reference does tend to pay special attention to hair care and the perception of the stereotype "Spanish women -dark and Mediterranean- have long hair and take care of it particularly" is probably true for an Italian.

[3E] *Mas o meno 1,70 **de alto** y 70 kg de **peso** y 50 años de edad, el pelo es **blanco** y la piel **morena***	More or less 1.70 **tall** and 70 kg of **weight** and 50 years old, The hair is **white** and **brown** skin
[3I] *Sono **alto** 1,70 m. peso 70 Kg. ho i capelli **bianchi** la pelle **olivastra***	[3I] I am **tall** 1,70 m **weight** 70 Kg. I have the **white** hair the **olive** skin

The informant 3, also, confirms the pattern of coincident lexical choices ("height " and "with grey hair") with the presence of a qualitative dissidence: he argued to have "brown skin" in Spanish, which in Italian would be translated as "dark". However, it chose to define himself with "olive skin" in the L1, that is, olive-coloured.

On the one hand, these results seem to indicate the influence of both languages on the lexical choices and thematic preferences that the participants used to describe themselves physically. On the other, the description in the L1 presents a higher percentage of adjectives (32% versus 25% of the total of the words). These results may be due to an influence of Italian on the informant's cognition that was manifest in the need to detail more deeply their own description. On the basis of this difference in the percentage of the adjectives in Spanish and Italian, it is inferred that the participants felt a greater need to qualify, compare, quantify, classify and evaluate themselves when the L1 was activated.

3.2. How is your character? Briefly describe yourself

In the own character description test, the number of dissident thematic preferences in both languages increased with respect to the previous one, and the number of different lexical choices decreased. These data may indicate that participants preferred to focus both descriptions on different personality traits and use completely different words. In this way, many adjectives do not correspond in this test:

[1E] ***Mi*** *carácter es basicamente* ***tranquilo*** *y* ***reflexivo*** *pero tengo un lado mas* ***impulsivo*** *tambien que sale solamente a veces. Soy* ***bastante solitario*** *pero me gusta mucho hablar y salir con* ***mis*** *amigos. En pocas palabras un de ellos me ha dicho que por* ***mi*** *carácter busco a explicar los sentimientos con la razon y entonces a hacer coexistir rationalidad y fantasia*	**My** character is basically **calm** and **thoughtful** but I also have also a more **impulsive** side that comes out only sometimes. I'm **enough lonely** but I like to talk and go out with **my** friends. In a few words, one of them told me that because of **my** character I seek to explain feelings with reason and then to coexist rationality and fantasy
[1I] *Sono di base* ***tranquillo****,* ***riflessivo*** *e* ***sereno****, ma a volte esce anche il mio lato più* ***impulsivo****. Sono* ***tendenzialmente solitario****, ma mi piace anche molto uscire con gli amici e stare in compagnia. Convivono in me aspetti* ***opposti*** *che si manifestano a seconda della situazione. Una volta un mio amico ha detto di me: "tu cerchi di spiegare con la ragione il sentimento"*	I'm basically **calm**, **thoughtful** and **serene**, but sometimes my most **impulsive** side comes out also. I **tend to** be **lonely**, but I also like a lot going out with friends and being in company. In me, **opposing** aspects cohabit depending on the situation. Once a friend of mine said about me: "you try to explain the rational with feelings"

Especially, the informant 1 defined himself as "untroubled" in Italian and did not do so in Spanish, which can indicate that he implicitly activated the need to express and describe his attitude towards his worries in general.

[2E] *Soy una persona* ***tranquila****,* ***alegre*** *y* ***disponible****. Paso* ***mucho*** *tiempo con* ***mi*** *familia. Me gusta viajar y descubrir* ***nuevos*** *lugares. No practico deportes pero me gusta caminar.*	I am a **calm**, **cheerful** and **available** person. I spend **a lot** of time with **my** family. I like to travel and discover **new** places. I do not practice sports but I like to walk.
[2I] *Sono una persona* ***tranquilla, allegra*** *e* ***disponibile****. Sono* ***precisa****,* ***ordinata*** *e* ***piuttosto metodica****. Mi piace trascorrere il* ***mio*** *tempo libero (****poco****) con la* ***mia*** *famiglia. Mi piace viaggiare, scoprire posti* ***nuovi****. Non pratico sport ma mi piace fare* ***lunghe*** *camminate*	I am a **calm, cheerful** and **available** person. I'm **precise**, **tidy** and **rather methodical**. I like spending **my** free time (**little**) with **my** family. I like traveling, discovering **new** places. I do not practice sports but I like to take **long** walks

Informant 2, similarly, preferred to define herself "precise, tidy and rather methodical" in her L1, a characteristic that she did not make evident in FL. Moreover, in Italian she spoke about a short time that she spent with her family (she said: "*I like spending my (brief) free time with my family* ") and in Spanish she spoke about a lot of time (i.e., she said *"I spend a lot of time with my family*"). As above [1], it can be noted that the MT triggered the need to specify some type of attitude towards relevant issues and

that can cause preoccupation. In this case, the concern in Italian is more specific than above and is expressed in relation to the reduced free time available to spend with the family.

[3E] *Tengo passion para **mi** familia, soy un tipo **alegre**, me gusta mirar siempre adelante y **no tiengo miedo** de acer **nuevas** experiencia. Cuando me lenvanto suele ser un dia **nuevo** y me gusta mucio jugar a todos los juegos. No me gusta trabajar pero me gusta ser **util**.*	I have passion for **my** family, I am a **cheerful** guy, I always like to look forward and I am **not afraid** of getting **new** experiences. When I wake up it's usually a **new** day and I like **a lot** to play all the games. I do not like to work but I like to be **useful**.
[3I] *Sono spesso **allegro** e **positivo**, traggo spesso insegnamento dalle esperienze, mi piace condividere la felicità con le persone che amo, non conosco la parola odio. Guardo sempre avanti specialmente dopo eventi **negativi**. Credo nell'amicizia*	I am often **happy** and **positive**, I often draw lessons from experiences, I like to share happiness with the people I love, I do not know the word hate. I always move on especially after **negative** events. I believe in friendship

In more detail, when the participants had to define and describe themselves physically, the analysis of thematic preferences seems to indicate coincidence in the types of mental states in Spanish and Italian. Within these thematic preferences, an examination of lexical choices seems to underline a certain dissidence in the content of these mental states, that is, the tendency to see and feel differently and "with different eyes" in the languages they speak. Relating to the description of one's own character, qualitative observations seem to suggest that dissenting thematic preferences increase and unequal lexical choices decrease, which may indicate the need to make evident different traits of one's own personality. In general, Italian L1 descriptions show a greater demand when comparing, evidencing, classifying, quantifying and evaluating the features of the extension of the nouns used. From our perspective, the content of these lexical and morphosyntactic categories seem to indicate cognitive qualitative differences that deserve a more detailed and consistent research in the future.

4. Conclusions

The aim of these pilot, cognitive and ethnolinguistic study was to observe and analyze the judgments and lexical decisions that 3 Italian Spanish as a FL students issued to describe themselves in autobiographical narrative tests provoked in the MT and the FL in order to investigate how they feel and look when the FL is activated.

The qualitative and multimodal analysis of the pairs of lexical decisions allowed to verify that the linguistic conjectures did not coincide: the subjects preferred to use different words to refer to themselves, they felt the need to show different traits of their personality, and they activated different ideas of themselves because the linguistic stimuli promoted mental associations that they considered pertinent and coherent with the different imaginary linguistic environments that were activated. Hence, this observation seems to indicate, as well as the studies reviewed, that identity is related to language and that people see themselves and feel differently in a FL (Koven 1998, 2007; Pavlenko 2006, 2014). At the same time, participants referred their attitudes towards concerns in their MT, such as "hate", "negative events", "little time to spend with family", etc. (Costa et al.'s 2014). We understand that this is a small group, thus, the results should be taken with caution, however the incidence of language in the self-concept and identity has been studied with bigger samples, consequently this phenomenon can be considered probable.

The analyzed linguistic conjectures are coherent and pertinent with their context of emission, nevertheless, in ex-post evaluation they turn out incoherent (for example, it is strange that the same woman in just seven minutes defines herself simultaneously with short and medium hair). The results seem to suggest that the participants elaborated the lexical decisions with the ease that instances or occurrences can be brought to mind and the ease needed to recall examples in associative memory (see Tversky and Kahneman, 1974 for a discussion of human availability heuristics and biases). They processed the lexical decisions from a similarity judgment, and they evaluated themselves by the degree in which they saw themselves or felt representative of the target sociolinguistic community to which they tacitly pointed out from linguistic input in Italian or Spanish. Instead of answering the original question - which would have elicited the same responses in the L1 and in the FL- the 3 students answered some easier questions: *How do I feel when I speak the FL?* Thus, they imagined themselves in different linguistic worlds and produced different associations that, in turn, gave rise to different linguistic forms,

despite the fact that only 7 minutes passed between the test in the L1 and in the FL. They chose to focus attention on different personality traits and qualities of themselves in the two languages and relevant in a specific environment or another.

Accordingly, it is important that FL users learn what it means to be an "intercultural user" and "know how to be" in an FL. Based on this assumption, to educate to be something different is the great challenge of language teaching: teaching to see oneself and feel like someone different, in a different world and speaking a different language. That is, make the experience of our relativity something that can enhance our identity and personality, hence, the learning experience. To achieve this, it is important to implement in the classroom the practice of "mimicry" (Vellegal, 2004, p. 50) where the student plays to believe, to believe himself, to make others believe that he is other differently than himself.

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Bio data

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Language Ideology as an Indicator of External Motivation for Academic English in Higher Education: A Comparison between Flanders (B) and the DR Congo

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Abstract

The steady introduction of English as medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Flanders (Belgium) is a powerful external motivational incentive. As regards its different natures, motivation is found to be very strongly related to success in language learning, but it remains unknown what exactly is its cause and what the result. As integrative or instrumental motivation hardly play any role at all with most learners, motivation is mostly a (language) teacher's responsibility. As opposed to this, extrinsic or external motivation (cf Ought-to L2 Self, Dörnyei, 2005), the focus of this paper, is derived from external incentives. Current language policy in the DRC and Flanders favours the introduction of EMI in higher education. EMI refers to the teaching of a subject using the English language, without explicit language learning aims or English being the national language (Jenkins, 2014). The choice and presence of English are assumed to represent a powerful external motivational incentive (Kamwangamalu, 2010) for higher education students who take English as part of their general curriculum (DRC) or are confronted with EMI (Flanders). This study deals with the saliency of motivational factors such as quality of the language, personal interests, community interests, nation-building potential and cultural impact of English, as these are frequently mentioned in the dominant discourse (Salverda, 2001; Vandekerckhove & Cuvelier, 2013).

For our large scale comparison, a survey (5-pt Likert scales) was developed on feelings about the use of English in accordance with the aforementioned factors. Adding interviews would be the most complete method to tap language-ideological views (Razfar & Rumenapp, 2012), yet was hardly feasible due to sample sizes. Subjects were facing the introduction of English as EMI (Flanders) or as a subject in the non-specialist curriculum (DRC). The Flemish groups (UAntwerpen) were large (N=625, thus precluding interviews) and were surveyed electronically in 2012 (N=330), 2015 (N=174) and 2018 (N=121). The Congolese groups (UCC, Kinshasa and UNILU, Lubumbashi) (N=149 and N=144), surveyed in 2014, were also quite large and had to be surveyed on paper. The analysis consisted One-Way ANOVA comparisons to detect differences.

The analysis reveals differences and shifts: between Flemish data at the three points in time, between DRC–Flanders, and between Kinshasa–Lubumbashi. As external motivation is an established key to success in language acquisition, this study testifies to an urgent need to adapt both the content and the embedding of English courses in the language ideological framework of the target groups. In some cases concomitant work on external motivation may be necessary, especially since the data (in particular the diachronic Flemish data) show fast shifts in the language ideological views of students.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

Since the last decade of the 20th century English has been heavily promoted as a language of instruction in higher education, sparking quite heated debates in many countries (sometimes flavoured by local historical experiences). The present paper focuses on the situation in Flanders and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). Flanders, a region of Belgium with Dutch as its official language, is situated in northwestern Europe. The DRC, a multilingual Central African country much larger than Belgium, is a former colony of Belgium that has French as the de facto national language. Both countries still have close links, among other things in the domain of education. Notwithstanding independent developments (e.g., Belgium adopted the unifying Bologna Declaration), both countries and their academic authorities share the concern to play an international role and, by consequence, are debating the use of English. Yet whether the motivation of students as the language policy's target group is keeping abreast, is a matter that has not yet received (scientific) attention.

Motivation of language learners at large, however, has been extensively investigated since the turn of the millennium, making Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan (20151, p 145) speak of an 'unprecedented boom' since 2005 – and fortunate at least for the purpose of the present study, when looking back even as much as 25 years, it is largely English as a foreign language that the insights and paradigms have been based on. Adopting Dörnyei's (2005) widespread L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) with its three motivation-generating components (Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self and L2 Learning Experience), it becomes clear that the primary source of EMI motivation central to this study are the social pressures related to the Ought-to L2 self-image of students.

The present study could be seen as part of what Kroon (2000) calls the language management policy-making cycle. This paper is intended to document the language ideology of today's students, who are, obviously, strongly concerned by the new policies as these are gradually implemented. The authors are involved in the process, both in Flanders and in the DRC.

2. Research context and hypothesis

The context for this language policy and motivation study is the introduction of English as an academic language in the DRC and Flanders, for which a number of language management decisions are being taken (or still considered) that are likely to have a serious impact on the academic language situation. Flemish authorities favour the wide-scale introduction of English as language of instruction (EMI) in higher education: English would gradually be extended on master levels, while Dutch retains its position at bachelor's level. In the DRC the government's intention is to foster the use of English as an academic language next to French, which is currently predominant at all levels of education. The decision was made by the relevant authorities, i.e. the Ministry of Higher Education as well as the Congolese government as a whole. It is part and parcel of a higher education policy that envisages the introduction and development of English as a language in education, along with a change towards the bachelor-master structure and the deployment of ICT. For the areas in eastern RDC, there is an additional aspect: contacts with neighbouring countries (Zambia, Rwanda, Burundi, Sudan, etc) tend to happen in English. This also applies to the western part of the country (Kinshasa), though direct contact with anglophones is restricted to the international organizations present in the capital.

The focus on English as a language of international communication and globalization is, of course, part of a typical modernist development intervention. Including Flanders into the comparison yields some interesting insights. As a matter of fact, Flanders witnesses a wide debate over the extension of academic EMI. This is due to specific historical factors: over the last one and a half century (roughly between Belgian independence in 1830 and the completion of the federal organization of the country around the 1980s), the Flemish have struggled to acquire a position in the Belgian state (Deprez & Vos, 1998; Cuvelier, 2012; Préaux, 2014 among others), intimately linked with the struggle for Dutch as a language of government, the judiciary and education (e.g. in the 1930s about the use of Dutch rather than dominant French as the language of instruction in higher education). The imminent replacement of Dutch by English, which is currently being considered, has sparked vivid and far-reaching discussions over factors that would favour one decision or the other. Not only has Dutch been profiled as the language of empowerment, it is also presented as part of the cultural heritage of the

[1] In view of the Language Education and Emotions conference aim to provide an overview of the scientific status quo, this publication discloses recent developments in the research on second language learning motivation.

Flemish, as a language of solidarity and community building. But, on the other hand, the position of English has got its advocates as well, it being profiled as the international language, the language of globalization, economic cooperation, profitable to personal development, and suited for scientific exchange and cooperation. The discussion in Flanders is developing on several levels at the same time, involving the economic actors (industries, enterprises), cultural organizations, higher education itself, representatives of cultural institutions, politicians, and student organizations. With over half of Belgium's economy producing for export, the international positioning of the country is a major concern.

The hypothesis that is being explored boils down to the assumption that student groups (in different national and cultural contexts) will display a varied range of motivations to welcome or refuse the introduction of a new international language as the vehicle of academic communication in higher education. The choice of English is no surprise as it is generally seen as a hypercentral language (De Swaan, 2001). According to this view English would keep its quality as a vehicle for communication across language borders, especially between speakers of so-called supercentral languages and central languages. Supercentral languages include French (a former colonial language in Africa, and an international language in Flanders and Western Europe). By consequence, as a hypercentral language, the expectation would be for English to spark very similar effects and opinions across borders (and continents in this case).

The position of English in the cultural framework may differ, however, which is reflected by the above research hypothesis. Whereas Flanders has a history of Dutch as a marker of cultural identity and a symbol of Flemish emancipation, no similar argument applies to the Congolese context, for French. Flanders has a history in which the quality and value of the language as such has been topicalized as well. As a matter of fact the rivalry between Dutch and French in Belgium has given rise to claims about the alleged superiority of one or the other of the two languages. Arguments have surfaced such as sophistication, clarity, rich vocabulary, precision, uniformity etc. In the Congolese context the complexity of English (as compared to French) is not usually thematized. Both in the Flemish and the Congolese context English is currently often perceived and profiled as very profitable for individuals (Kasanga, 2012): the command of English is believed to be a major asset in view of jobs and personal economic progress. In Kinshasa's streets, in newspapers and magazines English courses are advertised abundantly.

The relevance of English/Dutch or English/French for the community is an issue in the Flemish debate only: Dutch is often described as a means to empower the community and the use of Dutch in higher education was a major accomplishment of the so-called Flemish Movement ('Vlaamse Beweging'). In the DRC no such explicit language policies were ever developed, apart from developments during the colonial area, under the influence of the Belgian linguistic quarrels (e.g. Meeuwis, 2007). By consequence, a major difference is to be expected between the perception of this factor in Congo and in Flanders.

3. Methodology

Within Spolsky's framework for language policy (2004, p 5; 2012, p 5), the present research addresses language beliefs and practices, and in particular the language beliefs as they are present in university students within a context that is largely planned top-down by the authorities. The comparison of data from such different sources as UCC (Kinshasa), UNILU (Lubumbashi) and UAntwerp (Antwerp) should allow us to gauge the extent that practices of individuals shape language ideologies differently.[2] What the respondents in Flanders and the DRC share, however, is that for them English is a new or more intensified academic subject and that it may be or become an additional language of instruction, especially in the advanced stages of their academic education.

The most appropriate method to tap language ideological views of people is a combination of interviews – possibly even observations – and large-scale surveys (Razfar & Rumenapp, 2012). However, for our wide-scale comparison this method was hardly feasible, as, for instance, the considerable group sizes precluded interviews. The Antwerp subjects received the survey in electronic

[2] Our survey addresses the widely aired view that language management is not generally dictated by language planners, but largely by language users and their practices (Ferguson 2012; Mufwene, 2008; Spolsky, 2012). Of course, our research is also an attempt to avoid mismatches between the language policy that is carried out on a micro-scale (teaching; providing tools for language learning and language use in an academic setting) and the language ideology that is in learners' minds (potentially reflecting their practices already). Currently, language management practices tend to take the position that language policy should mirror existing language use. This is inspired largely by the finding that language ideologies and (political) action are intimately connected (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011).

form (as a compulsory assignment). The survey was anonymous and carried out in a very short time frame. The sample consists of language- and communication-oriented students taking an introductory course in general linguistics either as part of the classical Language and Literature bachelor programme or as part of a preparation programme for students with a non-academic higher education background who intend to join a master programme that has a strong language component, along with an economic orientation. The Congolese subjects could not be reached through electronic means, so a paper version was used for completion in class.3 Afterwards these paper surveys were returned to Antwerp and processed.

	2012 survey	**2014 survey**	**2015 survey**	**2018 survey**
Univ. Antwerpen (U Antwerp), Flanders	N= 330 Linguistics students	-	N= 174 Linguistics students	N= 121 Linguistics students
Univ. Catholique du Congo (UCC), DRC	-	N= 149 Social science students	-	-
Univ. de Lubumba-shi (UNILU), DRC	-	N= 144 Mixed group of students	-	-

Table 1. Data collection overview.

The questions were developed around constructs derived from the main categories that previous investigation into the language ideology of the Flemish public debate had produced (Cuvelier, 2012): a limited number of recurring arguments appeared to come up in connection with the adoption and/or promotion of English. The arguments boiled down to the following four domains.

(1) The value of language as such (complexity, appropriateness): In some debates the alleged sophistication or complexity of a language has been mentioned. Though this property has no direct functional relevance, it appears to add to the feeling of supremacy that is associated with particular languages. Obviously this is a major issue in all (historical) contexts where language selection is at stake, especially if this is related to complex subjects.

(2) The value of language as a component of culture: Especially in Flanders, the debate over the rights of Flemish/Dutch have very often been framed in cultural terms. In the Flemish case, at one time, this position was formulated as *De taal is gansch het Volk* (the language is/comprises the whole people).

(3) The value of a language for one's personal success: Personal advancement is believed to count very much as a motivation to adopt an/the international language. Mastery of an international language, i.c. English, would improve a person's chances to develop his/her talents to the full.

(4) The relevance of a language for the community: In the Flemish context the argument has been mentioned quite often that the development and promotion of the local language would be profitable for the Flemish community. Full-fledged Dutch would be an asset that would allow the Flemish to participate fully in modern society.

We developed a set of questions, each focusing one of the constructs. Additional questions were added, probing for personal characteristics (gender, age, year of study), institution and location. The questionnaire has been included in the Appendix. A one-way ANOVA was conducted over the 52 questions. There was a homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equivalence of variances ($p > .05$) except for questions Q7, Q11, Q17, Q18, Q21, Q28, Q36, Q40, Q41, Q47, Q48, Q50. In the case of absent homogeneity a Tukey or Games-Howell test has been applied.

[3] We are very grateful to Prof François-Xavier Budim'bani Yambu (UCC) and Prof Willy Maloba (UNILU) for their help in distributing, collecting and forwarding the survey materials, and to Reinhild Vandekerckhove (UAntwerp) for her comments on a previous version of the paper.

4. Results and discussion

The results for the DRC and Flemish data are first presented separately. The resulting patterns are then compared in section 5. For Flanders a comparison over time was performed, for the DRC a comparison between the data from Kinshasa and Lubumbashi is reported on.

4.1. Evolution in the Antwerp data

For Antwerp we have three sets of survey data at our disposal: from 2012, 2015 and 2018. Vandekerckhove and Cuvelier (2013) published an analysis of the 2012 data and concluded that, in general, students seemed not too much concerned about the presence or expansion of English in higher education. Neither did they feel very alarmed on behalf of the position of their L1, though they were protective and certainly felt the need to preserve the possibility to take their higher education in Dutch. The impression was that the Antwerp subjects in 2012 held a rather indifferent attitude towards language policy questions, or were at least far less involved than language professionals and politicians.

Parallel with the survey in the DRC (in 2015) a new survey of the Antwerp subjects was conducted, which was repeated in 2018. Since 2012 no major external changes have occurred in Flemish language policy or legislation that could impact on the Ought-to L2 Self. The opinions in the public debate on Dutch and English as academic languages or on the importance of English have not really changed. What has changed, however, is the number of courses in English, increasing the presence of academic English. Master programmes, in particular, witness a rise in English subjects. On the bachelor level, the proportion of EMI courses is still limited, but the media often report plans to extend EMI to bachelors. In the period covered, students also often came into contact with EMI for some courses or heard from other students' personal experiences.

When taking into account the average scores that are above 4 (high) and below 2 (low) (on a 5-point Likert scale) on at least one of the observation times, the following stimuli surface.

Stimulus		**2012**	**2015**	**2018**
Q3:	Multilingualism is an asset	**4,5866**	**4,7069**	**4,6581**
Q4:	Our higher education must be internationally oriented: Flemish students must be able to study all over the world and the whole world can come and study with us	**4,1003**	**4,2069**	**4,2174**
Q5:	Language is part of culture	**4,5350**	**4,5172**	**4,5739**
Q6:	Language is more than a tool, it is part of oneself	**4,3252**	**4,1954**	**4,3478**
Q7:	It is important that a language should be dynamic, become richer and develop itself	**4,1641**	**4,0117**	**4,1565**
Q9:	We are all world citizens. A good command of English is a window to the world	**4,1611**	**4,2948**	**4,1304**
Q10:	I find it appealing that English can be found in every corner of the world	***3,8602***	**4,0581**	3,8696
Q11:	Higher education may be completely anglicized	1,7645	2,1977	1,8435
Q12:	It is a proof of good citizenship to use Dutch in this country, including in higher education	3,9144	3,7326	**4,0174**
Q27:	One should consider a language as the emanation of heritage and tradition	**4,1108**	**4,0698**	**4,0291**
Q28:	A language expresses people's identity	**4,2523**	**4,1047**	**4,0680**
Q30:	It is important to protect one's own language	**4,2000**	**4,0174**	**4,1942**
Q32:	In times of globalization, small languages deserve protection	3,8858	3,7558	**4,0294**
Q34:	We should take good care of all languages, including small ones, in the same way as we care for biodiversity	3,9877	3,8779	**4,0680**
Q36:	I think it is important that a language is also used in science and culture	3,9444	3,9419	**4,0680**
Q37:	A community can only develop and prosper through its own language	**4,0679**	3,9244	**4,0194**
Q40:	It should remain possible to have a complete higher education in Dutch	**4,3148**	**4,0988**	**4,3725**
Q46:	Other languages should have their place in higher education, not just English	**4,1574**	**4,1404**	**4,1863**

Q49: Good command of Dutch constitutes a first step towards professional success	3,9136	3,7953	**4,0882**
Q50: In reality language is part of cultural activity, art and culture	**4,0926**	**4,1111**	**4,1980**

Table 2. Stimuli with high average scores (> 4), in bold, and low average scores (< 2), in italics.

Only one stimulus (Q11) produced a low average score in each of the three observations. When considering the high average scores, it becomes apparent that the theses that multilingualism is an asset (Q3), that we are world citizens and that English is functional in that world (Q9), that English is universal (Q10) and that a language must be used in science and culture (Q36), apparently all remained salient from 2012 on. The international mission of higher education (Q4) has received clear support ever since 2012. There is a second group of propositions which seem to emphasize the opposite, i.e. the value of the local language Dutch: the link between language and local culture (Q5, Q6), protection of Dutch (Q30, Q32), the connection between local language and one's own culture and (own) identity (Q27 Q50) and the role of the local language in society (Q37). These statements receive strong support too. Finally, there is a group of propositions which refer to the importance of one's (own) professional opportunities: it should be possible to attend higher education in Dutch (Q40), complete anglicization is not desirable (Q11) and good mastery of Dutch is the first step to professional success (Q49). There is also strong support for the legal and social consideration that the use of the local language, also in higher education, is part of good citizenship (Q12). These focal points in students' motivation correspond only partly to the factors discussed in current and past societal debates. Advocacy of internationalization in English has not fallen on deaf ears, and neither has reference to the historical evolution in Flanders (the Dutchification process) or to identity. There is a very marked resistance to enforced anglicization. Even though there may be a lot of enthusiasm in some parts of society, students are apparently quite sensitive to EMI as a potential obstacle in their personal life and study career. They hold (education in) Dutch very dear.

Significant shifts (not always involving high scores) over time can be seen for different groups of highly rated propositions. Scores that tend towards the middle (3 out of 5) hardly change over the period surveyed. Moreover, these marked shifts show a diverse pattern. In the first group, favouring international orientation and English as a world language, different evolutions occur: on the one hand, there is an increasing awareness (especially after 2012) of the value of English as an international language, as a lingua franca and as a personal asset for professional opportunities. The general resistance to English thus seems to be decreasing. But at the same time, from 2015 on more resistance is noticeable against complete anglicization. The changes are significant ($p < .05$) for the following statements (Table 3).

Q10: I find it appealing that English can be found in every corner of the world	increase 2012–2015/18
Q23: Dutch is no full scientific language. Whoever wants to take part in scientific exchange needs to do so in English	decrease 2012/15–2018
Q19: I think a complete anglicization will stop nobody from studying	increase 2012–2015
Q11: Higher education may be completely anglicized	increase 2012–2015 and decrease 2015–2018
Q42: Perfect command of English only will be more profitable to me than poor mastery of 10 other languages	decrease 2012–2015
Q48: Our professional opportunities are partly determined by our command of English	increase 2012–2015
Q38: English is an instrument of power	decrease 2012–2015

Table 3. Propositions demonstrating significant shifts in language ideological motivation in favour of English.

Scores for statements from a second group, favouring Dutch (best suited as a teaching language, good for community, deserves protection, expression of identity, ...) have often decreased significantly since 2012.

Q14: The language which is best suited for education is the learner's mother tongue	decrease 2012–2015/18
Q45: English language education complicates the cognitive process for most Flemish students	decrease 2012–2015
Q28: A language expresses people's identity	decrease 2012–2015/18
Q30: It is important to protect one's own language	decrease 2012–2015
Q32: In times of globalization, small languages deserve protection	increase 2015–2018
Q37: A community can only develop and prosper through its own language	decrease 2012–2015

Table 4. Propositions demonstrating significant shifts in language ideological motivation in favour of L1.

Socio-cultural considerations, favouring Dutch, vary. The increase comes from 2015, after a decline.

Q41: The use of Dutch in higher education will strengthen cultural life	decrease 2012–2015 and increase 2015–2018
Q12: It is a proof of good citizenship to use Dutch in this country, including in higher education	decrease 2012–2015 and increase 2015–2018)
Q17: "Think global, act local"": commercial specialists are aware of the need to add a local touch to international brands	increase 2012/15–2018
Q20: It is positive for a language to be internally complex	increase 2012/15–2018

Table 5. Propositions demonstrating significant shifts in language ideological motivation in favour of L1.

Lastly, there is marked increase in scores for considerations that are directly related to personal (study) success and where Dutch would be more advantageous:

Q40: It should remain possible to have a complete higher education in Dutch	decrease 2012–2015 and increase 2015–2018
Q49: Good command of Dutch constitutes a first step towards professional success	increase 2015–2018
Q51: For our students, only quality education in Dutch guarantees maximal opportunities for personal development	increase 2015–2018

Table 6. Propositions demonstrating significant shifts in language ideological motivation in favour of L1.

The intensive public debate in Flanders has thus left its traces in the judgments of respondents. The main views from the debate (the value of internationalization and the importance of English, the local language Dutch as an identity component) surface in the judgments. Basically these two views are at odds, but both receive (a lot of) support. In the public debate, the role of the teaching language for personal experience and for study purposes is hardly mentioned. The students in this study, however, are remarkably sensitive: what may hamper one's own study success or promote one's career carries a lot of weight.

The support for internationalization and English as an international language has clearly grown after 2012. Apparently the subjects from 2012 were less aware of these aspects. But the opposite arguments are also receiving increasing support: Dutch must be protected, is important for the community (forming), must be respected and deserves a prominent place in higher education. Here too, it is possible to hear an echo of arguments from the social debate. Obviously, the survey results have limitations. They gauge the views of a relatively specific group (Arts students in Antwerp). It is quite possible that other students, or senior students, would show a different pattern.

4.2. Comparison between the Kinshasa and Lubumbashi data

The combined results for the DRC show a high motivation and explicit support for both the value of English as an international language and multilingualism. Along with the support of internationalization, these three positions show that Congolese respondents are aware of and support the orientation towards openness to the (Anglophone) international community. Like in Flanders, there is also a sharp awareness of the link between local language, local culture and identity. However, there is also very explicit awareness of the threat to local language(s), the need for protection, the equivalent position of

English and French. Unlike in Flanders, the value of the sophistication of a language is strongly supported. Awareness of the power factor is also clearly present here. Respondents perceive a firm link between a language and the community associated with it.

There are some marked differences between the DRC and the Flemish data as well. In the DRC data there is considerably less awareness of the role of language (especially local language) in one's personal study career and professional success. The scores of Kinshasa (UCC) and Lubumbashi (UNILU) differ, as the following overview (Table 6) shows. In general, the UCC students tend to give higher scores, but there are some clear exceptions.

Stimulus		**RDC**	**KINSHASA**	**LUBUMBASHI**
Q2:	English and French deserve an equivalent place in higher education.	**4,2517**	**4,3356**	**4,1631**
Q3:	Multilingualism is an asset.	**4,4912**	**4,8194**	**4,1511**
Q4:	Our higher education must be internationally oriented: Congolese students must be able to study all over the world and the whole world can come and study with us.	**4,2976**	**4,5646**	**4,0211**
Q5:	Language is part of culture.	**4,4775**	**4,6327**	**4,3169**
Q6:	Language is more than a tool, it is part of oneself.	3,9931	**4,1712**	3,8099
Q7:	It is important that a language should be dynamic, become richer and develop itself.	**4,2577**	**4,5743**	3,9301
Q9:	We are all world citizens. A good command of English is a window to the world.	**4,3213**	**4,4764**	**4,1608**
Q22:	A language's strength is linked to the power of the people speaking it.	**4,0140**	**4,0276**	**4,000**
Q27:	One should consider a language as the emanation of heritage and tradition.	3,8720	4,1849	3,5524
Q28:	A language expresses people's identity.	**4,2594**	**4,5973**	3,9097
Q30:	It is important to protect one's own language.	**4,5120**	**4,7770**	**4,2378**
Q32:	In times of globalization, small languages deserve protection.	**4,1134**	**4,4392**	3,7762
Q34:	We should take good care of all languages, including small ones, in the same way as we care for biodiversity.	**4,1522**	**4,4730**	3,8156
Q36:	I think it is important for a language to be used in science and culture.	3,9340	**4,1712**	3,6901
IQ40:	It should remain possible to have a complete higher education in French.	3,7345	**4,0340**	3,4266
Q46:	Other languages should have their place in higher education, not just English.	3,6918	**4,0000**	3,3750
Q50:	In reality language is part of cultural activity, art and culture.	**4,3720**	**4,5436**	**4,1944**

Table 7. Stimuli with high average scores (> 4), in bold, and low average scores (< 2), in italics (Levene's test performed, significance (2-tailed) calculated accordingly).

Significant differences occur in the domain of the general 'cosmopolitan' position in favour of internationalization and multilingualism and also in the high level of sensitivity to quality of a language as a vehicle for science and culture. There is a very strong inclination to attach value to one's own language (French) as a component of personal identity and culture, both one's personal culture and the culture of the community. Hence language, and specifically French, is perceived as highly essential. The difference between Kinshasa and Lubumbashi lies in the fact that these positions receive (far) stronger support in Kinshasa. The DRC subjects see a clear connection between a language and the power of the corresponding country/ies. There is no significant difference between Kinshasa and Lubumbashi on that matter.

Practical, everyday considerations appear to be less salient for the Congolese subjects. Though they are aware of the fact that language plays a role in professional success, community development or scientific access, there is no major support for a firm position in that area. The resulting patterns will be compared in the next section.

5. Discussion and conclusion

For Flanders, the intensive public debate in the past period has left traces in the judgments of the Antwerp respondents. The main views from the societal debate are reflected in the subjects' attitudes and motivations: the value of internationalization and the importance of English on the one hand and the local language Dutch as an element of personal identity on the other. Basically these are opposing views, yet both receive (a lot of) support. In the public discourse the importance of the language of instruction for a more personalized experience and for students' personal study trajectory is rarely mentioned. The Flemish respondents of our survey are, however, remarkably sensitive: what may threaten their personal academic success or promote their career carries a lot of weight. On that basis they gradually become less susceptible to standpoints in favour of internationalization and English as an international language. Quite remarkably, Dutch is increasingly perceived as a factor for personal success, an argument which is hardly mentioned in societal discourse! The Antwerp students thus appear (to become) more balanced in their judgement.

Obviously, these survey results have limitations. They gauge the views of a relatively specific group (Language students in Antwerp). It is quite possible that other students, or senior students, would show a different pattern. At the same time, the results are a clear indication that relying on the public debate in view of language policy remains very incomplete as long as one has no insight into the perception, language ideology and motivation of those who will 'undergo' language planning. In the current context, the success of a language policy such as the introduction of English/EMI is not obvious at all.

The Flemish and Congolese data show shared general views, such as enthusiastic motivation for internationalization and world citizenship. In the DRC, there is an even higher support in Kinshasa than in Lubumbashi. Whether this represents a real feeling or rather an 'accepted' (socially desirable) position, cf the Ought-to L2 Self, is hard to ascertain. Anyway, it does not seem to entail much enthusiasm for the practicalities involved.

Subjects from both countries perceive a strong link between language and culture. The results also show remarkably high scores on the identity factor. This could easily be explained for Flanders as there is a historical background: Dutch is highly profiled as the language of Flemish emancipation. But for the DRC there is no such obvious explanation. However, in both cases there is an affinity with the local dominant language, and some apprehension towards a 'new' language. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that the opposition against English (and the popularity of French) is more tangible in Kinshasa than in Lubumbashi. The latter, at a small distance from the Zambian border (where one is therefore more acquainted with English) shows less bias in favour of French.

Finally, the Flemish data show high sensitivity for the practical consequences of an English language extension policy: there is a fear that anglicization might hamper personal professional progress and that higher education in English would present a serious additional hurdle. Such apprehension does not appear in the Congolese data. The explanation could be that the issue is currently not yet at stake in the DRC while it is rapidly becoming relevant in Flanders.

The results are a clear indication that an external type of motivation, i.e. the social pressures related to the Ought-to L2 self-image of learners, which would be rooted solely in the public debate runs the risk of missing the mark among the students. From the Flemish survey results (over a period of five years), no unequivocal picture can be distilled that would suggest problem-free acceptance and integration of the EMI language policy. The consequence for language teaching is important: there are quite some discrepancies between the widely proclaimed motivations for academic English and the motivation that is existent in the target group. The surveyed students' motivations for EMI that reportedly are socially imposed show substantial and undeniable geographical variation and evolution over time. Our study has shown that this type of external motivation risks being treated (too) lightly: it is found to deviate from the public discourse, it is constantly evolving (Flanders), and it differs depending on the geographic and/or demographic context of students (DRC). Once more, it proves crucial to probe (language) learners' emotions.

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The authors are coordinating an educational cooperation project in seven Congolese universities to improve (academic) English teaching methodology by fostering learner activation and autonomy.

Appendix

List of stimuli

Q1: It's a pity Dutch/French is only used in some parts of the world
Q2: English and Dutch/French deserve an equivalent place in higher education
Q3 Multilingualism is an asset
Q4: Our higher education must be internationally oriented: Flemish/Congolese students must be able to study all over the world and the whole world can come and study with us.
Q5: Language is part of culture
Q6: Language is more than a tool. It is part of oneself.
Q7: It is important that a language should be dynamic, become richer and develop itself
Q8: I am sorry that Dutch/French is less used on a global scale
Q9: We are all world citizens. A good command of English is a window to the world.
Q10: I find it appealing that English can be found everywhere in the world.
Q11: Higher education may be completely anglicized
Q12: It is a proof of good citizenship to use Dutch/French in this country, including in higher education
Q13: Language and language selection have a commercial interest
Q14: The language which is best suited for education is the learner's mother tongue.
Q15: Advertising in English creates a distance
Q16: Everybody should respect the law, including the law that prescribes the local language in higher education
Q17: "Think global, act local: commercial specialists are aware of the need to add a local touch to international brands"
Q18: Only English guarantees higher education with an international vocation
Q19: I think a complete anglicization will stop nobody from studying
Q20: It is positive for a language to be internally complex
Q21: A particular language may be profitable to the position one occupies in the scientific world.
Q22: A language's strength is linked to the power of the people speaking it
Q23: Dutch/French is no full scientific language. Whoever wants to take part in scientific exchange needs to do so in English.
Q24: Publishing in one's own language should not entail any inconvenient.
Q25: I prefer a language to be widely used
Q26: Return and cost are important in the selection of a language.
Q27: One should consider a language as the emanation of heritage and tradition
Q28: A language expresses people's identity.
Q29: Removing Dutch/French from higher education is an attack on our culture
Q30: It is important to protect one's own language
Q31: Little matters the language of instruction, what counts is content.
Q32: In times of globalization, small languages deserve protection
Q33: Impoverished English is a threat to the quality of our education.
Q34: We should take good care of all languages, including small ones, in the same way as we care for biodiversity
Q35: The advertising world addresses younger people through the use of English.
Q36: I think it is important for a language to be used in science and culture
Q37: A community can only develop and prosper through its own language
Q38: English is an instrument of power
Q39: Worries about the spread of English in education are proofs of pettiness and lack of vision
Q40: It should remain possible to have a complete higher education in Dutch/French
Q41: The use of Dutch/French in higher education will strengthen cultural life
Q42: Perfect command of English only will be more profitable to me than poor mastery of 10 other languages
Q43: Good command of Dutch/French facilitates economic progress
Q44: English language higher education represents a negation of our identity.
Q45: English language education complicates the cognitive process for most Flemish/Congolese students
Q46: Other languages should have their place in higher education, not just English
Q47: According to me, it is important for a language to be suited for science.
Q48: Our professional opportunities are partly determined by our command of English.
Q49: Good command of Dutch/French constitutes a first step towards professional success.

Q50: In reality language is part of cultural activity, art and culture.
Q51: For our students, only quality education in Dutch/French guarantees maximal opportunities for personal development.
Q52: Anglicizing higher education curbs democratization and education: those who have no command of English find themselves excluded.

Notes:

1. Dutch/French: in the Flemish survey, “Dutch” was used, in the Congolese survey “French”
2. Flemish/Congolese: “Flemish” in the Flemish survey, “Congolese” in the Congolese survey
3. A few questions were left out of the analysis for various reasons:
    i. there was a technical problem which caused Q25 to be invisible for some respondents
    ii. Q1, Q15, Q29, Q31, Q44 caused misunderstanding for many respondents

Attending Boredom in the Foreign Language Learning Classroom: Approaches, Challenges and Solutions

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Abstract

Since 2016 foreign language teaching and learning in Ecuadorian educational institutions has been legally subject to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL). Along with it almost always comes the CEFRL-aligned course material which is written not specifically for the regional context and target learner group. As a result, foreign language courses for adult learners in higher educational context often fail in offering engaging learning arrangements and thus negative academic emotions like boredom arise among learners (Wlodkowski and Ginsberg, 2017).

Emotions, for their part, are closely related to motivation; they both are key components for successful learning (Pekrun and Linnebrink-Garcia, 2012). In this early-stage phase of our long-term research project on motivational class design, we have been exploring methods of detecting boredom in the classroom as a prerequisite for teaching practitioners to avoid it respectively address it appropriately. As boredom is a multidimensional emotion of different types (Goetz et al., 2014) and with many reasons (Goetz, Frenzel and Haag, 2006), one of our short-term goals is to develop a reliable method for boredom detection, easy to be applied by teaching practitioners despite the complex nature of this emotion.

Our challenge is to restrain the data collection process to real-time class duration, to keep it as close in time to the classroom activities as possible, to avoid additional technical equipment use, and to distill valid observation categories and descriptors. Therefore, existing methods, as described in the literature, must be adapted and modified (cf. *Experience Sampling Method* via questionnaires [Goetz et al., 2014; Larson and Richards, 1991], *BERI classroom observation protocol* [Lane and Harris, 2015]).
This exploratory study is carried out in a private university in Ecuador. The participants are 34 English students of a level one and a level three courses taught during April - July 2018. We collect data through field-observation (teacher's field work diary, participant observers´ protocols and students´ boredom logs with close-to-real time self-reported entries on their experienced boredom) and video enhanced observation.

As preliminary results, we can inform that a) the revised observation methods and instruments are not 1:1 applicable and suitable for teaching practitioners and need modifications, b) several designing and piloting cycles are needed to reach the goal of a valid, reliable and applicable method, and c) the difficulty of relating observed student body language and behavior with boredom calls for a mixed-method approach.

It is concluded that boredom is not an easy emotion to detect but with reliable and validated instruments, teachers can obtain information to analyze how engaging the tasks are, provide activities with adequate stimulation or challenge, or even adjust the type of interactions that should be privileged in the foreign language class. In this way, the gap between the learning objectives set and results obtained may decrease.

Students observed body language and behavior can be easily misinterpreted by the teacher which calls for a mixed-method approach.

Conference Paper

1. Background and goals

In Ecuador, as in seven other countries in the region, the CEFRL has become the standard document of reference for teaching and assessing students' performances in language learning (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017). Although most students have been learning English since primary school; fulfilling the requirement of a B2 competence level by the time students graduate from university represents a true motivational challenge for both teacher and student. There is a lack of empirical evidence and subsequent critical analysis of the university's classroom reality with regard to a) motivational aspects and the fundamental relationship between cognition, emotion, and motivation, and b) the appropriateness of the normative specifications set out by the Council of Higher Education in Ecuador (cf. the article published by González & Castro, 2016; wherein the authors affirm it to be representative solely of their opinion).

Our research seeks to contribute to the methodology of gathering empirical data related to the negative emotion of boredom through the use of: video recording of classes, fieldwork journals, class observation and self-reports on the experienced emotion. This paper unfolds the steps taken to define an appropriate research design that matches the subject under study and the conditions under which this study is being carried out, namely research done by teaching practitioners alongside complying with their usual teaching load. After defining the concepts related to our research focus: motivation, emotions and their compounds, and boredom as a multi-dimensional negative academic emotion, along with methods for its detection, we will describe the process of fine-tuning our research design in regard to suitable methods, instruments, and procedures in order to gather the information pertinent to our focus. We conclude by sharing first outcomes and summarizing conclusions of the first project stage that should be taken into consideration by future language teaching practitioners who plan to undertake a similar qualitative research project.

2. Theoretical framework

Motivation related research must be aware of the concept's intellectual abstraction: According to Rheinberg (2008), there is no such thing as THE motivation. What we call motivation refers to a series of states that go by denominations like drive, will, effort, wish, hope – phenomena that are in no way identical and lack the same structure and quality. What they do have in common is an activating component to arrive to another positively-evaluated state. It is likewise important to bear in mind that the avoidance of something unpleasant can also be considered a positive state (Rheinberg 2008:15). This activating component is related to the quality of students' engagement (Pekrun and Linnenbrink-García 2012: 260). The notion of pleasant or unpleasant leads us to the concept of emotion, and to the affective core (Edelmann and Wittmann 2012: 202-203), as well as to possible groupings of emotions (Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia 2012) and the activating or deactivating potential of affective states (Linnenbrink 2007).

2.1 Narrowing Down the Research Focus

Since our research interest is related to motivational aspects in learning settings, the object focused grouping of emotions, according to Pekrun, Frenzel and Goetz (2007:20) " [...] is critical, because it determines whether emotions pertain to the academic task at hand or not" (Pekrun and Linnenbrink-García 2012: 262). With regard to our initial research interest, the emotions grouped by object focus under the category *activity* (Pekrun, Frenzel and Götz (2007:20) is especially relevant, as activities are at the heart of foreign language teaching and of didactic decisions to be made by the teacher. Therefore, our interest is in narrowing the scope from motivation to emotion; from all possible emotions to academic emotions; and between them, we focus on boredom as a negative academic emotion that can be related to learning activities in the foreign language classroom. We agree with Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (2017) that, instead of insisting on strategies to persevere in something tedious, we should foster compelling classroom activities that can generate passion and maintain the flow of the learning process (Wlodkowski and Ginsberg 2017:229). A first step towards this overall goal is understanding the complexity of its components and the potential impact on motivation and engagement.

2.2 Understanding Boredom

Boredom is ever-present in modern society. In the classroom setting, people may become more vulnerable to this vague, yet powerful, emotion (Goetz et al., 2014; Pekrun, Goetz, Daniels, Stupnisky, & Perry, 2010).

While at first glance boredom may be considered a simple lack of attention and interest, its nature is far more complex, because it is a situation-dependent and multi-dimensional emotion. Boredom has also been analyzed from the perspective of component process emotions. From that approach, boredom is an affective state consisting of affective components (unpleasant, aversive feelings), cognitive components (altered time perception), physiological components (reduced arousal), and expressive components (facial, vocal, and postural expressions) (Goetz et al., 2014).

It is also critical that the impact of boredom and its affective core on behavioral and cognitive engagement be considered. According to Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012), behavioral engagement refers to the effort and persistence invested by a student in an academic setting. On the other hand, cognitive engagement concerns the quality of engagement or cognitive strategies. Although establishing a clear relation between affective states and engagement is intricate, previous studies have confirmed that boredom is clearly associated with lower levels of effort, and consequently impacts on behavioral engagement. In regard to cognitive engagement, there is already some evidence that suggest that unpleasant affective states may interfere with learning and in cognitive activities such as: cognitive processes in complex tasks, analytical reasoning, and working memory (Linnenbrink, E. A., 1999).

In this study, boredom was approached from the perspective of the Control Value Theory (CVT) of achievement emotions. This theory provides a framework to understand emotions in achievement settings, with a cognitive-motivational explanation of these emotions' antecedents and outcomes (Putwain, Becker, Symes, & Pekrun, 2017). If an individual -in learning settings- judges an achievement-based activity to be valuable and controllable, it is more likely that better performances and positive emotions will be experienced. For their part, Pekrun et al. (2017) state that boredom can be predicted in settings where the individual faces too low or too high task challenges and does not see any intrinsic or extrinsic value or control. Goetz et al. (2014) presents the environment, the person, and person/fit as potential antecedents of boredom. For example, in our context students have been attending at least 8 years of basic English classes that are perceived as repetitive and monotonous (environment). In this setting, they have little control over the situation and, quite possibly, they fail to see the value of what is being learned; If they also manifest a high level of proneness towards boredom, it is very likely that they will appraise the situation as boring (Daniels, Tze, & Goetz, 2015; Goetz, Frenzel, Hall, & Pekrun, 2008).

Understanding that the environment and the person are potential antecedents of boredom allows teachers to explore different forms of intervention; since personality traits are more difficult to influence, it is the environment, primarily, which can be modeled (Macklem, 2015). In doing so, teachers need to understand that fostering motivation and engagement implies both obtaining students' engagement and avoiding students' disengagement (Martin, Ginns and Papworth 2017).

3. Our project

Our research investigates an aspect of the motivation-emotion-cognition relation encountered in the foreign language classroom and thus is at the core of (Foreign and Second) Language Teaching Research (Edmondson und House 2011) with its focus on the learner, an empirical approach and the interdisciplinary/integrational form of taking into account various factors arising from different perspectives on the problem under study (Edmondson und House 2011, p. 4–6). It is intended to feed back to the classroom by posing didactic recommendations regarding the language teaching process, which are based on empirical findings (Edmondson 2011: 18). The process of devising an adequate research design was guided by Maxwell´s (2012) qualitative research design model with no "fixed research questions at the start of the study" to leave room for being "significantly modified or expanded as a result of changes in [...] goals or conceptual framework, or because of what [we] learn while doing the research" (Maxwell 2012: 4).

Our team´s discussions and decision-making regarding the actual research approach, methods and instruments to be applied and/or developed were guided by the four main aspects described by Maxwell (2012: 90): How will we approach our research field? What kind of settings, individuals and sources will we consider? What exactly will we do to collect our data? And how will we proceed to make sense of the information available from our data? The following description details this process aspect-by-aspect and will provide answers to all these questions.

3.1 Methodology

3.1.1 General Considerations

Since boredom is a multidimensional, emotion of different types (Goetz et al., 2014) and with many reasons (Goetz, Frenzel and Haag, 2006), one of our short-term goals is to develop a reliable procedure for boredom detection, which can easily be applied by teaching practitioners despite the complex nature of this emotion. Exploring for adequate methods and instruments we learnt about the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) (Larson und Csikszentmihalyi 2014) and out-of-the-classroom data collection with a Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) (Goetz et al. 2014), the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ) (Pekrun et al. 2011) or the BERI observation protocol (Lane und Harris 2015) with a pre-defined category system. We took this information for orientation but our challenge was to limit the data collection process to real-time class duration, keep it as close in time to the classroom activities as possible, avoid additional technical equipment use, and distill a procedure to generate valid observational outcomes.

Our research interest focus has narrowed down to boredom as a negative academic emotion with unpleasant affective state at its core. According to consistent research findings, boredom has a negative impact on behavioral engagement. Less consistent research findings indicate that boredom could also have a negative impact on cognitive engagement (Linnenbrink 2007: 118). Since boredom is described as an activity related emotion (Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia 2012), we consider it possible and highly necessary for the language teacher to be able to adequately address this emotion in the language learning classroom. Having knowledge about the causes of boredom in our classroom should help us to model the teaching and learning process in such a way as to avoid it. Our study aims to obtain information from the classroom related to the learning activities to generate empirically-grounded knowledge on this matter (Pekrun 2006). To do so, we have decided to approach our research interest from an ethnographic research perspective (Hammersley und Atkinson 2007): Our starting point is a research interest rather than a hypothesis to be proven right or wrong; Our goal is to explore what is going on in the classroom which may be related to boredom and to gain empirically-based insight. As we seek to explore the current classroom context, we want to make sure to gather as much information as possible.

We therefore did not approach classroom observation with a pre-defined respectively closed set of categories, which might narrow our observational sensitivity, but rather decided in favor of focused ethnography (Knoblauch 2001). This implies short-term fieldwork and the concentration on a certain aspect of the field yet represents a holistic approach and data intensity through its corresponding data gathering methods, such as fieldwork journal writing, and participant and video-enhanced observation (Knoblauch 2001: 130; Edmondson and House 2011: 36-40). Since our study is being carried out parallel to the participating researchers' normal teaching activities, we decided to start with their courses as observation settings and limited the number of classes to be observed. This decision was made due to scheduling difficulties among the researchers, on the one hand, and manageable data volume, on the other. The data collection is based (almost entirely) on verbal descriptions through observational protocols of the researchers and self-reported information from the participants. We also devised a semi-standardized written interview (boredom log) with close and open-ended questions to elicit data from the learners' perspective. From the methodological viewpoint, a research design that combines different methods is a way of triangulation (Denzin 1989: 237-241, cited in Flick 2016: 519-520) and can enhance the width and depth of the methodological approach (Flick 2016), which is consistent with our holistic research approach. Our main interest in this explicit triangulation is to obtain access to learners' constructions related to the matter under study (Flick 2011: 57) and to analyze both coincidences and, in particular, differences with the constructions generated by the participant observers and teachers.

3.1.2 Data Collection

Our challenge is to restrain the data collection process to real-time class duration, in order to keep it as close in time to the classroom activities as possible, avoid additional technical equipment use, and devise a practicable procedure for boredom detection. Therefore, existing methods, as described in the literature, must be adapted and modified (cf. Experience Sampling Method via questionnaires [Goetz et al., 2014; Larson and Richards, 1991], BERI classroom observation protocol [Lane and Harris, 2015]).

The decision to apply and use four different types of data collection in our study was the outcome of a collaborative research process which comprised team discussions for continuous reflection on the methodological literature we had processed at a given point. Our main interest was to generate a multi-

perspective entry to the research interest due to methodological complications that subjective observation practice and self-reported information involve (Hirschauer 2007).

a. Participant Classroom Observation

The instrument designed for class observation consisted of two pages. The first page aimed to provide a sketch of the classroom setting including: furniture, equipment arrangement, seating arrangement and camera set-up. From the second session onwards, we arranged with the heads of the language department to sit in on only ONE class, so the setting drawing was reproduced and printed out for every session. The remaining section was divided into two parts. The two observing teachers had to complete the upper section with general information and in the lower section with any information that could affect in-class development of the lesson.
The second page was the observation sheet, which collected information regarding lesson phase, time stamp, students observed, teacher observed, as well as open and analytical notes. In the literature review, we found an instrument called BERI, which aimed to detect the student's engagement level during class. BERI contained seven categories, which we decided to test during the piloting sessions (Lane & Harris, 2015). The information on the code key for categories was printed at the top of the page. During the readjustment phase, we simply added the items of duration and interaction type for the first column, and interaction types were also coded.

b. Boredom Log

To design the boredom log, we used as basis the five categories proposed by Goetz et al. (2014) to guide and focus students' written entries on the matter under study. These five categories were presented graphically in a linear form at the top of the boredom log – one beside the other. At the end of each class, students had to mark in their boredom log the number that corresponded with the type of boredom they experienced during class. However, following the first out of five sessions, it was decided that in order to obtain more reliable information -i.e. information least affected by the distortion of students' memory and as close as possible in time and related to the concrete class activities- the boredom log would be completed after 15 to 20 minutes and guided by the instrument, which would contain a short description of the respective activities with the intention being to keep the memory of experienced emotions and related details as fresh as possible.

Once the modified version of the boredom log was piloted, it was possible to observe an imprecision in the presentation and understanding of the nature of the boredom types, as elaborated by Goetz et al. (2014): the linear presentation caused students to interpret it as a scale from lowest to highest degree of boredom, when in reality it represented different types with different boredom characteristics. Consequently, for the next piloting it was decided that the presentation of the different boredom types would be changed. Furthermore, the boredom log template was adapted in a way, that the different classroom activities were listed in the first column and beside them space was left for open written comments from students reflecting on why they think they felt the way indicated. The goal of these modifications was to obtain still more precise data. Moreover, since open-ended questions provide more information, we decided to include three questions to assess students' appraisal of the control and value of the proposed activities.

Since during the exploration phase students displayed a preference to work in groups, as of the third piloting at the end of the class, students were assigned to groups of three or four to reflect and write a general appreciation of the class and propose alternative activities to achieve the class objectives. According to Edmondson and House (2011) this way of proceeding contributes two additional criteria to a study´s quality: openness and the willingness to communicate in contrast to considering participants as mere objects under study (Edmondson and House 2011: 40).

For sake of validity and in order to unify the procedure so that students complete the boredom log as intended by the researchers, it was suggested that a checklist for the teacher be created and that general instructions be read at the beginning of every observation date.

Finally, the logs were transcribed in Word for further analysis and coding.

c. Video Recording

In focused ethnography, video recordings are a common data collecting method in regard to observation inter subjectivity, which thus enhances study validity (Knoblauch 2001: 131). Our guidelines for the recording process were devised from the suggestions of the following authors: Derry, 2007; Derry et al., 2010; Garcez, A., Duarte, R. & Eisenberg, 2011.

The classes were videotaped using two cellphones, two tripods equipped with cellphone adapters, and external memories for the cell phone. The recorded videos were first downloaded to a personal computer of one of the teachers/researchers, then renamed according to a previously developed strict naming code, and finally saved twice: to an online licensed Dropbox and to an institutional OneDrive account.

The recorded videos were registered on paper and also in a digital Excel file as backup option. These Video Logs provided accurate information, including the cameras used, lesson content, material and media used, and coded file names. We opted for a training period focused on technical issues. Due to the complexity and the many details involved in video recording, a checklist with specific actions (before, during and after the session) was elaborated to optimize time and results in every session.

d. Participant Teacher's Fieldwork Journal

To obtain information about how the participant teacher reconstructed the observed class, each teacher had a fieldwork journal. At the beginning, we agreed to have the participant teacher write down her notes by the end of each class. When it became clear that there was too little time left before the next class came in and that a lot of information could be lost/forgotten if the teacher waited longer, we decided to adapt the procedure: whenever the teacher felt that she could, she would write a general appreciation of the class at the same time as students were asked to write their entries into their boredom logs.

The idea was to capture all available data as close in time as possible and to protect it from distortion and memory loss (cf. Hammersley and Atkinson 2007). We contrast these notes in the analyzing process with how observers and students reconstructed the class. This way, the teachers involved can develop their awareness of classroom boredom – e.g. when their general perception of the class do not coincide with comments on activities experienced as boring from the perspective of the students and/or observers.

3.2 Outcomes

- It is key for ethnographic research that data be generated in different ways. However, the data from our participant observation are generated in the same way: namely through observer notetaking. Nevertheless, we noticed considerable differences in the way each researcher in our multi-national and multilingual team carried out this note-taking process. When the result of the note-taking should be descriptions of what was going on in the classroom, in many cases the language used showed some degree of *interpretation* We then noted the need to debrief the observation notes as soon as possible after each scheduled observation was completed, in order to analyze and agree on aspects of language use or to be even more reflective during our observations.
- The focused ethnography approach, which included participant classroom observation and was supported by video-recordings, resulted in an observation and video-recording procedure that comprises defined steps and important details. Becoming familiar with the technology for video-recording and internalizing every step of the procedure we had agreed upon took time and required the development of instruments, such as our checklists for classroom observation and video-recording. The time we had initially planned for this phase thus had to be extended.
- During our first observation cycle, we decided to take into consideration BERI's categories; but with boredom being such a complex emotion, we quickly noticed that in most cases, the two observant researchers had trouble matching a specific behavior with any of the suggested BERI codes. Consequently, we decided to conduct less-structured observations and to identify patterns either based on students' behaviors or in classroom management that would guide us to fine-tune our observation. After reviewing the corresponding observation protocols on paper it became clear that everyone had used different methods to write down what they had observed. When we started to compare the original paper protocols and their digitalized transcriptions, we found that some of the note-taking underwent a kind of distortion during the transcription process. We must look more deeply at these findings and define a strategy on how to deal with them.

- When we compared our observation notes with students' self-reports on experienced boredom during the observed class, on more than one occasion inconsistency between observed phenomena and self-reported experienced boredom occurred. Therefore, the notion of body language and facial expressions as indicative of boredom is an issue to be treated with caution, and we must carry out more detailed literature research on the subject.
- More open ethnographic observation and note-taking was more fruitful and pointed us in the direction of age-appropriate and learner-centered teaching/learning (Andragogy) and the focus on Under-Respectively Over-challenge: a first rough glance at the data showed us that, although students do experience boredom, they are amazingly capable of managing it throughout the duration of the class. However, the data gathered through group observation of the classroom activities and students' ideas for more engaging activities regarding the learning goal at hand showed that there exists much underexploited potential for meaningful learning. More research literature must be examined to this end.

4. Conclusions

The recommendation to choose an ethnographic approach when carrying out exploratory studies in the field of (Foreign and Second) Language Teaching resulted fruitful but challenging to manage. Although this approach is becoming more and more popular in Language Teaching Research, it demands great respect due to its complexity, as well as on-going theoretical reflection about methodological decisions. A research design that unfolds based on an ethnographic approach and participant observation serves to bring to light unexpected information at the start of a research project (which makes this information no less valuable).

Instead of desperately seeking information about the reality (objectivity question in research), the research focus should, perhaps, be on individual/personal/subjective reflection on yet-to-be-explored perspectives and possibilities. Thus, the research design would not even contemplate a search for objective information.

For classroom research carried out by researching teaching practitioners, theoretical knowledge and research procedures from sciences related to (Foreign and Second) language teaching research (e.g. learning psychology), while necessary to get a grasp of the topic, should not be used without reflection and/or adaptation.

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Effects of Self-Recording on Motivation and Self-Confidence in the Study of ESL Pronunciation

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Abstract

The aim of the research is to evaluate and compare the effects of two pronunciation learning strategies on the participants' motivation, sense of progress and actual progress.

The language laboratory, originally consisting primarily of a teacher-operated tape recorder imposing content, pace, sequence and learning intensity is now replaced by computerized systems giving students more control over their learning. In addition, the democratization of technologies over the last decade has led to a generation of computer-savvy students with access to a plethora of software and applications on a variety of electronic media. Language learning has thus been relocated, from the classroom to the closest Internet connection, and re-focused from teacher-centered to learner-centered. As learners are now more in charge of training, we must consider that the learners' levels of autonomy, motivation and self-confidence as they play a critical role in the effectiveness of their studying (Linard, 2010).

If technological advances allow for wider access to information, the experience of computer-facilitated learning does not reproduce the interaction that teacher-led activities – with or without laboratory - did. Among other things, the vast majority of Internet-based applications do not allow for students to record their oral production to compare with that of a model. Learners report that they believe that comparing their production with a model is beneficial and therefore seek this service. However, while several studies (Cazade 1999, Chun 1998, Coniam 2002, Germain and Martin 2000, Levis and Pickering 2004, Neri et al 2006) relate the effects of visualization of sound curves in learning the pronunciation of languages, very little research on the benefits of listening to one's own recording for second-language learners is available.

It is therefore legitimate to wonder if self-recording truly is a pedagogical asset. Does the possibility to compare one's own recording with a model motivate the learner? And if so, is it to the point of improving their progress?

This study is based on an experiment conducted on ESL students who recorded 12 pre-test sentences, then studied and practiced as much as they wished with material made available electronically and, once they indicated that they felt that they had sufficiently practice, recorded the same 12 pre-test sentences for the post-test. The students were then asked to complete a questionnaire and underwent an interview about their learning experience during the project: how they felt about the possibility (group A) or impossibility (group B) to record their production, their level of motivation throughout the experiment, their feeling of progress, as well as their self-confidence and level of autonomy.

The analyses of the answers, of their production and of the time spent studying by the participants demonstrate that the format used has an impact on their motivation. While the format did not impact the participants' actual progress, it appears that those who could listen to their recording felt that they improved their ability to self-evaluate while those who could simply repeat felt that they improve their ability to identify their weaknesses and better notice their progress.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

1.1 Self-recording

Of second language programs that offer pronunciation courses, many rely on the use of electronic devices enabling students to record themselves. The two main benefits of such practice are believed to be, on the one hand, the ability for the instructor to access students' recordings to determine work completion, to supervise and to evaluate and, on the other hand, the ability for the learners to listen to their recordings in order to detect their pronunciation errors by comparing their production with a recorded model. This practice of self-recording is favored and recommended by many programs. For instance, the University of Washington Center for Teaching and Learning (2018) suggests the International Teaching Assistants create audio recordings of themselves and to:

- Listen to the recording. Compare your pronunciations of certain words or phrases with American friends' or colleagues' pronunciations of these words or phrases.
- Identify areas where you hear major differences.
- Practice different pronunciations and re-record yourself. Repeat the process above.

However, the benefits of such self-evaluation have not been proven. Indeed, the author of this article has not found any research reporting on the efficacy of solely listening to one's recording – without other intervention such as evaluation training, discrimination training, instructor's assistance, visual aid, etc. It is important to note here that, contrary to auditive aid only, the effectiveness of visual cues (for instance from spectrograms, waveforms, and pitch tracks) of prosodic gestures in self-evaluation and improvement of non-native prosodic production have been demonstrated (Kroger 2009, Guehiliz 2017, Yuan et al, 2018) which leads Herment (2018) to specify "[…] nous pensons qu'on entend mieux quand on voit. L'oreille s'entraîne et s'éduque et cette éducation est sans aucun doute facilitée par la vue." ["We think that we hear better when we see. The ear trains and develops its skills and this training is without doubt facilitated by the sight." Translated by the author of this paper]. The University of Washington's Center for Teaching and Learning does recognize that the listening only method might not suffice as the following statement is added: "If you are not sure you are pronouncing your target sounds or pronunciation features appropriately, give your recording to an American friend, instructor or tutor to listen to and assess.

Circumventing the ephemerality of speech of live speech to offer the possibility of listening to one's speech at a later time and as much as desired is undeniably useful. It enables learners and instructors to have access to the spoken words for review. The issue with this "listen, evaluate and correct" method however lies in the belief that learners are able to identify their errors. Indeed, self-evaluation of pronunciation requires the learner to a/ be able to perceive L2 features absent/ different from the L1, b/ be able to interpret the difference in terms of the acoustic attributes (pitch movement, length, aperture, prominence, manner and place of articulation, etc.), and c/ be able to hear how their own production differs from the L1 features. This difficulty in pinpointing issues in their pronunciation is addressed in Derwing and Rossiter (2001) who specify that close to 40% of ESL students are unable to identify specific problems with their pronunciation and that only 10% of the difficulties identified are of prosodic nature. The difficulty in hearing a feature that does not exist in, or differs from, one's L1 is most likely one of the reasons why non-native speakers fail to perceive their errors; Dlaska and Krekeler (2008) for instance specify that "the learners only identified half of the number of speech sounds which the raters believed to be inaccurate". Often, researchers find that learners overestimate their ability (Alfallay, 2004; Dlaska and Krekeler, 2008; Oscarson, 1998; Salimi et al, 2014) and that learners' self-assessment of language of proficiency correlates only weakly with objective measures (Peirce, Swain & Hartd 1993, Raasch 1980, Ross 2006). According to Bue (2014), nationality also plays a role as some students of certain cultures are more likely than others to overestimate or underestimate their abilities. Furthermore, Salimi et al 2014 established that self-reported pronunciation (i.e. evaluation of one's own general pronunciation proficiency) does not differ from self-rated pronunciation (i.e. evaluation of one's specific recording for pronunciation), and this, regardless of the learner's level of skill and training in pronunciation evaluation. This finding could indicate that learners' evaluation is holistic rather than atomistic, even when the aim of the evaluation calls for the analysis of specific items. However, with training such as discrimination training, feedback, self-monitoring training and specified evaluation criteria, self-assessment can be improved (Ellis and Zimmerman, 2001; Hartman, 2002; Chen, 2008; Dolosic et al., 2016). Hartman (2002:220) however also highlights the importance of pertinent training: "students who received only self-monitoring training reported significantly lower ratings on self-efficacy

and self-evaluation than those in the practice only and control group; whereas students who received both discrimination and self-monitoring training reported significantly higher ratings of self-efficacy and self-evaluation."

1.2 Motivation

Researchers and teachers agree that motivation is a facilitating factor in cases of successful L2 acquisition. But success, particularly early success, is itself often a contributing factor in motivating L2 students too. Maintaining students motivated however often represents a challenge for teachers (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). Motivation in SLA (second language acquisition) has become an important research topic marked by three main models: the socio-educational model (Gardner and Lambert, 1972) which is founded on the learner's attitude towards the second language community in which the integrative orientation denotes a wish to integrate the community and the instrumental orientation indicates a desire based on practical gains (career, travel, etc.). The second movement in motivation studies, the cognitive-situated period, comprises three main theories: the self-determination theory which is centred on extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985, 1995), the attribution theory (Weiner 1992) which specifies that past success/failure determines motivation for future actions, and the task motivation theory (Dörnyei 2005), in which the task is central as it triggers different motivational disposition. The most recent movement in motivational studies is the L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) which includes three dimensions: the ideal L2 self (the learner's visualization of his future self), the ought-to L2 self (the attributes necessary for the construct of the ideal L2 self) and the L2 learning experience (the impact of the material attributes of the specific learning environment such as teacher, curriculum and the level of success experienced).

In this paper, the interest lies mainly in the last element, the L2 learning experience. Indeed, for this research, the subjects' level of motivation will be assessed for the two learning strategies which only differ in terms of the material set up - the possibility or impossibility to self-record. In this respect, as the impact of the learning strategies on the subjects' motivation throughout the project is evaluated, the results are also pertinent to the notion of executive motivation.

This study consists in a computer-assisted study and practice of lexical stress placement in English using two learning strategies. The aim is to seek information on how each strategy impacted their progress as well as the subjects' sense of motivation and sense of progress. Post-projects questionnaires also gathered information about participants' reflections on their ability to self-assess, identify their strengths and weaknesses and to study in autonomy as well as on the learning strategy and their general experience during the project.

In terms of pronunciation, the goal was to lead the participants to place the lexical stress on the correct syllable. Stress placement in polysyllabic words in English depends partly on the suffix of the word and this project concentrated on two stress patterns: one syllable and two syllables before the suffix.

2. Experiment

2.1 Materials

The experiment, using a pre-test/post-test design, was intended to test whether the possibility of listening to one's own recording had an impact on the subjects' improvement in stress placement in English. The targeted material was words with the suffixes -ic, -tion, -ious, -ity, -ate, -y as well as some words with irregular lexical stress such as "television", often stressed on the third syllable by non-native speakers of English. The project included two tests, two lessons, 7 practices of 12 sets of word/phrase/sentence, such as "conversation/a long conversation/Jane and I had a long conversation last week.", in which the stressed syllable of the word studied was written in green (except in the tests). All sample sentences were recorded by the author of this paper.

Because of the need to train learners to discriminate and self-monitoring, both groups were provided with lessons about stress placement and training on how to best use the material and system in terms of being able to best notice their errors. The groups were given instructions specifically for the strategy that they would employ. Thus, the subjects were not aware that the subjects of the other group had a different learning strategy so as to not disappoint, which could have an impact on their motivation and evaluation of the project. The subjects were given access to the instructions only once the pre-test

completed, access to the practice material only once the training completed and access to the post-test only once the practice completed.

The project was available solely on the CAN8 virtual lab. The procedures were explained to each participant individually to ensure that the subjects knew what to do and how to use Can8 Virtual Lab, software digital laboratory used to display the questions and to record the subjects' pre- and post-tests. The subjects were shown how to access and complete the different sections of the test, how to use the equipment.

Because of the importance that visual aid can have on learning, it is pertinent to specify that, while the version of CAN8 used displayed spectrograms, the spectrum representation was very basic and a peak could indicate an increase of stress, or of volume only or the presence of turbulent air flow from breathing or the production of a fricative for instance. All subjects were advised of this so that they would not rely on the spectrogram to determine the presence of stress. See Figure 1.

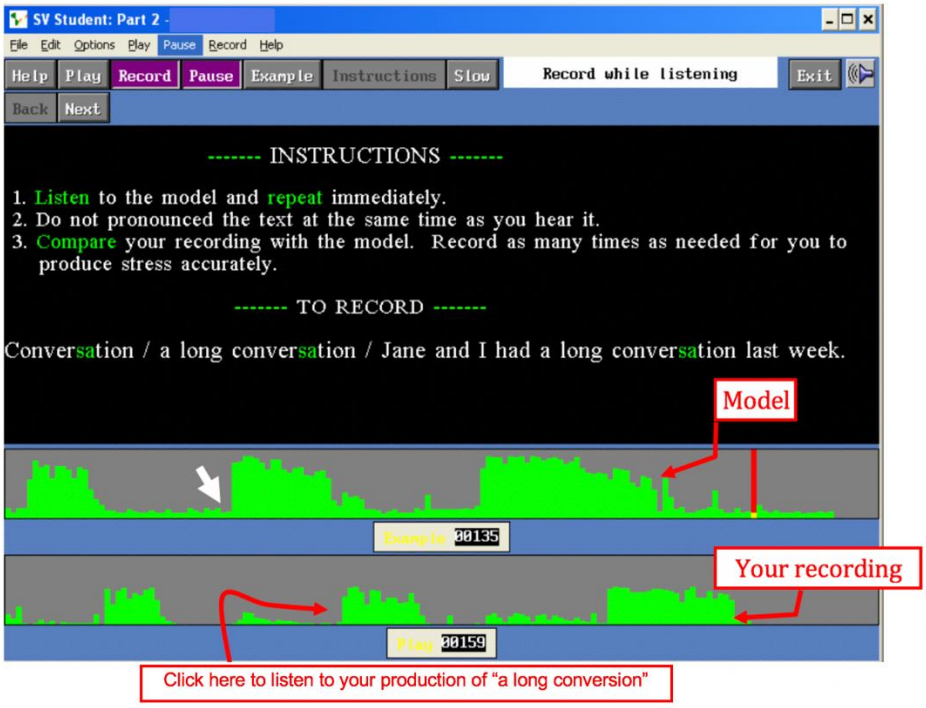

Figure 1: Annotated screen capture of CAN8 Virtual Lab windows provided in the instructions for group A.

2.2 Subjects

17 undergraduate and graduate students at University of Quebec in Montreal volunteered to take part in the project (13 females, 4 males; mean age 36). 5 participants were eliminated from the phonetic analyzes: 3 because they did complete the post-test recordings and 2 because they mastered in the pre-test the placement of the lexical accent, the focus of the experiment. Of the remaining 12 subjects (mean age 34.5; 20 to 50 years) whose phonetic data were analyzed, 5 reported being native speakers of Chinese, 3 of French (1 with Tahitian Creole), 3 Spanish (from Colombia) and 1 Russian. It should be noted here that the variety of L1s is not an issue in this research as the acquisition of prosodic features represent very similar levels and nature of difficulty for the vast majority of non-native speakers of English (Kenworthy 1987, Fraser 2001) contrary to acquisition of segmental features which hinges on more specifically with L1 phonemic inventories.

The participants received no monetary compensation but, after completion of the experiment, received feedback on their lexical stress placement abilities.

2.3 Procedures

The participants were divided into two groups (groups A and B). Group A subjects (6) could listen to the samples, record their oral production, listen to it and rerecord. Group B (control group) subjects (6) could listen to the samples, repeat but not record. All activities were done on the CAN8 virtual lab, on computers available at a UQAM language lab. The subjects could access the material as much, as long, and as many times as they wanted during a four-week period. This was important to determine if either method motivated a group to practice more.

The project consisted of three parts: 1) a pre-test recording, 2) a training-practice part, and 3) a post-test recording. The participant could access the training-practice section only once the pre-test recording was completed.

The pre-test is a text of about 150 words (11 sentences), which include irregular words and words with the targeted suffixes -ic, -tion, -ious, -ity, -ate, -y. The training-practice portion was divided into 6 parts. The first part included a brief lesson on lexical stress in English and a brief explanation of the lexical stress of words with the suffixes -ic, -tion, -ious, -ity (accented words on the syllable preceding the suffix: dy-NA-mic; con-ver-SA-tion; sus-PI-cious; ac-TI-vity). The lesson served as a forerunner to the 12 practices of lexical stress exclusively for this kind of words. The second part began with a brief explanation of the lexical stress of words with the suffixes -ous, -ate (stress two syllables before the suffix: GE-nerous, DE-vas-tate) and the irregular stress of some words (PHO-to-graph, TE-the-vi-sion). The lessons also sensitized participants to word segmentation (al-tru-is-not-al-truis-tic, ap-pre-ci-ate not ap-pre-ciate). The lesson served as a forerunner to the 12 practices of lexical stress exclusively for this kind of words. The other four parts consisted of 12 practice sessions during which the suffixes -ic, -tion, -ious, -ity, -ate, -ous and the targeted irregular words were practiced at the same frequency. The suffix words targeted in the post-test were practiced in the first practices and replaced by words with same suffix in the last 2 practices. In all lessons and practices, the targeted word was presented first in isolation, then in a group of words, then in a sentence (Ex: Conversation /a long conversation / Jane and I had a long conversation last week.). The post-test was the pre-test text to which was added a sentence including one new word of each suffix to see if the participants would be able to apply the studied lexical stress models to new words of the same suffix category.

Once the project completed, the subjects completed a questionnaire seeking information about their opinion on the structure, organization, modalities and content of the activities as well as information about how they felt about their studying, and their sense of progression in terms of stress placement ability, autonomy, motivation, ability to self-evaluate. A 25 to 35-minute follow-up interview enabled to double-check the information provided in the questionnaire and helped obtain additional information that would not have been specified in the online questionnaire alone.

2.4. Data preparation

In this production analysis, a mistake was counted when the lexical accent was placed on the incorrect syllable. A repair was recorded when, in the post-test, the participant produced the lexical stress adequately, on a word that had been improperly stressed in the pre-test. Partial repair was counted when the participant stressed the correct syllable in addition to the syllable accented in the pre-test. Although this double stress is not adequate in actual use, it was counted as repair as it indicates that the participant understood the rule but did not quite acquire the automatism at the production level. Double-stress is indicative of progression (Ploquin, 2009). The recordings were evaluated by the two native speakers of English.

3. Results

3.1 Lexical stress placement

For this pilot project, we conducted an analysis of participants' pre-test and post-test recordings. As mentioned above, 5 participants were disqualified from this analysis, either because the post-test was missing or because their competence in the pre-test indicated that lexical stress placement, for the suffices targeted in the project, was already assimilated.

Group A (self-recording) collectively made 45 pre-test stress errors. 23 of these errors (51%) were repaired in the post-test. By adding the 6 partial repairs, the repair rate is about 64.5%. Group B (just listen) collectively made 54 pre-test stress faults. 26 of these errors (48%) were repaired in the

post-test. By adding the 6 partial repairs, the repair rate is about 59.2%. While group A improved more than group B, it must be born in mind that group B made more errors in the pre-test. Thus, it is significant to notice that group B made 12% more errors than group A in the pre-test and 11% in the post-test. Progress as such is thus similar for both groups and the ability to listen to one's own recording does not appear to be a clear advantage or disadvantage.

The results may appear particularly positive with regard to the rate of repair, especially given the relatively short duration of the project. One of the explanations is that the participants had to pay attention to only one element: lexical stress. In regular classroom evaluation, learners try to tackle a number of pronunciation features. Also, the consistency of the format in each set of sentences, both in the tests and in the practice, probably helped students focus much more than if a variety of formats had been used. Furthermore, the training focused on placement of stress for a limited number of suffixes. Finally, although informed from the beginning that the project was aimed at lexical stress, participants may have been paying more attention to lexical stress in the post-test than in the pre-test. Several instances of self-repair placement lexical focus have also been noticed in the post-tests.

Two forms of improvement were noted: stress placement and self-assurance/fluency. From the post-test recordings, it transpires that those who could listen to their recording really concentrated on the stressed syllable, producing it sometimes in an exaggerated, more emphatic, way. The group who had to rely on their live pronunciation also concentrated on stress but in a lesser manner (a more natural manner) but also sounded significantly more "assured" and their speech more fluent than in their pre-test production. As this distinction was not noticed for all participants of both groups, it would be hasty to generalize the observation. It is however of interest for a later, and larger, study to see if one strategy helps develop fluency/assurance more than the other.

3.2 Motivation

In this project, motivation was a primary factor as the subjects, students of English but not registered for pronunciation courses at the time, who were not paid for their participation, already had a personal interest in improving their pronunciation. Thus, it can be estimated that those who participated were initially motivated to take part. Furthermore, as the project required the subjects to come to the campus, and this during reading week, only those who were truly motivated followed through. In fact, although the project originally counted 30 students, 13 did not start the project, which, for some of them at least, is indicative of their lesser level of motivation. Knowing that the subjects were originally motivated is a positive aspect for this research as any change in motivation during the project could reveal an effect of the learning strategies studied. For this project, motivation is measured by two means: the time spent on the project by the subjects and the declarations made in the questionnaires and during interviews.

3.2.1 Time spent on the project

Students could access the content on Can8 as much and as often as they wanted over a period of 4 weeks. The group A subjects spent an average of 3 hours and 25 minutes on the project, which was spread over 5.12 work sessions, thus spending 40 minutes in each session on average. The group B subjects spent an average of 1 hours and 55 minutes on the project, spread over 3.5 work sessions thus spending 33 minutes in each session on average. However, while those who could record themselves spent more time completing the practices, it is important to bear in mind that recording and replaying maneuvers take longer than just listening to one's own production live. The observation of subjects in action permitted to see that a single item practice (i.e. practice of a set of word/phrase/sentence item such as "conversation – a long conversation – Jane and I had a long conversation last week") took 45 seconds for Group A compared with 25 seconds for Group B. This means that in 205 minutes, group A subjects could complete 273 single item practices, and group B subjects, in 115 minutes, could practice 276 single item practices. As the practice included 7 practices of 12 sets of word/phrase/sentence, on average the groups practiced each set 3.25 times (group A) against 3.29 times (group B), an insignificant difference.

3.2.2 Questionnaires

100% of the Group A subjects specified that the possibility to compare their recording to that of the model allowed them to remain motivated. 72% of those subjects also mentioned that not been able to record themselves would have reduced their motivation. In comparison, 77% of the group B subjects stated that the possibility of repeating after the model allowed them to remain motivated and 80% of those subjects also mentioned that the possibility of recording themselves would have increased their motivation. It is to be noted that one group B student mentioned that she would have been too stressed that someone could listen to her recordings and that she did not want to hear her own voice. On that note, group A students found that listening to their own recording was an unpleasant experience (15%), frustrating (28%) and discouraging (15%). Experiencing an affective disturbance upon hearing one's voice is a common phenomenon called "voice confrontation" (Rousey, 1966). According to our subjects, this discomfort did not lead them to refrain from listening to themselves and had no impact on their practice.

3.3 Other results

The answers to questions about the potential effects of the project (with the strategy used) are provided in table 1.

	Group A	Group B
Helped improve stress placement (greatly to a lot)	85%	95%
Helped improve self-assessment abilities	71%	80%
Helped them identify their weaknesses	75%	100%
Helped them observe their progress	75%	77%
Helped them identify their strengths	43%	30%
Helped them become more autonomous	57%	75%
Helped them improve their listening skills	25%	49%

Table 1. Reported effects on the learning strategies

When asked about the effect that using the other strategy (which they did not know about before the question was asked) would have had, the pertinent answers were:
Group A: not being able to self-record would have:

- reduced their ability to make progress 87%
- reduced their ability to self-assess 88%
- reduced their motivation 72%

Group B: being able to self-record would have:

- increased their ability to make progress 85%
- increased their ability to self-assess 90%
- increased their motivation 80%

We can thus see that both groups were satisfied with the strategy they used. It is interesting to see that, although group B answers were more positive (except for identifying strengths), both groups believe that self-recording represents an advantage.

4. Conclusion

The project showed that both learning strategies were effective as all participants improved their lexical stress placement skills. The other results obtained in this research indicate that the vast majority of participants found the format of this experiment, the practice of pronunciation autonomously - with or without recording - motivating. Group A participants indicated that the opportunity to listen again was a

significant benefit for them, as they associated it with perceived progress and continued motivation over the course of the project. Participants in group B found that the format offered (repetition without recording) was very useful for identifying their weaknesses and for noting their progress. These same participants found the format (without recording) motivating only 77%. Given the importance of motivation in studies in autonomy, the role of the format on motivation deserves to be the subject of further study.

This pilot project was carried out on a small sample and with rigid constraints (period, duration, time, place). The results, nevertheless evocative, make it possible to anticipate that more exhaustive research would contribute significantly to the progress of the understanding of the educational relevance of the auto-recording in the pronunciation learning. In view of the limitations of this project, the researcher wishes to increase the scope of this research in a very substantial way by including a larger number of learners, participants from different countries with different mother tongues and in different learning contexts. It is also planned to include other aspects of pronunciation, including the reduction of unstressed syllable vowels and the production of complex consonantal groups.

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Developing Integrative Intercultural Personhood. Factors Affecting the Acquisition of a New Cultural and Linguistic Identity. The Case of a Flemish Family Moving to India

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Abstract

1. Theoretical framework and rationale

When moving abroad, migrants to a larger or lesser extent, acquire intercultural personhood (Kim, 2008, p. 360). Kim defines "intercultural personhood" as a "way of relating to oneself and others that is built on a dynamic, adaptive, and transformative identity conception—one that conjoins and integrates, rather than separates and divides". Conjoining and integrating is said to be a function of the interrelationship between intercultural stress and subsequent adaptation and growth (Kim, 2008, p. 365).

This paper relates a study that aimed to investigate which factors foremost appear to affect the extent to which migrants acquire an integrative and conjoining stance when in a foreign culture-and-language for an extended period of time or, by contrast, turn inward and develop dualistic attitudes maintaining double cultural identities, not continuing to grow towards intercultural personhood. The factors focused on include degree of difference between home and host cultures, motivation as defined by Ryan and Deci (2000) in their Self-Determination Theory as the willingness to become an autonomous, related and competent person, perceived linguistic competence and age as related to level of development.

2. Design

Data for the study was collected by means of a qualitative-descriptive case study, documenting the integration process of a Flemish (Belgian) family moving to India for three years. The De Bakker family consists of five members: father Jos (°1975), mother Karen (°1975), elder daughter Sophie (°2003), middle daughter Louise (°2006) and younger son Vince (°2010). The data comprise interview data and diary entries (blog posts and speech recordings) collected over 5 months with part of the data gathered in Belgium and part after the family had moved to India. A thematic theoretically grounded content analysis compared pre and post expatriation data for each family member.

3. Results

Our results show that the acquisition of an intercultural personhood is strongly influenced by the degree in which the migrant opens up to his or her host culture despite important and sometimes emotionally rejected cultural differences. Relatedness, as defined by Ryan and Deci (2000, p. 73), also plays a major role in the integration process and does so in different ways according to age and level of psychological and cognitive development (child versus adolescent). Finally, migrants with high perceived (not necessarily actual) linguistic competence develop higher degrees of intercultural personhood than migrants with lower perceived linguistic competence.

Although these results are based on the documentation of the growth in intercultural personhood of one five-headed family, the case bares relevance to similar situations in which people move to go and live in another culture for an extended period of time and see themselves faced with the challenge of building up a new life, living between two cultures at first and gradually adopting intercultural personhood when circumstances are favourable and chances for integration via education or work present themselves.

Future research could focus on the more exact determination of the interrelationship between Self-Determination Theory and growth in intercultural personhood.

Conference Paper

1. Context

The number of people participating in international migration for professional reasons is steadily increasing. International companies are soliciting professional expertise from all over the world, often demanding that the employee move to the place of employment. In case of long-term employment contracts, very often the spouse and other family members will emigrate as well and join the expatriate community, integrating to a lesser or lager extent in the receiving culture.

Many factors have been identified as contributing to or prohibiting people from participating in the new culture, including the degree of distance between the culture of origin and the foreign culture and language, personal psychological characteristics or the family's intercultural stance and degree of closeness or insistence on the maintenance of home culture habits and customs.

According to Kim (2008, p. 360), in order to acculturate to the host country's customs and habits, migrants need to acquire an intercultural personhood, which is "a way of relating to oneself and others that is built on a dynamic, adaptive, and transformative identity conception—one that conjoins and integrates, rather than separates and divides". In order to adjust, immigrants need to combine aspects from both the host and heritage cultures (Ryder, Alden & Paulhus, 2000).

That intercultural personhood allows migrants to move between several languages and cultures. While using another language than the mother tongue and living in a foreign culture, individuals may to a larger or lesser extent enact a different identity, one that constitutes a transformation from their earlier conception of self, but is still related to the previous self. The longer the envisaged immigration period, the more cultural identification with the target culture becomes important (Chen, Benet-Martínez & Bond, 2008) for the development of a bicultural identity and an intercultural personhood. In the process of managing multiple cultural environments and group loyalties, bilingual competence, and perceiving one's two cultural identities as integrated are important antecedents of successful cultural adjustment (Chen et al., 2008).

The present study seeks to contribute to furthering our understanding of globalization-induced acculturation processes of younger family members moving abroad because of their parents' professional ambitions. Specifically, the focus is on the De Bakker family, a five-headed Flemish (Belgian) family, consisting of father Jos (°1975), mother Karen (°1975), elder daughter Sophie (°2003), middle daughter Louise (°2006) and younger son Vince (°2010). In December 2017, the family moves to a compound in Southwest India (Karnataka, Whitefield) with the intention of staying there for several years. It is the second time the family moves abroad, since it lived in the Czech Republic from 2009 until 2013. The three children (Sophie, Louise and Vince), who are all ESL learners, attend an English-speaking international school. The study specifically focuses on a number of factors that could possibly affect the acculturation process.

2. Background information

As shown in Berry and colleagues' seminal work (e.g. Berry et al., 2006), individual immigration-based acculturation processes, where traditionally a new identity in the receiving culture is added to the identity of the home or ethnic culture, can lead to assimilation, integration, separation or marginalization, with integration referring to the highest identification with both cultures and where e-/immigrants are motivated to maintain their culture of origin and at the same time engage with the receiving culture.

However, in times of increased globalization-based migration, acculturation processes have become more complex (Chen et al., 2008). Individuals moving abroad will most probably selectively incorporate elements of the receiving culture into an already internationally oriented mindset. Already in the home culture, especially young people may have incorporated lifestyle elements from Anglo-Saxon culture into their daily lives. When moving abroad, they may well encounter those same elements in the receiving culture, but adding on or adapting to yet new particulars of that new culture, thus enlarging their already multicultural and multilingual identities.

Several factors have been identified as potentially affecting individuals' motivation to engage with or integrate in foreign cultures. These factors relate to perceived cultural differences, one's perceived competence in the foreign language, one's degree of self-confidence or neuroticism c.q. fear, but also one's degree of determination to want to define one's own identity. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), who presented the Self-Determination Theory, people, to varying degrees, want to be autonomous, competent and related individuals. People want to belong and feel connected and want to perform actions that can increase their sense of belonging. Further, people will be motivated to act when

they can become more autonomous and competent individuals. Younger children and young adolescents especially may be motivated by any activity that makes them feel more part of their peer group. Older adolescents and adults may be driven more by a desire to individuate and become more competent and autonomous individuals. Within the framework of L2 learning, Dörnyei (2005) in a parallel vein presented the L2 Motivational Self System, distinguishing between the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and the ongoing L2 learning experiences as important factors contributing to or impeding individuals from engaging further and consistently in the L2 learning process. When a person cultivates an identity that does not include competence in the language of the receiving culture, and perceives L2 learning as an obligation imposed by external stances (the ought-to L2 self), then motivation to acquire the L2 will be low rather than sustained and high. Moreover, when former and current L2 learning experiences are unpleasant, motivation to acquire a multilingual identity will remain low.

3. The present study

3.1 Main hypothesis

In the present study, it is hypothesised that the four variables foremost affecting the acquisition of an intercultural personhood (culture, language, motivation and age as linked to psychological developmental stage) influence the three children participants of this case study differently. As will be shown, our participants have rather varying degrees of integrative motivation, since our younger participant (Vince) does not want to emigrate at all, while his parents and sisters consider it an enriching experience. Also, they are at different points in their psychological developmental process, and master the English language to varying levels with different conceptions of their ideal L2 selves.

3.2 Methodology

In order to test the above-mentioned hypothesis, we carried out a qualitative-descriptive case study in which data were gathered over a period of five months. Following Yang and Kim (2011, p. 327), we interviewed our participants (Jos, Karen, Sophie, Louise and Vince) “both before and after going abroad”. During the first two months of data collection (from November 2017 until December 2017), referred to further as the pre expatriation phase, the De Bakker family was interviewed twice. These two interviews aimed to gain information about the pending move abroad: not only the family’s motivation for going abroad was focused on, but also practical information such as the duration of stay, their perceptions of the international school that the children would attend and of their future home which would be situated in a compound. The second stage of data collection, the post expatriation phase, ranged from December 2017 until the middle of March 2018. During that phase, we sent Sophie and Louise open-ended questions about their lifestyle, school life, culture shock, their motivation and English proficiency. On a weekly basis, Sophie reflected on her experiences in writing in a diary, while Louise recorded her thoughts. We administered voice calls with Vince, the younger son, and talked with his mother about her observations regarding her son’s adjustment process.

As for data analysis, we carried out an exhaustive thematic theoretically grounded content analysis. Based on our theoretical framework, we formulated codes which we then attached to the transcribed data, using the software tool NVivo. NVivo is specifically designed to facilitate pattern discovery in larger qualitative data sets. The frequency of occurrence of the different codes used provided albeit indirect information regarding the different factors of which we had hypothesised that they might affect the children’s acculturation and adaptation processes. Codes included, for example, labels to refer to aspects of the foreign culture, such as cultural habits or rituals, that struck the children as being different and which they judged favourably or not, but also codes relating to their perceived proficiency in English, their emotional and psychological stance, their feelings of belonging, loneliness or homesickness, their lingering or increasing motivation to adapt to the new cultural environment or their feelings regarding their Belgian life and culture.

A within-phase data analysis was completed with a cross-phase study of how the data collected during the pre expatriation phase compared to those gained during the post expatriation phase.

4. Results

During weekends, the family visits temples and local markets and thus participates in day-to-day Indian life, discovering “disgusting”, “different” and “admirable” sides of Indian culture and people, and in general experiencing feelings of curiosity and being overwhelmed by a society and culture that appears very different from the quiet and familiar life they had in Belgium. Not all family members always seem open and tolerant towards cultural differences. Cultural misunderstandings regarding the Indian positive way of communicating and the difference between comfort standards of beds in India and Belgium appear to contribute to the family members’ motivation to want to further integrate and get to know the culture or refrain from such integration for the time being. Over time, it becomes clear that the more the family becomes familiar with life in India, the more autonomous and connected it feels. The fact that the children have an Indian housekeeper, who is at the same time one of their caretakers, seems to contribute to their adapting to their new environment, starting to feel at home and at ease, adding to their identity the image of them being one of those expatriate children living in India, attending an international school and becoming part of that new community.

Apart from a second culture, our participants also need to acquire a new language, which for them is English. Towards the beginning of data collection while in India, all three children experience linguistic difficulties, having trouble understanding the Indian accent and lacking the necessary vocabulary to accurately express themselves. Louise, for example, explains that she makes use of compensation strategies, such as circumscribing or paraphrasing words. Living in the foreign linguistic environment and having to use English as their means of communication all day long leads to a spectacular growth in English proficiency, which especially for Vince turns the English language into a language he wants to learn, not one he has to learn because the situation obliges him to, a feeling that was very strong during the pre expatriation phase. The more competent the children become in English, the more English words they start using in their reflective written and spoken diaries, as if their linguistic identities are changing favourably towards the receiving linguistic community.

Whereas prior to moving abroad Vince was anything but motivated to move away from Belgium, once he makes new friends, at school and in the compound, he starts feeling at home, his need for belonging to a group of friends, so typical of his age and psychological developmental stage, being fulfilled. Belonging, or relatedness as it is termed by Ryan and Deci (2000), also seems of particular importance to the two adolescent participants. From the moment they start talking about and in their perception have made Indian friends, they feel more motivated to adjust to their new lives. For Vince, the fact that he can autonomously walk around in the compound to visit his friends also contributes to his willingness to adjust to his new situation. With Indian and other international children living within the compound he can further develop an ideal self that will involve having a multicultural and multilingual identity. Since for Vince, but also for Louise and Sophie, their actual and ideal selves come to coincide more and more, chances are that their motivation to integrate and develop their intercultural personhoods will remain high.

5. Discussion

On the basis of data collected during the first few months of their stay abroad, the globalization-based immigration process of the De Bakker family promises to become a success. The focus here has been on the children’s adjustment process, which somewhat contrary to expectations, has also been favourable for Vince who, while still in Belgium, expressed nothing less than hate regarding this whole moving abroad adventure. Had circumstances in India turned out differently for this young boy, not being able to connect with children his age in his immediate surroundings, his adjustment process might have taken a different, less amiable course.

It appears that the better the children could imagine what their new lives would be like after moving to India, the more smoothly the adjustment process seems to run. Sophie especially had good memories of her earlier stay abroad, having lived in the Czech Republic before for an extended period of time and having attended an international school there too. She also appears to be moving fast into adulthood, reflecting on the type of person she wants to be, liking the different turn her life is taking now, feeling special in the eyes of her Belgian friends. Louise, a young teenager, cannot stop talking about her new Indian friends and about the Indian weather, which is so different from Belgian forever rainy weather, focusing on what seem idiosyncratic aspects of her new life, living from day to day, not focusing on her future ideal identity as her older sister does.

As expected, the three children’s developmental courses are in part similar and in part different. Interestingly, the more visible aspects of the Indian culture elicit similar reactions in all three children,

with, for example, Indian street smells instilling feelings of disgust. However, the less tourist aspects of Indian culture, and especially the personal contacts the children experience to a large extent determine their degree of willingness to further explore and engage with their new environment. Being in different study grades, their trajectories probably will diverge further as time goes on.

That this immigration seems to run so smoothly may be due in part to the fact that the De Bakker family has previous living and working abroad experiences, and that both mother and father De Bakker are open and tolerant global citizens devoting their full parental attention to supporting their children's development. More so than their children, mother and father De Bakker realise their stay in Indian is temporary, taking care of cultivating a strong Belgian identity within the heart of their family too, next to opening up to the new culture and language.

6. Conclusion

Describing the beginning stages of an extended stay abroad experience of a Belgian family moving to India, and focusing in particular on the three children's adjustment processes, we believe we have been able to provide very insightful data regarding some idiosyncratic and other more general factors affecting the success of globalization-based emigration processes.

Even if we have only reported a single case study here, we believe the case of the De Bakker family bares relevance to many similar situations in which migrants need to build up a new life in a second culture. What has become particularly clear is that when personal contacts promoting familiarity with the new culture and language are successful, chances are that emigration will lead to the development of sustained multilingual intercultural personhood. Such a way of being will then hopefully be passed on from father to son, from mother to daughter and onto still next generations, making for better integrated multicultural societies.

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Multilingual Tasks Can Induce Conflicted Emotions about One's Home Language

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Abstract

For many children in Flanders, Belgium, the official language of instruction is not their primary language. Allowing these children to use their home language in the classroom has been argued to support socio-emotional well-being and learning of language and content. In two studies, we introduced multilingual tasks in schools where Dutch was the dominant language of instruction in order to determine how students experience the opportunity to use their entire language repertoire in class. In both studies, the introduction of a multilingual task was preceded by an assessment of the students' emotional reactions to the different languages they speak through the self-assessment Manikins (SAM; Bradley & Lang, 1994). For each of three emotions students chose the pictorial character that best depicts their general experience when they use the target language: pleasure (valence), arousal (the degree to which it evokes tension) and dominance (the extent to which one feels in control). In Study 1, individual students in a class of 10 year olds and a class of 12 year olds, after completing the SAM, colored a language silhouette according to the languages they felt determined their identity (Martin, 2012) and were then invited to present the silhouette in the language(s) of their choice. In Study 2, small groups in two classes of 12 year old students were invited to create and deliver a multilingual radio news bulletin (Berben, Van den Branden, & Van Gorp, 2007; Verheyen & Storms, 2018) after completing the SAM.

Both studies yielded similar results. On the SAM, students generally indicated that they felt happy, calm, and in control when speaking their home language. Despite these positive assessments, many students refrained from using their home language in the multilingual tasks (silhouette and news presentation). An in-depth qualitative analysis of the students' answers to a semi-structured interview and the students' reactions while performing the multilingual tasks revealed a variety of language-related reasons for not employing the home language. Often these reasons were accompanied with the experience of a negative emotion, such as fear, nervousness, or embarrassment, in marked contrast to the initial assessment of the language on the SAM. Students who felt they were insufficiently proficient in their first language or who did not have the academic repertoire for the multilingual tasks, were afraid to make mistakes and not live up to the language accuracy norm of the classroom. Some students were fearful of how their language might be perceived because of its low status or uniqueness in the classroom. Others experienced a strong sense of compartmentalization between the home and school language and were afraid of disappointing the teacher by not abiding by the school rules. On the plus side, many students felt proud to showcase their knowledge of a language other than Dutch and we recorded several enthusiastic reactions of students to other students' home language use.

In conclusion, while multilingual tasks have the potential to induce positive emotions in students, teachers need to be aware of potential backlashes and prepared to navigate the negative emotions surrounding contested language choices.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

The benefits of multilingual schooling are ubiquitous. Allowing children who speak a different language than the school language to use their home language in the classroom benefits their identity and socio-emotional development (Benjamin, 1996; Cummins, 2001; Moodley, 2007), facilitates the acquisition of the curriculum content and school language (Benjamin, 1996; Eldridge, 1996; Jordens, Van den Branden, & Van Gorp 2016; Rosiers et al., 2016) and improves awareness of and interest in languages and language use (Van Gorp & Verheyen, 2018). Multilingual tasks, in which children are allowed to use their full language repertoire, are low-threshold means of introducing children's home languages in otherwise monolingual schools and reaping its benefits (Berben, Van den Branden, & Van Gorp, 2007). In this paper we argue that multilingual tasks are not to be considered miracle solutions, however. Educators adopting multilingual tasks need to be aware that for some children language choices can be contested and evoke negative emotions.

In four classrooms of 10 to 12 year olds, we assessed students' emotional reactions to the languages they speak. While the students indicated that they felt significantly more happy, calm, and in control when speaking their home language than when speaking the school language, many of them refrained from using it when given the opportunity to do so in a multilingual task. They reported experiencing negative emotions such as nervousness, embarrassment, fear and tension over the use of their home language in the classroom. These reactions were tied to (i) perceptions of insufficient home language proficiency, (ii) the status of their language, and (iii) the compartmentalization of the home and school language. Thus, while multilingual tasks have the potential to induce many positive emotions in children (e.g., proud to be able to speak several languages, acceptance and recognition of one's multilingual identity), there exist children for which the effect is opposite to that intended. We discuss how educators can channel these negative feelings and turn them into a positive experience.

2. Study Outline

Most schools in Flanders, the Dutch speaking part of Belgium, adopt a monolingual policy. It prohibits multilingual students from using any other language than Dutch, the official language of instruction, in the classroom. Some schools and individual teachers do allow children on occasion to use another language if it is believed to help children complete school tasks (e.g., ask a classmate with the same home language for the translation of a Dutch word).

The schools' monolingual policies result from a strong and persistent belief among educators that maximal exposure to the instruction language is the best way to have children acquire that language (Ağirdag, 2009; Strobbe et al., 2017). They are also partly due to many teachers' unfamiliarity with their students' language backgrounds or misconceptions about the children's home languages (Van Gorp & Moons, 2014). Teachers also feel reluctant to deviate from the monolingual school policy out of fear of losing control because they would not be able to understand what is being said in class (Berben et al., 2007).

We conducted two studies to see what would happen if we were to create an opportunity for students wo speak another language than the official school language to use their home language in class. In both studies this was achieved through the introduction of a multilingual task. A different multilingual task was used in the two studies, but otherwise a similar procedure was employed.

First, the researcher spent a day observing each class in order to get an indication of the multilingual practices (if any) and to have the children get acquainted with her. At this time, a questionnaire was also distributed to collect background information on the students and the languages they speak. The questionnaire included the self-assessment Manikins (SAM; Bradley & Lang, 1994) used to assess students' emotional reactions to their home language and the language of instruction (Dutch). On the SAM, students chose for each of three emotions the pictorial character that best depicts their general experience when they use the target language: pleasure (valence), arousal (the degree to which it evokes tension) and dominance (the extent to which one feels in control). For each emotion the child had the choice between five experiences ranging from sad to happy for valence, from restless to calm for arousal, and from small, insecure, and shy to firm, strong, and certain for dominance.

The multilingual task was introduced on a separate day. In Study 1, students colored an outlined human form according to the languages they felt determined their identity. Following Martin (2012) they were told that the silhouette represented them and that they were to color it with one color each for each of the languages they spoke. Afterwards, the children were invited to present their language silhouette,

including the reasoning behind their drawing choices, in the language(s) of their choice. The presentations were recorded with a "multilingual" camera. The children were told this camera could comprehend any language so it did not matter which language was spoken. In Study 2, small groups of students prepared a radio news broadcast for Radio Tika, the official radio station of the fictitious Tikaland. Since Tikaland is multilingual, the different topics of each group's news bulletin were to be presented in different languages (Berben et al., 2007; Van Gorp & Verheyen, 2018). Students prepared their news items on paper before presenting it to the class. By composing groups of students with different home languages, the children were to draw on their combined language repertoire to meet the task requirements. In the Radio Tika task children were thus challenged more than in the language silhouette task to use their home language. The collaborative nature of the Radio Tika task also allowed us to observe how the language choices occurred since students had to negotiate who was going to speak which language (García & Sylvan, 2011). Both the group interactions and the resulting presentations were video-recorded.

Once children had completed the multilingual task, the researcher conducted individual semi-structured interviews, in which she focused on the students' emotional reactions to the languages they speak, their language choice behavior, and their experience of the multilingual task.

3. Participants

Study 1 took place in a primary school in Beringen, a mid-sized town in the province of Limburg, in the east of Belgium. The majority of the children at the school (>80%) have a different home language than Dutch. Many are of Turkish or Bulgarian descent and have a low socio-economic background. The school's policy is that children speak Dutch in class, but the school respects the children's home languages. They can use their home language to help each other with tasks and during leisure time. The children of the fourth (class A, N=22, ±10 years old) and of the sixth grade (class B, N=17, ±12 years old) participated in the study. All children reported speaking mostly Turkish at home, except for two children in class A (English and Serbian).

Study 2 took place in two classrooms in different schools in Molenbeek, a municipality in Brussels-Capital Region. The first school has a strict Dutch-only policy, both during class and leisure time. The children of the sixth grade participated in the study (class C, N=13, ±12 years old). They have a low to average socio-economic background and over 75% report mostly speaking a language other than Dutch at home (majority French). Class D (N=14, ±12 years old) comprised of children at a European school, who were mainly taught in Dutch, but also took classes in which another instruction language was used. All of the students were multilingual and had highly educated parents. Over 60% reported mostly speaking a language other than Dutch at home.

4. Quantitative Results: Self-Assessment Manikins and Language Choices in the Multilingual Tasks

We first report the results of the children's assessment of pleasure, arousal, and dominance with respect to the language of instruction (Dutch) and their home language (child-dependent). The home language was identified as the language the child reports speaking most often at home. We then report how many children presented in their home language in the multilingual task (language silhouette in class A and B, radio bulletin in class C and D). Note that some of the results pertain to a smaller number of children than the class sizes indicated above, since not all children were presented on both days of testing and not all parents gave informed consent for their child's performance to be video-recorded.

	Pleasure		Arousal		Dominance	
Class	Dutch	Home	Dutch	Home	Dutch	Home
A (N=22)	**3.86 (1.04)**	**4.91 (0.43)**	**3.82 (1.30)**	**4.95 (0.21)**	4.14 (1.04)	4.68 (1.04)
B (N=16)	**3.38 (0.96)**	**4.94 (0.25)**	**3.50 (1.21)**	**4.38 (1.20)**	**3.81 (0.83)**	**4.56 (1.03)**
C (N=8)	**3.88 (0.64)**	**5.00 (0.00)**	4.75 (0.46)	4.63 (1.06)	**3.75 (0.46)**	**4.50 (0.53)**
D (N=10)	3.90 (0.99)	4.60 (0.70)	3.44 (1.51)	4.11 (1.36)	3.60 (0.84)	4.30 (0.82)

Table 1. Mean (SD) SAM scores for Dutch and the home language for each class group.

For each class, Table 1 reports the mean values of pleasure, arousal, and dominance for Dutch and the home language. Each of the five response options for each emotion was given a value between 1 and

5. Higher values indicate that children reported being happier (pleasure), calmer (arousal), and more in control (dominance) using the target language. Values set in bold represent a significant difference in assessment of the home vs. instruction language according to a one-sided paired-samples t-test at α=.05/3 (to correct for multiple testing). Students for which the home language is Dutch were not included in the statistical comparisons.

All values in Table 1, except those for arousal in class C, point toward a more positive assessment of the home language than of the language of instruction. On average, children report feeling happier, calmer, and more in control when speaking their home language compared with speaking Dutch. We find statistically significant differences in appraisal in each of the classes except for class D. Class D was part of a European school, where a positive attitude towards multilingualism is promoted and children are effectively taught in different languages, whereas classes A-C belong to schools with a monolingual policy. We do not want to draw strong generalizations from this particular result pattern, however, since it is based on only four classes with a small number of students in each.

What we do find compelling, is the observation that despite very positive appraisals of the home language (all mean values >4 with 5 being the maximum) many students appear reluctant to use it in class when given the opportunity to do so in a multilingual task. In class A, of the 17 students who presented their language silhouette in front of the camera, 15 did so in Dutch (88.24%). Two students (11.76%) used both Dutch and Turkish. In class B as well, the majority of the students preferred to present in Dutch. Out of 15 presenting students, 8 used Dutch (53.33%), 4 spoke Turkish (26.67%), 2 used both Dutch and Turkish (13.33%), and 1 (6.67%) used multiple languages (Dutch, Turkish, French, German, English).

In class C, 4 out of 12 students presented a radio news item in Dutch. This is one more student than expected given that three groups of four students were formed and the task required that each group member presented in a different language. (One child cleverly avoided having to speak a foreign language by using a dialect of Dutch.) For 2 of these 4 students, Dutch is the home language. Among the remaining students, 4 presented in their primary home language (3x French, 1x Arabic). The final 4 students used another home language (1x English, 1x French, 2x Arabic).

In class D, 4 out of 14 students presented in Dutch (28.57%). This is the expected number based on the number of groups (2x4 students, 2x3 students). For 2 of these students, Dutch is also the home language. Among the remaining students, 7 out of 14 (50%) presented in the language they use most at home. Two students (14.29%) decided to present in one of the school languages (English) and one student (7.14%) used a language he had learned elsewhere (Portuguese).

While none of the students in classes A and B indicated that Dutch is the language they speak most often at home, a large majority of them (71.88% across the two classes) nevertheless decided to choose the instruction language over the home language to use in a multilingual task, despite having indicated that the latter language gives them a better feeling than the former. By design, only about 25% of students in classes C and D could opt to use Dutch to use in the multilingual task. As a result, many more students presented in their home language. However, the decision to do so was not always straightforward. For about 1/3 of the students, the home language appeared to be contested and for some of them this tension was resolved by turning to a language taught at school or a dialect for presentation. Through a qualitative analysis of the children's interactions during the Radio Tika task and of their answers to the semi-structured interview following the multilingual tasks, we aimed to uncover why these tasks induced such conflicted emotions regarding the home language in some of the children.

5. Qualitative Results: Interactions and Semi-Structured Interviews

In the recordings of the language silhouette presentations (Study 1), the Radio Tika preparation (Study 2), and the semi-structured interviews of the children (both studies), language choice related episodes were identified and transcribed. Both authors discussed these episodes following the procedure of critical incident analysis to avoid subjective interpretations. In what follows, we focus primarily on those critical incidents that pertain to refusals to use the home language, along with the associated emotions. However, the different appraisal of Dutch and the home language was also regularly confirmed by students during the post-task interviews. To corroborate the quantitative results in Table 1, we provide two exemplary excerpts before turning to students' reasons for not using their home language. Due to space limitations, we only provide the English translations of the Dutch excerpts. Utterances pertaining to emotions are underlined.

5.1 Appraisal of Home vs. Instruction Language

A student in class A explains why he placed Dutch in the silhouette's head and Turkish in the silhouette's hearth:

Excerpt 1

Researcher: Why did you place Dutch in your head?
Child: Because I have to think a lot when using Dutch. If I say something now, I cannot do it that well, and then I am laughed at and that's an uncomfortable feeling.
Researcher: Why did you put Turkish in red?
Child: Because I love Turkish a lot. My mother is Turkish, my father as well, and that's why I love Turkish. I can speak it very well.

A student in class B discusses the different feelings Dutch and Turkish evoke:

Excerpt 2

Child: With Dutch I do get happy, but not so much… It is just a fun language. Because I cannot explain it sometimes, sometimes, sometimes I just want to speak Turkish because that's easier.
Child: [on Turkish] I find it fun and it's also easier. And in Turkish I dare say anything. With Turkish I don't feel so tense.

Both students express that they feel relatively better using Turkish than Dutch and indicate some of the negative feelings they sometimes experience when speaking Dutch (discomfort, tension). In discussing the different feelings the home language and the school language evoke, both students refer to their proficiency in the respective languages to justify why they assess their home language more positively than the school language. For several students limited home language proficiency was one of the reasons for refraining from using their home language in the multilingual tasks.

5.2 Proficiency

The challenge of completing a multilingual task can confront children with the limitations of their home language proficiency. They perceive or experience their mastery of the home language to be insufficient to complete the task. This was particularly the case for the Radio Tika task, which required children to adopt a more formal register (news bulletin) and to prepare a written preparation of the broadcast (Excerpt 3). Children reported feeling shy or reluctant to present in a language in which they could not meet the language accuracy norm of the classroom (Excerpts 4 and 5).

A boy in class D clearly voices that he does not have the proper register to present a news item:

Excerpt 3

Child: But I can't do Italian. I only know half Italian. [in an distressed voice]
Child: I can hardly do anything in Italian. I can only do "what time is it" and stuff like that.

A girl in class A is too shy to speak Turkish and prefers to use Dutch because she is better at it:

Excerpt 4

Child: I'm shy to speak Turkish. Whenever they are speaking Turkish, I want to speak Dutch because I can only speak a little Turkish.

A boy in class D makes a clear connection to the accuracy norm of the classroom:

Excerpt 5

Child: No, I can't do it in German. There are too many words that I do not know. That is why I picked Dutch, because I can speak it in front of everyone without making mistakes. I find that a bit hard in German.

5.3 Status

Other children are not so much concerned with their home language proficiency, but worry about the way their language will be received by their classmates. These children worry that their language will be considered inferior to other languages or that it will stand out negatively. A girl in class C makes this very explicit:

Excerpt 6

Child: I did not want to speak Arabic in front of the class.
Researcher: Why not?
Child: That's not… I can speak Arabic very well, but I'm a bit shy to speak my language in front of the class.
Researcher: Can you explain what you mean?
Child: Yes, that they will laugh. Because for someone who doesn't speak Arabic, it's going to be different, because all of a sudden they will hear Arabic and they might find that funny.

The fear of being laughed at proved particularly prevalent among children who have a unique home language in the classroom. The only English-speaking girl in class A, too, is afraid of being bullied:

Excerpt 7

Researcher: Why didn't you speak in English?
Child: I spoke… Because I am afraid.
Researcher: You are afraid to speak English? Why is that?
Child: I'm nervous.
Researcher: Do you ever speak English at school?
Child: No. Because there are children who bully me. They always call me Barack Obama.

A boy in class D is the only one to speak Persian. He seems to entertain a status hierarchy of languages and prefers to do the Radio Tika task in English, rather than in his home language, because he considers the latter to be of lower status:

Excerpt 8

Researcher: Why did you choose English?
Child: I don't know. That's more a European language, and uhm… I didn't consider doing it in Persian at first. It's a weird language.

5.4 Compartmentalization

Some of the children experience a clear divide between the home and school contexts and have the home and instruction language strictly compartmentalized. To them crossing this divide would amount to a breach of the more or less explicit contract they have with their teachers that their home language does not belong at school. They experience feelings of responsibility or loyalty to their teachers (Excerpts 9 and 10) and feel uncomfortable engaging in behavior that violates the school's monolingual policy (Excerpt 11).

In response to the question of why he didn't speak in his home language, a child in class A admits that the idea of speaking Dutch at school makes him nervous:

Excerpt 9

Child: Because I was a little bit nervous. If she watched it, the teacher wouldn't understand anything.

Another child from the same class shows that she is well aware of the school's monolingual policy when explaining why she opted to present her silhouette in Dutch:

Excerpt 10

Child: If I speak Turkish, you will not understand it.
Researcher: In which language do you speak to your friends in class?
Child: Don't tell the teacher…
Researcher: I won't.
Child: Turkish. Everyone in the class is Turkish, except for X and Y. Only to them I speak Dutch.

A boy in class B has clearly internalized the rationale that underlies the school's monolingual policy. He explains his choice to present in Dutch as follows:

Excerpt 11

Child: I wanted to speak Dutch. Turkish is not so good here, since at school I usually speak Dutch. Because the teachers all speak Dutch here. And only at home can I speak Turkish with my mother and others. It's better to learn Dutch here.

6. Conclusions

While it is generally recognized that it has many advantages, we show that the introduction of children's home languages in an otherwise monolingual school environment, can also bring about negative feelings. The opportunity to use their home language in a multilingual task induced conflicted emotions in some students. They reported experiencing negative feelings such as nervousness, tension, fear, and embarrassment, which could be tied to three language related factors. A perceived limited home language proficiency, the status of their home language in the classroom, and the compartmentalization of the home versus school language, fed students' reluctance to use their home language in the multilingual task. These emotions manifested themselves despite the fact that these students indicated having more positive feelings toward their home language than toward the school language.

Teachers who want to reap the many benefits of multilingual tasks should be aware that for some students the tasks may have negative outcomes as well. If negative feelings were to arise, teachers should first and foremost be considerate of the children's dispositions (shyness, uncertainty,…) and should ensure not to pressure the children into using their home language. Instead, they might allow for accommodations of the multilingual task such as allowing children to translanguage or to use dialects or regiolects. It might also be worthwhile to stress that children do not need to be language experts, but are free to consider the task an experiment into the possibilities (and limitations) of their language repertoire. As multilingual tasks are organized regularly and children are repeatedly exposed to a variety of languages and language uses, they are likely to grow more confident bridging the home-school divide and showcasing their unique language.

The barriers to using one's home language in the classroom can have a silver lining as well. The realization that the choice to use a particular language is not always straightforward can raise awareness and give rise to meaningful discussions regarding the intricacies of language use and inter-individual language differences (Van Gorp & Verheyen, 2018). It can also inform teachers about the language backgrounds of their students, which in turn can help them create more tailored learning environments in the future. When teachers succeed in turning the negative emotions that some students experience into positive learning experiences, multilingual tasks become the intended vehicles for students to voice their multilingual identities. Or as one child in class B, who delivered a multilingual presentation, put it: "First, I wanted to do it in one language. But I chose multiple languages because I had the feeling it could become something beautiful. I think that's good, because when I grow up, I will be able to put those languages to use."

Do not let the focus of this paper on contested language choices detract us from the observation that in all classrooms there were students who successfully used their home language(s) to complete the multilingual tasks. Although we did not report it here, many students felt proud and confident to

showcase their entire language repertoire to their classmates and teacher (Van Gorp & Verheyen, 2018). These students felt empowered by the overall positive reactions of their peers, who tended to be surprised, captivated, and impressed by the language abilities of their peers.

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“It makes me feel smaller and at other times it gives me a rush.” Experienced Recognition in Situations of Migration and Willingness to Acquire a Foreign Communication Style

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Abstract

As part of a lecturer and study visit in Cologne, the author conducted various group discussions and intensive interviews with young Spanish migrants, with the general aim of getting to know their experiences in Germany (Vilar Sánchez 2016, 2018). Today's Spanish migrants in Germany are mostly well-educated young people with an ample learning experience and ready to learn a new language (Vilar Sánchez 2015). Despite their basic knowledge of German, many reported about communication difficulties in dealing with the locals and as a result about feelings of helplessness and inferiority. On the other hand, those who had a well-paid job that matches their training, experienced an appreciation of their professional skills, accompanied by feelings of pride and satisfaction, something they have been denied in their home country. All these young people imputed the communication difficulties to their lack of language skills. However, some of them also reported about a communication style that causes them difficulties because they find it rude, that is, too direct and impersonal (House 2005, Siebold 2008). However, others do not consider this communication style rude, but merely the result of other habits that one can and should learn. Based on these results, a survey with 171 informants was conducted in June, 2018 to clarify the following questions:

- Does rejection experienced in the home country lead to an increased motivation to learn the foreign language?
- Does professional recognition experienced in the host country lead to an increased motivation to learn the foreign language?
- Does private and personal recognition experienced in the host country lead to an increased motivation to learn the foreign language?
- Do the positive professional and/or private and personal experiences in the host country lead to an increased willingness to accept forms of interaction of the guest culture that deviate from those of one's own culture and to regard this as a challenge and possibly even enrichment?
- Does the lack of positive professional and/or private and personal experiences in the host country lead to an increased rejection of the forms of interaction of the host culture, which deviate from those of one's own culture, and in the extreme case to the refusal to learn them? Does this situation contribute to the decision to leave the country?

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

A little over ten years ago, nobody in Spain would have thought it possible that the demographic changes of the 1960's would be repeated again, and so soon. The migration of the sixties was a movement of people from the lower social classes, most of whom were seeking to escape the poverty of Franco's Spain. In most cases, these were people with a very low level of education. Their goal was to earn enough money abroad as quickly as possible to allow them to set up a comfortable life in Spain. (Petuya Ituarte 2014: 252-253; Estévez Grossi 2016: 46; Stadt Duisburg et al. 2011: 8). It was not their intention to stay in the host country, and consequently, they barely made any effort to learn the language and integrate into German society (Martínez Calero und Rohloff 2014: 326-328; Estévez Grossi 2016: 43-50). Most of these migrants actually did return to Spain (Cazorla Pérez 1981; Petuya Ituarte 2014: 255; Stadt Duisburg et al. 2011: 9). Those who stayed, and especially their descendants, have become well integrated into German society.

Young Spaniards of the millennium are aware of this historical phenomenon only through the stories told to them by grandparents or great-grandparents. They themselves grew up in an economically booming country that promised them a great future and in which all doors were open. Their families invested a lot of money in their education. Those who could afford it sent their children to university and the less financially well off had the opportunity to use a well-functioning state scholarship system.

The result was a huge increase in education and training levels in Spain. Then, when the economic crisis took hold in 2008, came the disillusionment. The majority of graduate students could not find a job and the prospects for the future were far from promising. Feelings of disillusionment and desperation led to the recent wave of Spanish emigration to the countries of northern Europe. They hoped that in these countries they could find a job commensurate with their training. For Germany, the timing of this influx of an educated, young workforce was very convenient. Due to its aging population and the associated shortage of skilled workers, Germany was becoming more and more dependent on the help of skilled foreign labour. On balance this was a mutually beneficial situation but for the hurdle of language and especially that of culture.

2. Specific intercultural competence

For today's Spanish migrants, the acquisition of the German language does not seem to be a problem anymore. While their predecessors of the sixties would have agreed with the Spanish saying "imposible el alemán", today's Spanish migrants are no longer daunted by the prospect of having to learn a new and difficult language (Vilar Sánchez 2014 and 2016). In several studies, the author came to the conclusion that the majority overcome this obstacle in the first years of their stay in Germany, if they had not already done so in the preparatory phase. In this study, conducted in the summer months of 2018, we sought to find out whether certain emotional factors associated with the particular circumstances of the recent wave of migration are responsible for this strong willingness and ability to learn this relatively difficult language. These factors could be: (a) rejection experienced in the home country, (b) professional recognition experienced in the host country and (c) private and personal recognition experienced in the host country. It should then be determined whether their language acquisition is purely formal in nature or whether it goes deeper and includes culturally influenced speech acts. Specifically, we asked the questions: (d) whether positive professional and/or private and personal experiences in the host country lead to an increased willingness to accept forms of interaction of the guest culture that deviate from those of one's own culture and to regard this as a challenge and possibly even an enrichment, and (e) whether the lack of positive professional and/or private and personal experiences in the host country leads to an increased rejection of the forms of interaction of the host culture, which deviate from those of one's own culture, and in the extreme case to the refusal to learn them. In this context, we focused on two areas relevant from a contrastive point of view, the relative directness of German in linguistic interaction and the reservedness. This might appear to some to be a contradiction in terms, but this is not the case. Directness in linguistic interaction in German refers to the commitment to clarity, unambiguousness and content orientation (Hofstede 2001 [1980], House 2005). In contrast, the Spanish speaker is more committed to the face of his interlocutors (positive politeness according to Brown and Levinson (1987)). That is to say, on the Spanish side, a tendency to positive politeness predominates, whereas on the German side a tendency to directness is predominant. In contrast, reservedness in dealing with one another means the tendency toward individualism in the sense of negative politeness

(Brown und Levinson 1987). In more individualistic societies such as the German one, the society as a social entity constitutes the guideline for the actions of its members. In this context, individualism must not be understood as egocentrism, but rather as the opposite, that is, as respect for the personal space and the right to self-determination of all the individuals that compose the society. The more individualistic society is in contrast to the more collectivist society. In this type of society, the group or community to which the individual belongs in each case, is indicative of the nature of the interaction among its members. The expression of commonality and closeness is a crucial aspect here. Unlike the Germans, Spanish speakers tend to adopt a collectivist style of communication (Hofstede 2001 [1980]: 236-237; Siebold 2008). The present study investigates to what extent experienced recognition in the host country influences the sensibility of the young Spanish migrants to perceive these intercultural differences. It also examines whether experienced recognition supports their ability to rationalize these distinctions, or whether they continue to be emotionally uncomprehendingly exposed to them because their understanding of communication continues to be based on Spanish interpretive patterns. In a final step, the question is asked as to whether they are willing and able to actively use the foreign communication patterns themselves, that is, to develop a specific intercultural competence.

3. Empirical study

3.1. Design of the study

While giving several lectures at the Centro Cultural Antonio Machado in Cologne, this author took advantage of the opportunity to conduct four group discussions with young Spanish migrants and to record them. Among other aspects, these encounters aimed to find out whether the two problematic culturally determined areas of relative reservedness and relative directness really pose a challenge to migrants, as we anticipated on the basis of the contrastive observations discussed above. In the discussions, the participants were requested to agree on a common definition of what it means to be German.

The discussions were very lively. It was noticeable that despite their good German language skills many of the migrants remarked on the communication difficulties in dealing with the locals and as a result of this about feelings of helplessness and inferiority. When the interviewer cited a statement of an interview with other Spanish migrants “hablo el español y busco el español para sentirme una persona válida” (I speak Spanish and seek the Spanish to feel a valid person), everyone confirmed that this is exactly what happens. They all agreed that they live in a bubble together with other Spaniards and occasionally other foreigners, because this bubble conveys to them a feeling of security. In the company of Germans they feel less secure and less valuable.

> *Sí + hace como sentirte más pequeño y tu autoestima baja un poco [...] yo soy una persona en español y soy otra persona en alemán* [...] (Yes, it makes you feel smaller and your self-esteem goes down a bit [...] I am one person in Spanish and I am another person in German.).[4]

On the other hand, the usage of German also provides positive experiences of achievement.

> *Cuando consigues algo y lo has hecho tú + y lo has hablado tú en alemán + eso también es un subidón* (When you achieve something and it is you who has done it and it is you who has said it in German, that also gives you a rush.).

Both experiences are especially relevant in the workplace. Those who had well-paid jobs that matched their training experienced an appreciation of their professional skills, accompanied by feelings of pride and satisfaction, something they had been denied in their home country. All these young people attributed their communication difficulties to their lack of language skills. However, some of them also reported that the communication style causes them difficulties, on one hand because of the reservedness of the Germans, and on the other because they are very direct.[5]

Reservedness:

> *Ponen su límite + o sea + hasta aquí tu puedes llegar + a partir de aquí + cuidado + no te pases + o sea + ahí si son ++ por ejemplo en España tu vas a un sitio a vivir + tu vecino en seguida te abre la puerta de su casa + la amablilidad esa + la cordialidad cuando viene el de fuera + aquí no existe + no + aquí es como que + vale yo estoy aquí + no + esta es mi casa + y tú estás allí y yo estoy aquí + o sea + luego después una vez que te conocen a lo mejor ya es distinto +*

[4] Due to the nature of the transcript, taken directly from an audiofile, the English translation is an aproximation.
[5] See also House (2005) and Siebold (2008).

no + pero ellos + no es porque seamos extranjeros + es porque son así + en general + porque igual lo hacen con los de aquí que con uno que viene de fuera (They establish their limit, you can go this far, from here on be careful, do not cross the line, for example, in Spain, you go to a place to live, your neighbour immediately opens the door of his house to you, the kindness, the cordiality when somebody comes from abroad, here this does not exist. [They say] I'm here, this is my house and you are there and I'm here. Then later, once they know you, maybe it is different. But it is not because we are foreigners, it is because they are that way in general, because they do the same with the people from here as with those who come from abroad.).

Directness:

Son muy honestos + la gente dice lo que piensa y dice la verdad de entrada +++ tenemos mucho mas cuidado de entrada con el decoro + de no hacerle daño a alguien (They are very honest, people say what they think and tell the truth from the beginning, we are much more careful with the decorum, to not hurt someone.).

These examples make it clear that the people recorded see a distinct difference between German and Spanish in that the German speakers seem to have more respect for the personal space of others while they are less interested in closeness and fostering a community spirit with them. In addition, they are primarily committed to the truth and/or truthfulness while the face of the interlocutor is given minor or no importance. And the migrants obviously are negatively affected by this behaviour, which suggests that they continue to apply interpretation mechanisms which are based on Spanish communication conventions. However, others do not consider the German communication style rude, but merely the result of differing traits that one can and should learn and that they even appreciate.

La gente dice lo que piensa y no necesita justificarse + no necesitan decirte + nooo es que me viene muy mal y por eso + pero otro día + − yo eso lo agradezco + lo agradezco por el idioma porque a mí + yo hago una pregunta y me dicen que no y me voy contenta + me dicen ay no sé porque claro que estoy pensando + bueno al final [incomprensible] *me quedo + entonces vienes o no vienes + entonces yo agradezco el que sean sinceros + te lo digo en serio* (People say what they think and they do not need to justify it. They do not need to tell you, “no, it does not suit me at all at the moment, but maybe another day.” I appreciate that, I appreciate it because of the language because if I ask a question and they say no, I´m fine. If they tell me “I do not know”, at the end [incomprehensible] I don´t know if they are coming or not. I appreciate that they are sincere. I'm telling you seriously.).

The results of the group discussions provided the basis for a broad survey conducted in the second half of June 2018. This survey forms the basis of the present work. It was aimed at young Spanish migrants who have emigrated to Germany in recent years and now live there. The questionnaire included 37 questions, designed to obtain personal information, information about their education, their personal situation in Spain before their departure, their professional, social and personal situation in Germany, their general knowledge of German, their general cultural competence as well as their specific intercultural competence. Furthermore, we asked for the perceived recognition in both countries in order to connect this aspect with some of the previous points and to find possible relations. 171 of the 320 responses were complete and thus could be evaluated.

3.2 Results

According to our results, the negative professional perspective experienced in Spain has no decisive influence on the perceived level of difficulty of the German language. However, the perceived professional acceptance in Germany and the feeling of being welcome in Germany do have a positive influence on the perception of German as rather an easy language. In this context it was also found that the perceived recognition and the language level of the participants correlate. The most positive influence on the assessment of the level of difficulty of the German language occurs when the informants feel professionally recognized in Germany and at the same time feel welcome in German society. Regarding the aspect of relative directness, our findings suggest that there is a correlation between the perceived professional recognition in Germany and the registration and perception of relative directness as well as the willingness to adapt in relation with this aspect. While most informants tend to register the perceived relative directness, those who feel professionally recognized tend not to be negatively affected by this directness and they tend not to interpret it as a sign of discourtesy. In contrast, those who do not feel professionally recognized tend to be negatively affected by this directness and do interpret it as a

sign of discourtesy. Regarding the aspect of relative reservedness, the results are contradictory. Overall, the willingness of the participants to adapt to the German communication style in the field of directness and reservedness is rather low, although most of those interviewed are clearly aware of these aspects. Most of the informants who do not feel professionally recognized are negatively affected by both characteristics of German communication and evaluate them rather negatively. Among those who do feel professionally recognized, the situation is more complicated. As was explained earlier, regarding relative directness, only a minority of this group is negatively affected, and very few interpret this characteristic as rudeness. In the case of relative reservedness, however, more than half of them are negatively affected by this German characteristic and a large majority interprets it as a sign of coldness. Their somewhat lower willingness to adapt to directness, as opposed to reservedness, could be explained by the fact that direct behaviour is an active behaviour and, from the Spanish point of view, it can be felt as an attack on the face of the interlocutor. Reserved behaviour, on the other hand, is passive, and although from the Spanish point of view it can be interpreted as lacking in empathy, in contrast to directness it is not a direct attack on the face of the interlocutor. It may therefore be perceived by the migrants as less vehement.

In conclusion, it is suggested that the specific areas discussed in this paper be explicitly addressed in language teaching. In this context, it should be made clear that the relative directness and the reserved nature of German communication are culture-specific features of the communication style, based on a culture-specific understanding of appropriate communication and politeness rather than a characteristic of the Germans themselves. This knowledge would not only help to develop an ability to adequately interpret these culture-specific communicative style features, but, in the best case scenario, instil a willingness to actively use them in intercultural communication. This would result in a reduction of potential conflict situations caused by inappropriate decoding or encoding processes on part of the migrants. Furthermore, this improvement in communication skills is vital to ultimately foster their integration.

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Design and Perception of an Approach to Improving Chinese as a Foreign Language Learners' Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

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Abstract

This study investigates the effects of an approach to improving Chinese-as-a-Foreign-Language (CFL) learners' Self-Regulated-Learning (SRL) in personally managed contexts using a flipped/blended course environment. In addition, the study examines student perceptions of the approach and how learners' beliefs about language learning correlate with their use of SRL. Studies indicate that SRL has positive effects on students' academic performance in face-to-face classrooms (Kramarski & Gutman, 2006; Kramarski & Mizrachi, 2006; Lan, 1996; Orange, 1999; Schunk, 2005) and in online classes (Lynch & Dembo, 2004); therefore, different models and methods have been proposed and implemented to improve college students' SRL. These models vary in scope, content, timeframe, and design (Hofer, Yu, & Pintrich, 1998; Lan, 1998; Winne & Stockley, 1998; Lin, Lai, Lai, & Chang, 2015; Stoeger & Ziegler, 2008; Schimtz & Wiese, 2006). However, SRL is context specific (Schunk, 2005), and no previous approach has been tested for improving foreign language learners' SRL, especially when applied to a flipped/blended course.

The conceptual framework used in this study is based on the social-cognitive model of motivation and cognition (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994; Zimmerman, 1998). The approach incorporates two groups of strategies: 1) domain-specific cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive and self-regulatory strategies, and 2) self-knowledge, self-efficacy, and motivational strategies. The intervention, a 20-minute person conference with the instructor/researcher, lasted 3 weeks and was integrated into a CFL flipped/blended course. During the individual meetings, the instructor/researcher gave each student individualized instruction to improve SRL based on learning situation, strengths, and weaknesses. Additionally, students were encouraged to focus on one area of their Chinese study with which they had challenges while applying the SRL strategies. Each week the students wrote structured diaries to help them self-regulate their learning.

Nineteen CFL learners participated in the study. Data were collected in three different ways. First, a questionnaire was administered at three time points: before implementation of the approach, right after implementation of the approach, and three weeks after implementation of the approach. This questionnaire was adapted from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993), the Online Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (OSLQ by Barnard, Lan, To, Paton, & Lai, 2009), and the Belief About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI BY Horwitz, 1988). All three questionnaires included items asking about students' use of SRL which measured learners' self-reported perception of their use of cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive self-regulatory strategies, resource management strategies, and motivation. In addition, the questionnaire at the second time point included nine open-ended questions about students' perceptions of the approach. The questionnaire at the third time point included a survey regarding learners' beliefs about language learning. Second, students kept a structured diary (Schmitz & Wiese, 2006). The diary was structured with the intent to a) Depict the entire self-regulation cycle; b) Support self-regulated learning, and c) Capture the intervention effects. The third way of gathering data was a reflection paper written by the participants.

The data have been collected and entered and are currently being analyzed.

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1. Self-Regulated Learning

Self-regulated learning (SRL) is a social-cognitive construct in the realm of self-regulation that describes the ways in which individuals actively and constructively regulate their own congitive processes in an educational setting. SRL conceptualizes effective learning as a process of cognitive and motivational evaluation where a learner completes academic tasks (Heikkilä & Lonka, 2006; Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 1990; 2008). Different models of SRL developed over the years (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Borkowski, 1996; Pintrich, 2000; Winne & Hadwin, 1998; Zimmerman, 2000), but all models assume at least three phases: a preparatory or forethought phase, an actual performance or task completion phase, and an evaluation and adaptation phase. In the preparatory phase, learners engage in task analysis, planning, and goal setting based on their cognitive and metacognitive knowledge about the subject as well as their motivational beliefs about the self, the task and the situation. In the performance phase, learners choose strategies to monitor the process of completing the tasks such as comprehension monitoring, time and resource allocation, and physical environment choice. The last phase, the evaluation phase, consists of evaluating outcomes and reflecting upon learning. All models assume the SRL phases to be cyclical in nature and assume that the evaluation phase influences the subsequent preparatory phase.

SRL plays a critical role in student learning and is a key factor contributing to students' mastery of their own learning (Zimmerman, 2008). A self-regulating learner is able to use a variety of strategies to set task-related and reasonable goals, take responsibility for his or her learning, and maintain motivation. When applying a strategy, he or she is able to monitor the strategy use and modify it based on the task demands and task differences (Butler & Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000). Additionally, a self-regulating student knows how to manage and control effort and maintain cognitive engagement with the task despite distractions (Wolter, 1998; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). The use of SRL has been shown to not only predict the academic achievement of learners but also to contribute to learners' self-confidence (Kramarski & Gutman, 2006; Kramarski & Mizrachi, 2006; Lan, 1996; Orange, 1999; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986).

With more online/blended courses offered by academic institutions throughout the world, SRL is even more important to students' academic success, but it is a misconception that "digital natives" (Palfrey, Gasser, 2008, Prensky, 2001) are naturally adept at learning in digital environments (Bennett, Maton, & Kervin, 2008; Kirschner, van Merriënboer, 2013). It is important that students learn how to self-regulate their study in these learning environments. It is also important to note that SRL processing has significant domain-specific aspects (Alexander, 1995, Boekaerts, 1999, Greene, Dellinger, Tüysüzoğlu, & Costa, 2013; Greene, Bolick, Jackson, Caprino, Oswald, & McVea, 2015; Poitras & Lajoie, 2013). Some scholars have called for studies to investigate domain-specific tasks and individuals' regulation of their cognition, motivation, and emotions (Alexander, Dinsmore, Parkinson, & Winters, 2011).

Furthermore, as Hofer, Yu, & Pintrich (1998) pointed out, college students' knowledge base and strategy use may be fixed due to their habitual use during students' elementary and secondary schooling, but learning a language that is totally different from their native tongue might require students to use new SRL strategies. In this context, the purpose of this study is to find out if a specific method of enhancing the learning of SRL impacts the improvement of SRL when it is implemented with Chinese-as-a-Foreign-Language (CFL) learners who study Chinese in a flipped/blended learning environment.

2. The Design of the Individualized Approach to Improve SRL

SRL develops through two essential sources: social experiences and self-directed experience (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1996). There are multiple ways of reaching mastery of SRL, including adult and peer modeling, corrective feedback, supervision and monitoring, and reciprocal teaching. In socially supportive environments, students should have opportunities for self-directed practice. These opportunities allow them to rehearse and develop SRL on their own.

A recent study on CFL students' SRL in flipped/blended learning environments (Zhang, 2017) found that students used SRL in order to solve the specific problems and challenges they had in learning Chinese. However, despite their eagerness to change the situation and their plans to tackle the problems, they were not confident about their SRL. They did not set specific goals and did not think to monitor their strategy use or seek external help.

While students rehearse and develop their SRL skills on their own, it is important that they get support and feedback on implementing those skills. With support and feedback, all students should be

able to look at their own problems, strengths, weaknesses, and goals and become committed learning participants who can efficiently control their own learning experiences in a variety of ways such as organizing and rehearsing information to be learned, monitoring their thinking processes, seeking help when needed, and having knowledge and positive motivational beliefs about their capabilities (Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998). Therefore, an approach is needed to help learners develop their SRL. This approach should both help learners gain the "skill" and "will" to use SRL strategies properly (Hofer, Yu, Pintrich, 1998).

An approach was designed based on three theories and concepts: 1) The cognitive behavioral intervention model (Meichenbaum, 1977; Harris & Graham, 2009), 2) Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) concept (Vygotsky, 1978), and 3) The concept of informed instruction (Brown, Campione, & Day, 1981). First, the cognitive and behavioral intervention model emphasizes Socratic dialogue and discussion, interactive learning between student and teacher with more responsibility for monitoring and applying strategies being transferred to the student over time (Meichenbaum, 1977; Harris & Graham, 1985; 2009). It encourages teachers to use instructional procedures such as initial teacher direction and modeling along with feedback and reinforcement with the student as an active collaborator. Second, when the concept of ZPD is applied in education, educators believe that the role of education is to give learners experiences that are within their zones of proximal development. Scaffolding, a concept developed based on the concept of ZPD, is a process through which a teacher or a more competent peer/adult gives assistance to the student in his or her ZPD and then reduces assistance gradually. This process advances learners' use of strategies with guidance provided by a teacher through focused questions and positive interactions (Balaban, 1995). Third, informed instruction means that students should clearly understand what they are doing and why they are doing it. It can motivate student to learn and make learning more meaningful.

This approach to improving students' SRL was designed as an individualized approach using an interactive method with scaffolding to teach CFL learners two categories of SRL strategies within a 3-week period. Students meet with the teacher individually in 20-minute meetings once a week during the three weeks. Before the meetings started, the instructor addressed the whole class about this SRL project and gave them an overview about the project's structure. During the meeting sessions, the teacher and the student worked together to come up with tasks that the student wanted to work on and then discussed student goals, plans to achieve their goals, time management skills, how to find a distraction-free environment, how to seek help, and how to reflect.

During the week between the meetings, the students were to stick with the plans that they made with the teacher based on the goals they had and were to complete diary writing. At the next meeting they would hand their diaries in. The diary writing form was modeled upon Schmitz & Wiese (2006).

This study examined how the learners perceive the approach and whether it was effective in improving learners' SRL. Due to the limited space, this proceedings article will only answer one research question: What was the CFL learners' perception of this approach?

3. Methodology

This study adopted a mixed method. It includes three surveys at three time points, an opened-ended questionnaire, and student reflection paper. Due to the space limitation, the survey and questionnaire instruments will not be described. Only the analysis of the reflection paper data is reported in this proceedings paper.

Nineteen second-semester students who were learning Chinese in a 4-credit flipped/blended course at a comprehensive university in America participated in the study. The teacher/researcher implemented this approach beginning in week 7 of the semester, and the intervention lasted 3 weeks. The intervention started mid-semester to allow time for the students and teacher to build a relationship and increase the students' comfort in talking with the teacher about their challenges in learning while still giving students time to practice new strategies and apply them to other learning environments.

After three weeks of implementation, participants were asked to reflect on what they had experienced and to write a reflection paper addressing 1) What they had learned doing the SRL project, the satisfactory and the unsatisfactory parts of the project, and their own Chinese learning; 2) What they had improved with respect to their use of self-regulated learning strategies with their Chinese; 3) How they felt about the changes they experienced, if any; 3) What their future plans were for continuing to improve their self-regulated learning strategies, if there were any; 4) What their specific plans were for improving their Chinese learning on their own; and 5) Any other thoughts that they might have.

4. Findings and discussion

Student reflections showed positive views about the approach. They reported that the SRL project not only helped them improve their language skills, but more importantly, helped them learn how to set goals and discover new strategies for learning the language. Students were also more aware of themselves and their learning and more capable of managing their time efficiently. They reported that they would apply what they learned to other courses and to their life in general and that they had become more confident in solving learning problems. In addition, they said the one-on-one sessions with the teacher helped them feel like the teacher was their advocate, and said the teacher's optimism helped them succeed. Students also said the project was "very beneficial as it involved critical thinking and actions based off of those thoughts." In short, most of the participants (N=18) enjoyed the SRL project.

Improving learners' SRL means, at the least, making them aware of their learning habits and at best, improving their learning habits. Students appreciated the efforts the teacher put forward on their behalf. One student cited Charles Duhigg, author of the book The Power of Habit, "There's nothing you can't do if you get the habits right." The student wrote that the project allowed him to evaluate his current study habits to identify obstacles to effective learning, an important step for him to "get his habits right." Another student wrote, "I had a lot of habits that I am happy to say I have left in the past. These included waiting until the morning before class to do the homework, not intently watching the grammar and culture videos presented from you, and just not devoting the proper amount of time to study Chinese on a daily basis." Because of this project, he said, "some of the changes that I made include but are not limited to, spending 15 minutes every morning reviewing the homework from the night before and practicing the respective vocabulary of the week."

Each student developed different SRL problems over their years of studying. The implementation of this individualized SRL approach helped most of the participants deal with their study challenges and work on poor habits they had held onto for a long time. There were other advantages students noted as a result of the individual meetings.

First, they learned new learning strategies from the teacher. A majority of the students (11/19) wrote that they learned domain-specific strategies from the teacher, including using recordings to compare their pronunciation and tones with native speakers' to learn better pronunciation, speeding the memorization of characters by grouping radicals of the characters together and finding similar characters, developing sentences and practicing them with native speakers, reviewing grammar while sitting close to a friend who is a native speaker, improving reading comprehension by reading materials that are at a slightly higher level than his or her current reading level, and so on. Sometimes these strategies were straightforward and similar to strategies that students already knew but were not implementing. Reminding students of those strategies or pointing them out helped students succeed, as did helping students be more aware of strategies they had used in the past. Students discovered the extent to which those strategies could be valuable and developed new strategies by combining familiar strategies with new ones the teacher recommended. Students were happy to see that the aspects of language learning that they worked on using these new strategies improved greatly.

Second, they learned to set specific goals. Twelve out of 19 participants mentioned that they had learned how to set up measurable, realistic, and achievable goals. First and most important, they learned that setting mastery goals was more important than setting goals that focused on grades; second, they learned that breaking their work into smaller pieces and dealing with the pieces one at a time made their study less frustrating and more motivating. One student wrote, "over the three weeks of the project, I believe that setting the small daily goals for 10-15 minutes helped me focused on what I needed to work on with regards to my language ability and focus less on the grade." Some students who already knew that they work best in small pieces of time said that this project helped them learn how to better organize that time and to plan in advance. One student said that planning gave him "a good idea of what I need to complete before I am done." Another student wrote,

> Another learning outcome from this assignment that I want to stress is the importance of setting realistic, achievable goals for myself. I have a very bad habit of biting off more than I can chew when it comes to coursework, so it is vital that I set goals for myself that I can achieve without using up too much of my time.

One student said that by setting small achievable goals it was easier for him to get started working on tasks that involved a large amount of new and challenging information. He said,

> I think that making a small plan before I start a study session would benefit me greatly and it will help me to stay focused and stay on track. I realized that that was one of the things that was

> somewhat holding me back. It was kind of like I didn't want to start the work because I was stressed about how much there was to do. Therefore, I learned to set small goals and complete them one by one without trying to conquer them all at once.

Third, they became more aware of their own learning. Nine out of 19 students mentioned this in different ways. Some became more aware of their strengths and weaknesses in learning Chinese. Some mentioned that they realized that they needed to be consistent with their motivation and goals and be more open-minded to new suggestions. Some realized that they were easily distracted and that they needed to be cautious about where they study and when. Some said that they realized that they didn't have good study habits before and discovered what they needed to do in order to improve learning. Some discovered "how important the little details are, such as location, time, and energy level," and they realized "all of these seemingly unimportant factors actually contribute significantly to my levels of productive activity." One student wrote,

> The last few weeks have been a great learning experience for me. I always tried my best to study as efficiently as possible. I would simply sit down somewhere and try to cram out as much work as I could until I could not focus anymore. However, through the Chinese Learning Strategies project, I learned that there are so many more efficient ways to conduct my studies…. I always tried my best to study as efficiently as possible–or at least I thought I did. It was not until I fully explored the value of learning strategies that I discovered how much time I could have saved over the years. I plan to make very good use of these methods, such as setting realistic goals, for the rest of my college career."

Furthermore, students started to evaluate their learning. Some students mentioned that filling out the diary form helped them evaluate how well their learning went that particular day. One student said that if they did not have to complete the diary form, they would simply complete an assignment or task and believe that they were learning. Another student wrote,

> Reflecting on how one learns is just as important as learning itself, in the sense that one must understand when one truly knows the material. These strategies have helped me realize the level of understanding that I must have. The best way to test if you truly know and understand something is the speed of recall and confidence that you have in the answer.

Fourth, they started to manage their time wisely. Students purposefully found a location where there were fewer distractions and started seeking help when needed. Six students became more conscious of how to divide time according to the specific goals they wanted to achieve for that day. One student wrote that he liked breaking up his study time and "mastering one concept at a time." Students also made note of the time that they spent learning Chinese, which helped them see if they had been distracted while studying. One student wrote that she made sure that when she studied she got the most out of the time she had, and another student said he purposefully tested out a few different study times and found that he did his best work in the morning.

Six students mentioned that they noticed the importance of constructing a good learning environment for themselves where they had fewer distractions. They turned off their phones because even if "I didn't look at the messages, the sound of notifications would make it hard to concentrate." Another student found a new area in the library where they had almost complete silence and no distractions. A third student said that when she planned to study she could not be around her friends, while another student found that he couldn't study in noisy areas but did need background noise since he could not focus nearly as well when surrounded by silence.

Even though only four students mentioned that they would continue to ask for help from the friends that were willing to offer it, this approach at least reminded students that seeking help was a good idea when needed.

Fifth, they had the motivation to continue effective study. Five students reported that they were more motivated to deal with challenging parts of the language after the individual session. They were more confident after they learned the most important and effective ways to improve and saw results from implementing those changes. Based on what they had learned from this project, they had even had plans for their future study and felt confident about that future study.

Sixth, they transferred what they learned to other spheres of learning. Half of the participants reported that through this project they discovered useful and effective strategies that they thought could be

applied to the other courses and to the other aspect of their life. Students said they would use these strategies widely. For example, one student said because the use of planning study time had helped him overcome his habit to "slack;" he was determined to use planning not only in his Chinese studies but also in other aspects of his life. Another student found that self-evaluation was helpful in his study, and he wrote that since he was graduating, he could use self-evaluation at his job in the future.

Students mentioned other academic skills they learned. For example, one student said, "Through this project, I have improved my time management skills tenfold. I am grateful that we had the chance to participate in this project, as it has seriously helped me achieve so much more than I thought I would be able to this semester." Another student wrote, "The practicality of these strategies does not only pertain to this Chinese course but to all of life's tasks in general."

Seventh, they liked the personal connection of the one-on-one meetings. Three students expressed that they liked the meetings because "it gave the project a more personal feel to it." This student believed that was a good thing because "the one-on-one meetings give the student a chance to ask the teacher more personal questions and to solve problems that need some attention." Another student wrote, "Honestly, the whole process was really important and helpful to me, because it came at a time where I felt like I was falling behind in everything and nobody cared. Over the course of this project, it really felt like … [the teacher] cared about my success and her optimism helped make me want to succeed."

Some participants did have suggestions to make the SRL approach work better. First, one student suggested that the project should start earlier in the semester. In the student's words, "The things that … [the teacher] and I talked about were mostly habit-forming things, which are best learned early before bad habits kick in." Another student made a similar suggestion, saying that the project should be extended to "give more time for the new information to settle and stick in the brain longer."

Second, a student suggested that there should be more time between the one-on-one meetings because, he said, there was "an issue with the amount of time trying out a new studying technique, … and one week was not a sufficient amount of time for me to get a feel of a different studying style." He said, "I think my brain is a bit slow on using new strategies, as it asks it to work a completely different way. So I think allowing just a bit more time between meetings would remedy this issue."

Third, six students said the diary forms were "boring" to fill out. Two students thought that the diary form was not necessary because they already did very well in monitoring their learning. One student suggested that that form could be shortened to fit one page. However, not everyone agreed. One student wrote, "Although the fill-out sheets felt a little bothersome at times, I am very thankful that we had them."

5. Conclusion

This individualized approach to improving learners' SRL strategies was successful in helping students find and apply effective strategies to maximize their learning. All students want to succeed, but they sometimes do not know how to get started or get frustrated when facing a large task (Zhang, 2017). At those times, instructional scaffolding is needed. This SRL approach supported learners by helping them get started, revitalizing their current study strategies, and working out new strategies - both cognitive and metacognitive. The method also helped motivate the students and helped them be more confident in their learning. This approach was implemented for only three weeks, and would likely be more effective over a longer period of time.

The positive perceptions of the participants make this SRL approach easily applicable in other learning environments. However, considering the time the teacher spends with each student, one of the weaknesses of this approach is that implementing it requires a significant commitment of time and energy from the teacher.

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Emotions and the Language Teacher

Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety: A Study of Teacher Anxiety in Non-Native Foreign Language Teachers in the Netherlands

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which foreign language teaching anxiety shaped the teaching experiences of non-native foreign language teachers in the Netherlands. Specifically, this study aimed to: (1) determine the scope and the severity of foreign language teaching anxiety in non-native foreign language teachers; (2) investigate whether there is a correlation between the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety and different foreign languages; (3) identify the potential sources of foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers; (4) identify the strategies that non-native foreign language teachers employ to cope with their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety and determine what possible classroom implications these strategies could have. 38 non-native pre-service and beginning in-service foreign language teachers participated in this study by completing a questionnaire and participating in follow-up in-depth, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews. The findings of this study demonstrated that non-native foreign language teachers in the Netherlands experience feelings of anxiety in relation to teaching a foreign language. It was also found that the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety among the participants were dependent on their different target languages. In addition, this study found that there are multiple sources of foreign language teaching anxiety among the participants. Finally, the participants were found to employ different coping mechanisms to deal with their anxiety, some of which might negatively impact the quality of instruction inside the language classroom.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

Foreign language anxiety has become the most extensively investigated variable in the context of foreign language learning. However, while attention to foreign language anxiety has been increasing in recent years, a review of the available literature shows that the focus has almost entirely been on the debilitating effects of foreign language anxiety on beginning and intermediate learners. Very limited is the number of attempts made to investigate the phenomenon in advanced foreign language learners. This is particularly the case regarding the number of attempts made to probe foreign language anxiety in non-native foreign language teachers, who, according to Horwitz (1996), merely happen to be the most advanced foreign language learners. The few studies which have been conducted on foreign language anxiety among non-native language teachers have all shown that this category of advanced language learners also experiences feelings of anxiety in relation to foreign language use, and that these feelings have a negative impact on the quality of foreign language classroom instruction as well as on the well-being of the teachers (Horwitz, 1996; Canessa, 2004; Tseng, 2005, Tum, 2010).

Horwitz (1996) was the first to speculate that non-native foreign language teachers are also susceptible to foreign language anxiety. According to Horwitz (1996), foreign language anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers is the result of four main factors: the irrational analysis of one's own abilities in the target language, the spontaneity of today's language classroom, the teachers' pursuit of an idealized and unrealistic proficiency level in the target language, and the anxiety-inducing experiences of teachers while learning the target language. These factors make it clear that non-native language teachers are not immune to anxiety in relation to foreign language and that it is plausible to conceive of a new foreign language anxiety construct – foreign language teaching anxiety.

Foreign language teaching anxiety has been found to have several undesirable potential effects. For example, anxious teachers were found to be more likely to avoid intensive language teaching approaches, such as total physical response, role-play activities and classroom discussions (Horwitz, 1992; 1993). In addition, foreign language teaching anxiety was found to negatively affect the quality of classroom input in that anxious teachers tend to reduce the amount and the quality of the input that they provided their learners with inside the classroom; hence, limiting their learners' access to spontaneous foreign language in the classroom (Horwitz, 1996). Another undesirable effect of foreign language teaching anxiety is that the phenomenon has been found to result in the teachers transferring their uneasiness and discomfort in using the target language to their students (Horwitz, 1996). Finally, foreign language anxiety was found to impact the teacher's job satisfaction and hence have long-term impact om their well-being (Horwitz, 1996).

Considering the debilitating effects of foreign language teaching anxiety and the limited attempts to which have been made to investigate the phenomenon, it is clear that further research is required in order to gain a deeper understanding of the underpinnings of foreign language teaching anxiety, its scope, and its influence on the quality of instructions inside the language classroom. The current study aims to further shed light on foreign language teaching anxiety by investigating the phenomenon in the context of non-native foreign language teachers in the Netherlands.

2. The Study

This study aimed to investigate the phenomenon of foreign language teaching anxiety in non-native foreign language teachers in the Netherlands. Using both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments, specifically questionnaires and focused, semi-structured, one-on-one interviews, this study attempted to, first, determine the extent to which non-native foreign language teachers experience feelings of foreign language anxiety in relation to teaching a foreign language. Second, this study will attempt to investigate whether there is any correlation between the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety and the participants' target language. Third, this study will attempt to identify the causes of potential feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety among foreign language teachers. Fourth, this study will probe the strategies that non-native foreign language teachers employ to cope with the potentially debilitating effects of foreign language teaching anxiety. Finally, this study will attempt to gain insights into the possible classroom implications of the strategies that non-native foreign language teachers employ to cope with their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety.

2.1 Participants

A total of 38 non-native pre-service and beginning in-service foreign language teachers participated in this study. The non-native pre-service foreign language teachers were recruited from four different institutions in the Netherlands. Some of them were following one-year intensive first-grade language teacher training programmes offered by two research universities. Others were in their third and fourth year of a four-year-long bachelor's degree programme of teacher education offered by two universities of applied sciences and which, upon completion, grants the students a Dutch grade two teaching qualification. The non-native beginning in-service foreign language teachers who participated in this study were mostly full-time practitioners who were recruited from different secondary schools in the Netherlands. Some of them, however, were teaching part-time and simultaneously following teacher education programmes at a research university or a university of applied sciences in order to obtain a grade one teaching certificate, which will allow them to teach in Dutch upper secondary schools.

2.2. Instruments

All the participants in the current study filled out an online questionnaire which consisted of a total of 35 questions. The questions were divided into three separate parts: the first part aimed to collect the participants' background information, the second part aimed to measure the feelings and the degree of foreign language anxiety among the participants. This part of the questionnaire contained Horwitz's (2008) Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (TFLAS), the third part of the questionnaire was a request to the participants to give their consent to be contacted for a possible follow-up interview. The questionnaire was administered in English, and three different versions were designed according to the target language of the participants; English, French and German.

Post-questionnaire, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to tap into the target language teaching experiences of the most anxious participants. These interviews were also used in order to learn about the possible causes of foreign language teaching anxiety among the participants and to learn about the coping mechanisms they use to cope with their feelings both inside and outside the classroom. The interviews were conducted in English and were audio-recorded with the consent of the interviewees.

Because the interview was semi-structured, no specific questions were asked to the interviewees. Instead, the interviews consisted of different questions and prompts which were dependent on the individual experiences of the interviewees. The interviews were nonetheless uniform in that all of the questions and the prompts fell under the following topic areas:

- The participants' feelings while speaking the target language
- The causes of the feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety
- The effects of these feelings and the possible remedies or coping mechanisms
- (target) Language learning and teaching history
- Attitude towards mistakes and error correction
- Attitude to target language and culture
- Problem and difficult areas as a language learner and teacher
- Likes and dislikes of the teaching profession
- Preparation of lessons
- Teaching approaches
- Face

3. Findings and discussion

3.1. To what extent do non-native foreign language teachers experience feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety?

The findings of the current study indicate that the non-native foreign language teachers who participated in this study experience feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety. They were all found to experience the phenomenon at varying levels. In other words, some participants were found to experience high levels of foreign language teaching anxiety, some were found to experience average levels of foreign language teaching anxiety, and some were found to experience low levels of foreign language teaching anxiety. Table 1 represents the number of participants, the mean anxiety score, the standard deviation, the number of low-anxious participants, the number mid-anxious participants, the number of high-anxious participants, and the minimum and maximum anxiety scores recorded by this study.

Number of participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Low-anxious	Mid-anxious	High-anxious	Min/max
38	2.88	0.88	9	18	11	1.1/4.6

Table 1. Foreign language teaching anxiety levels in non-native pre-service and beginning in-service foreign language teachers

The results also demonstrated that non-native pre-service language teachers are inclined to experience more anxiousness with regards to foreign language teaching compared to the non-native beginning language teachers. Table 2 represents the two groups surveyed in this study, and for each group, the number of participants, the mean anxiety score, the standard deviation, number of low-anxious participants, number average-anxious participants, number of high-anxious participants.

Participants	Number of participants	Mean	Standard deviation	Low anxiety	Average anxiety	High anxiety
Pre-service teachers	27	3.04	0.91	6	16	5
In-service teachers	11	2.49	0.72	2	7	2

Table 2. Differences in the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety in non-native pre-service and beginning in-service foreign language teachers

The main finding of this study confirms the belief put forward by Horwitz and colleagues that foreign language anxiety is not limited to beginning and intermediate language learners alone, but it is also prevalent among advanced foreign language learners, including non-native foreign language teachers, who are first and foremost advanced learners of a foreign language (Horwitz, 1996). Results from past studies which were conducted on foreign language teaching anxiety using the TFLAS found that large numbers of participants experienced debilitating foreign language teaching anxiety (Rodríguez et al., 2009; Tum, 2010; Mousavi, 2007; Kunt & Tum, 2010; Machida, 2016). In comparison with these past studies, the result of the present study also found foreign language teaching anxiety to be a pervasive phenomenon among non-native foreign language teachers. A considerable number of the participants were found to be mid to high-anxious regarding their level of proficiency in the target language.

3. 2. Do difference in non-native foreign language teachers' feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety correlate with different target languages?

The results of this study showed there were statistically significant differences in the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety between the participants of this study based on their target language. Participants whose target language was English were found to be the least anxious among all of the participants with a mean score of 2.43. Participants whose target language was French were found to be the most anxious with a mean score of 3.40. Non-native German teacher participants were also found to be experiencing significant levels of foreign language teaching anxiety with a mean score of 3.20. Table 3 represents the different target language examined in this study, and for each target language, the number of participants, the mean anxiety score, the standard deviation, number of low-anxious participants, number average-anxious participants, number of high-anxious participants.

Target language	Number of participants	Mean	Standard deviation	Low anxiety	Average anxiety	High anxiety
English	19	2.43	0.79	3	10	6
French	12	3.40	0.82	2	7	3
German	7	3.20	0.66	1	5	1

Table 3. Differences in the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety in non-native pre-service and beginning in-service teachers of English, French and German

Research on foreign language anxiety has been conducted on many different languages. A review of the results of these studies suggests that there could be a correlation between foreign language anxiety and different foreign languages. However, some studies have found that there are no differences in the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety across different languages. For example, in a study of general foreign language anxiety, Satio et al. (1999) investigated the possibility of anxiety in response to foreign or second language reading among three different groups of American learners of Spanish, Russian and Japanese. The results suggested that the levels of the reading anxiety varied by target language mainly as a result of the specific writing systems. However, no significant differences were found in the levels of general foreign language anxiety among the participants. In another study which investigated the stability of foreign language classroom anxiety across university learners of English and French in Venezuela, Rodriguez and Abreu (2003) found that foreign language anxiety was stable across the investigated languages. The results of the present study indicate that the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety correlate with the target language of the participants. Therefore, it is probable that different target languages instigate different levels of foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers.

3.3. What are the potential sources of foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers?

The interviewees mentioned multiple sources of their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety. The analysis of the data from the interviews demonstrates that while some sources of foreign language teaching anxiety might be common among all foreign language teachers, some sources appear to be unique to certain individuals.

• Apprehension about making mistakes
• Perception of own competence in the target language
• The nature of the language classroom
• Cultural and linguistic background
• Fear of negative evaluation
• Emotional attachment
• Previous learning and teaching experiences

Many of the sources identified in this study are similar to those identified by Horwitz (2001) and subsequent studies, namely the irrational analysis of one's own abilities in the target language, the spontaneity of today's language classroom, aiming for an unrealistic and idealized proficiency level, and unpleasant past experiences learning the target language. Therefore, the present study further confirms the findings of previous research regarding the possible sources of foreign language teaching anxiety.

However, this study identified further sources of foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers. For example, the present study identified the cultural background of the participants as a possible source of foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers. It was found that the participants' cultural self-concept, as well as their unwillingness to assimilate into the target language culture, seem to elevate their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety. In addition, the linguistic background of the participants, specifically the gap between the learners' native language(s) and their target language seems to also increase the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety among the participants. Finally, this study found that the level of attachment with or detachment from the target language, its people (native speakers) and culture may determine individual feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety.

Horwitz (2001) acknowledges cultural background as a major factor in the context of foreign language anxiety. She noted that foreign language anxiety may vary across different cultural groups and that it is of paramount importance to account for cultural differences in any study of language anxiety and classroom practices. This speculation has been further affirmed by results from many studies which found that there was an unequivocal link between culture and language learning anxiety. For instance, results from some research studies have shown that the difference between first language culture and

targeted language culture significantly relates to language anxiety (Jones, 2004; Woodrow, 2006; Maclnyre, Baker, Clement, & Conrod, 2001; Dwaele 2010; Spielman & Radnofsky, 2001). Most of these studies concluded that the reason is that the cultural norms of the learners are usually violated in the process of learning the target language. Other studies have approached the cultural variable in terms of subcultures, acculturation and assimilation (Yang, 2012). Based on this perspective, fear of cultural assimilation results in higher levels of language anxiety. This type of anxiety, which Rardin (cited in Young, 1991b) referred to as "existential anxiety", and which touches the core of individuals' self-identity and self-image, tends to be more salient among members of certain cultures (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1991). All in all, based on evidence from past studies into the relationship between anxiety and the cultural background of the learners, it is not surprising to find that the cultural background of the non-native language teacher-participants in this study as a determinant of their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety.

That the linguistic background of the learners shapes their foreign language acquisition experiences is far from debatable. Specifically, the gap between the native language of the learners, or any other language that they already master, and that which they are trying to acquire has been proven to determine the difficulty of the acquisition process (Walqui, 2000, Thomason, 2000). One way the linguistic background determines the experiences of foreign language learners, according to Sparks and Ganschow (1991) and Ganschow et al. (1994), is through impacting learners' individual affects when learning a foreign language, such as instigating or heightening the affect of anxiety. A study by Koba, Ogawa and Wilkinson (2000) found that one of the major causes of foreign language anxiety among the Japanese learners of English is the distance between their native language and the target language. Similarly, a cross-cultural study by Woodrow and Chapman (2005), in which they studied English language learners from different countries in Asia, Europe and South America, found that the levels of foreign language anxiety were dependent on how much different the native languages of the participants were from English. Their findings suggested that Asian learners experienced the highest levels of anxiety compared to their European and South American counterparts (Woodrow and Chapman 2005). Woodrow and Chapman (2005) concluded that the distance between most Asian languages and English is one of the reasons behind the high language anxiety levels of Asian learners. In short, learners' linguistic background has been proven to be a crucial variable in the context of foreign language anxiety; therefore, it is possible to assume that the linguistic background variable could also be a crucial factor to account for in any study of foreign language teaching anxiety. In other words, it is possible to hypothesize that some individuals may be pre-disposed to experience (heightened) feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety as a result of their linguistic background.

This study identified attachment as a potential source of foreign language teaching anxiety. Specifically, it was found that the extent to which an individual is attached to or detached from the target language has been found to be a potential determinant of the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety they experience. While this finding represents a new and a potentially crucial variable in the specific context of foreign language teaching anxiety and language anxiety research in general, it is, however, not new to the whole of (foreign) language learning context. Indeed, attachment has long been recognized as a crucial factor in the development of language abilities, both in children and adults.

Attachment theory, which was first developed by John Bowlby (1969) and Ainsworth and Bell (1970), is widely recognized as a foundation of developmental psychology. The main premise of the theory is that attachment determines how individuals, both children and adults, establish themselves psychologically in society and attempts to address how do they respond within relationships when they are hurt, separated, or when they perceived a certain threat (Waters et al., 2005). Psychologists generally recognize two principal attachment styles: secure attachment and insecure attachment, and they are both characterized by the interaction between avoidance and anxiety (Toffoli, 2016). On the one hand, secure attachment, also known as the secure base, results in low anxiety and low avoidance behavior. Insecure attachment, on the other hand, results in high anxiety and high avoidance tendencies. How does attachment relate to first and second language learning has been extensively researched across different age groups, and the theory's pertinence for behavioral attitudes in both children and adult education has also been widely tested in order to gain insights into both student and teacher behavior (Rholes & Simpson, 2006; Fleming, 2008; Geddes, 2006; Riley, 2011). A substantial number of studies have established that attachment is an important variable in the context of language learning, and that the prevalent attachment style in a given language learning context determines, to an important extent, the success or the failure of language learning (Connell, 1976; Day, 2007, Roseman, 2008; Huston, 2016; Toffoli, 2016).

Seen in light of the attachment theory, some of the responses of one of the participants in this study represent a clear evidence of an insecure attachment which might explain her heightened feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety. The anxious German non-native language teacher interviewed in

this study indicated that German has an important emotional value to her. From her responses, it appears that her attachment seems to be forged by two main relationships. First, a human relationship with her German teacher, whom she considers as the best teacher she has ever had, as well as with a "bunch of German boyfriends". These people seem to have had a profound influence on the participant's attitude toward German and seem to have come to embody what the German language means to her. The other relationship seems to be that which she developed with the target language itself over the years, as a result of spending twelve years studying the language. From her responses, it appears that the fear of making mistake in German, as well as actually making mistakes or getting corrected, seems to frustrate the participant's level of attachment she has developed with the language. This results in her becoming preoccupied, avoidant ("I WILL NEVER SAY THAT WORD AGAIN!") and fearful, all of which are features of an insecure attachment style which is characterized by high levels of anxiety reactions. Indeed, attachment has been identified as a probable cause of foreign language teaching anxiety, and the theory of attachment seems to provide a framework for underpinning the link between attachment and foreign language teaching anxiety.

3.4. Which strategies do non-native foreign language teachers employ to cope with the potentially debilitating effects of foreign language teaching anxiety?

The analysis of the respondents' answers from the interviews demonstrates that there are a number of ways that the participants use in order to cope with their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety.

• Nothing
• Over-preparation of lessons
• Avoidance
• First language use

Most of the participant said that they "do nothing" to cope with their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety despite admitting the difficulty of their feelings and how their anxiety impedes their job satisfaction. Ignoring the feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety does not merely mean that these feelings will persist, but it is also probable that these feelings might span out of control and become even worse over time; making the teaching profession a daunting and an unpleasant experience for these teachers. Similarly, while over-preparing the lessons might indeed help the teachers become more confident in using the language inside their classrooms, it is nonetheless not enough to prepare the teachers for the spontaneous nature of today's language classroom, which most of the participants identified as one of the major sources of their feelings of anxiety. Besides, teachers might not always have enough time to over-prepare all their language classrooms, risking taking away from their personal time and jeopardizing their work-life balance, which could have long-term negative consequences.

Avoidance and using of the first language are two other strategies that non-native foreign language teachers employ to cope with their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety, and which could potentially have a negative impact on the quality of instruction inside the foreign language classroom. The participants described how they tend to avoid language intensive classroom activities and other communicative language teaching classroom approaches, which they consider as linguistically demanding. Additionally, some of the participants indicated that they tend to resort to Dutch as a way for them to cope with their foreign language proficiency concerns, both inside the classroom and when speaking with other teachers of the same target language. These two strategies are unequivocally impacting the foreign language instructed learning in that they both deprive the students from valuable language learning opportunities, both in terms of exposure to quality language input and in terms of opportunity for spontaneous or "free" language output production. Ensuring exposure to extensive foreign language input and opportunities for output production have largely been proven to be essential and ultimate means for successful instructed language learning (Krashen, 1981; Swain, 1985, Ellis, 2005).

4. Implications

The findings of the present study add to the body of evidence that foreign language teaching anxiety is prevalent in non-native foreign language teachers. And given the evidence of the possible negative effects of this phenomenon on the quality of classroom instruction and on the well-being of non-native foreign language teachers, it is clear that the phenomenon must be recognized and addressed.

Non-native foreign language teachers must be aware of the construct of foreign language teaching as an affective factor. As has been proven by this study, if not dealt with, foreign language teaching anxiety could have a long-term negative impact on both teaching and learning. They should be ready to acknowledge any feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety they might be experiencing and should be willing to seek support. However, as was discussed earlier in this paper, anxiety is a sensitive issue and many individuals might find it difficult to talk about it. This is especially the case for in-service foreign language teachers, who might see it as a loss of face. Therefore, teacher training programmes should also recognize the phenomenon of foreign language teaching anxiety and should ensure that they sensitize their student-teachers to the potential ways it could impact them. This could be done by simply incorporating discussions on why non-native foreign language teachers are susceptible to the phenomenon and what coping mechanisms are there to help them deal with it. As was discussed above, Horwitz (1996) presented a number of strategies which could be used to help anxious foreign language teachers to cope with their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety. Teacher training programmes should familiarise themselves with these strategies and incorporate them as guidelines in helping their anxious non-native student-teachers address their anxiety.

5. Conclusion

This study has added to foreign language anxiety research by investigating the phenomenon in the context of non-native foreign language teachers in the Netherlands. The findings of this study provided further evidence that foreign language teaching anxiety is prevalent among non-native foreign language teachers. It was found that there are multiple sources of foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native language teachers, including some of which are new or have barely been considered in the context of foreign language anxiety, such as the emotional attachment to the target language as well as the cultural and the linguistic backgrounds. These two sources invite further useful exploration as they have the potential to provide new and valuable insights into the construct of foreign language teaching anxiety and language anxiety in general. The study has also found that the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers might be dependent on their target language. This finding could also be further explored, as it seems to confirm past speculation that certain languages instigate more anxiety than others. Finally, this study found that non-native foreign language teachers employ different mechanisms in order to help them cope with their feelings of foreign language teaching anxiety, and it has been speculated that most of these mechanisms might have a negative impact on the quality of instruction inside the language classroom.

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Relevance of "English for Specific Purpose" to Vocational Technical Education in Nigeria: Challenges and Way Forward

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Abstract

This paper defines the 'English for Specific Purpose' (ESP) approach to Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) teaching/learning from the concept of learners' needs and wants. ESP is a broad area of language learning with distinct participants across an increasingly diverse range of academics and occupational categories. Despite ESP being an ambiguous term, not easily fixed to a single classification or domain across its wide range of branches, this study was mainly conducted to investigate the relevance of ESP to Technical Education in Universities in South-South Zone in Nigeria. The research, therefore, asked the following basic research questions: Is ESP relevant to TVET trainers? What are the rationales for English courses to be omitted from TE curriculum? What measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees? To find out the answers to these research questions, all the 148 TVET teachers in the zone were used for the study. Questionnaire was employed to gather data from the population. Finally, the following were found out: it is very essential to review the existing outcome based curriculum in relation to relevance of English Language which is important during and after training. Besides, creating awareness of implementers on any paradigm shift especially of training curriculum is paramount necessary in the way that all can understand the merits and demerits of ongoing program. This will help bring solution for gap created. Likewise, as the recent Technical Education program entails global competency of the training standards as well as the intelligibility of respective trained manpower through this program, the introduction of ESP becomes an unquestionable agendum.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

Education is a process of human enlightenment and empowerment, for the achievement of better and higher quality life of a nation. The process of education is shaped and moulded by the teacher, who plays a pivotal role in any educational system. The term Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) has been defined differently by many authors. Orr (2008), Evan (2014) and Norton (2004) stated that TVET is "skill-based programme designed for sub-professional level education and based on a specific vocation. Also TVET according to Belcher (2006) and Fan (2014) is an educational training which encompasses knowledge, skills, competencies, structural activities, abilities, capacities and all other structural experiences for securing jobs in various sector of the economy or even enabling one to be self-dependent by being a job creator.

The Federal Republic of Nigeria (2013) through the National Policy on Education (NPE) defined TVET as those aspects of educational processes involving in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisitions of the economy and social life. The policy further stated that TVET is an integral part of general education and also a means of preparing people for occupational fields and for effective participation in the world of work. It is an aspect of life learning and a preparation for responsible citizenship; an instrument for promoting environmentally sound suitable development and a method of alleviating poverty.

It is believed that enabling trainees to be competent in English in their training place and later in the work place can be done, better, in various ways (Jasso-Aguilar, 2005). According to Belcher (2006) the vocational English as a second language is one of the ways as it involves language education with instruction in job specific skills and as it enables trainees to emphasize clerical duties such as ordering supplies, taking telephone messages, etc in occupational contexts. In other words, English skills based on need in cooperation with a program of vocational training promote the specific field itself. Dudley-Evans and John (2001) elaborate that English for occupational purposes (EOP) played an important role in this era or the massive expansion of business had led to a huge growth in the area of English for business purpose. Accordingly, the English used for academic purposes need to be specified in the light of the need of each field of training be it law, business, health, etc.

2. Statement of the Problem

In the current TVET where the trainees are expected to be skilful and knowledgeable as well as effective communicators in their specific fields of study, English Language seems to be given little emphasis contrary to what is expected to be achieved by the trainees. The observation and experience of the researchers also reveals that there exists a wide range of communication incompetence with the trainees and failure in the current assessment of summative occupational competence and continuous occupational assessment where English is a medium of instruction and assessment. Currently, English is not offered in Universities at all levels of TVET. But, TVET students seeking admission in tertiary institutions are required to succeed in entrance examination prepared by Joint Admission and Matriculation Board to enrol the trainees as their student. One of the compulsory entrance exams is English. Therefore, this research investigates whether English for Especial Purpose is relevance to TVET trainees or not.

3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relevance of English for Specific Purpose to Technical Education and to point out considerations to be made to design appropriate English course materials for TVET programmes.

4. Research Questions

1) Is ESP relevant for TVET trainers?
2) What are the challenges to the invigoration of English courses in TVET institutions?
3) What measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees?

5. Significance of the study

It is believed that the successful accomplishment of the study will assist decisions to be made by various stakeholders of the program such as curriculum designers, technical education institutions' trainers, business organizations and so on. It may also serve as a stepping stone for further investigations.

6. Methodology

The study was conducted in Universities in the South-South zone in Nigeria. The choice of this area was to contribute to the improvement of technical teacher education and the production of competent graduates. The study adopted a survey research design. Nworgu (2006) noted that it is a design approach which aims at collecting data and describing them in a systematic manner, the characteristics features or facts about a given population. This design is used as a means of effecting clearly and properly understanding of the research findings, since it sought to ascertain the relevance of English for Specific Purpose to TVET.

The population of the study comprised all the 148 technical education lecturers consisting 87 males and 61 females of the department of Vocational Education drawn from six universities in South-South zone, Nigeria. Purposive sampling technique was used for the study. The researchers adopted purposive sampling technique since the sample seize was manageable. All the 148 TVET lecturers in the study area were used for the study.

The instrument for data collection was a structured questionnaire titled "Relevance of English for Specific Purpose to Technical Education (RESPTED) Questionnaire. The instrument was face validated by giving the draft copies of the instrument to three experts in TVET in the Faculty of Education, Enugu State University of Science and Technology, Enugu. Corrections and possible suggestions were offered by the experts after adequate scrutiny of each item. This was to ensure that the instrument measured the intended attributes. In order to ensure the reliability of the instrument, the researchers administered questionnaire to 30 respondents who were not part of the study but possess the same qualities of those used for the study. Cronbach Alpha technique was used for data analysis which yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.83. This shows the instrument was reliable for the study.

The researchers administered the instrument directly to the respondents in the Universities with the help of two assistants for each of the Universities who were instructed on what is required. The entire instrument was collected immediately after completion which recorded 100% return rate. The questionnaire contained fifteen (15) items and adopted a four (4) point scoring scale of Strongly Agreed (SA), Agreed (A), Disagreed (D) and Strongly Disagreed (SD). Mean, standard deviation and independent t-test were used in analyzing the data collected for the study and respondents with the highest mean were considered as agreed.

7. Data Analysis and Discussion of Findings

7.1 Research Question 1: Is ESP relevant for TVET trainers?

S/N	Relevant of ESP for TVET trainers	Male		Female		DEC.
		$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	
1.	Do you think that English language program is necessary in TVET program?	3.49	0.84	3.16	0.71	Agreed
2.	Do you think your previous English courses are sufficient for your training success in the current TVET?	3.42	0.89	3.09	0.86	Agreed
3.	Do you think English language instruction is useful in your career?	3.14	0.77	3.42	0.81	Agreed
4.	Does your level of English language proficiency affect your competency in training?	3.52	0.82	3.33	0.74	Agreed
5.	Have you encountered communication barrier between you and your trainees due to English a medium of training?	3.36	0.73	3.18	0.69	Agreed
	Cluster mean	**3.39**	**0.81**	**3.24**	**0.76**	**Agreed**

Table 1: Relevant of ESP for TVET trainers

The data presented in Table 1 revealed that all the items have mean score of 3.09 and above with cluster mean of 3.39 for males and 3.24 for females respondents on a four-point rating scale which indicate that the respondents agreed that ESP is relevant to TVET. This means that respondents agreed that ESP is relevant to TVET.

7.2 Research question 2: What are the challenges to the invigoration of English courses in TVET institutions?

S/N	Challenges to the invigoration of English courses in TVET institutions.	Male		Female		DEC.
		$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	
1.	Poor provision of infrastructural facilities such as library, classroom blocks, workshops, laboratories and recreational facilities.	3.48	0.92	3.38	0.77	Agreed
2.	Poor provision of qualified TVET lecturers.	3.19	0.80	3.42	0.92	Agreed
3.	Poor teaching methods employed by TVET lecturers and instructors.	3.11	0.87	3.33	0.69	Agreed
4.	Poor funding of the TVET programme.	3.26	0.85	3.05	0.82	Agreed
5.	Lack of interest to attend training workshops and seminar that will update their skills and knowledge	3.20	0.67	3.10	0.85	Agreed
	Cluster mean	**3.25**	**0.84**	**3.36**	**0.81**	**Agreed**

Table 2: Challenges to the invigoration of English courses in TVET institutions.

The data presented in Table 2 revealed that all the items have mean score of 3.05 and above with cluster mean of 3.25 for males and 3.36 for females respondents on a four-point rating scale which indicate that the respondents agreed that all the items are challenges to the invigoration of English courses in TVET institutions. This means that respondents agreed that all the items are challenges to the invigoration of English courses in TVET institutions.

7.3 Research Question 3: What measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees?

S/N	Measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees.	Male		Female		DEC.
		$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	
1.	Improved funding of TVET programmes	3.20	0.85	3.09	0.83	Agreed
2.	Employment of qualified TVET lecturers in TVET department	3.08	0.89	3.22	0.81	Agreed
3.	Adequate provision of facilities and equipment for the implementation of TVET curriculum	3.30	0.88	3.45	0.76	Agreed
4.	Retraining of TVET lecturers to update their knowledge and skills	3.49	0.72	3.33	1.20	Agreed
5.	Adequate supervision of TVET programmes	3.42	1.02	3.38	0.89	Agreed
	Cluster mean	**3.30**	**0.87**	**3.29**	**0.90**	**Agreed**

Table 3: measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees.

The data presented in Table 3 revealed that all the items have mean score of 3.08 and above with cluster mean of 3.36 for males and 3.25 for females respondents on a four-point rating scale which indicate that the respondents agreed that all the items are measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees. This means that respondents agreed that all the items are measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees.

8. Discussion of research findings

The result in research question 1, 2 and 3 revealed that all the respondents agreed that ESP is relevant to TVET, the outlined items are challenges to TVET and all the items are measures are to be taken to prepare ESP for TVET trainees. This means that respondents agreed that ESP is relevant to TVET. This finding is supported by the conclusion of various researchers who established a positive correlation between ESP and TVET programmes (Fan, 2014) and (Evans, 2014). Also, Kozok (2015) assert that it has become well recognized that a favorable learning environment, better education and relevant schools materials motivate academic excellence.

9. Conclusion

Mastery of language of instruction plays a pivotal role in learners' academic achievement. In our country Nigeria English is a medium of instruction in secondary and tertiary levels of education. The same holds true for TVET underway in our country. English, in reality, is the language of technology and is an access to contemporary global technological advancement. Therefore, neglecting English language competency in TVET which is the bridging tool to industrialization of economy seems missing another important and relevant tool. The data presented and discussed in this paper clearly implied that Since the TVET trainees are expected to upgrade their professional career either in the same professional areas or in other academic institutions where English is purely a language of instruction, working, and communication those with TVET background would fail effectively to catch up with their academic achievements in the tertiary study.

10. Recommendations

According to the finding, it is essential to review the existing outcome based curriculum in relation to relevance of English Language which is important during and after training. Creating awareness of implementers on any paradigm shift especially of training curriculum is paramount necessary in the way that all can understand the merits and demerits of ongoing program. This helps bring solution for gap created.

TVET program entails global competency of the training standards as well as the intelligibility of respective trained manpower through this programme, the introduction of ESP (English for Specific Purpose) becomes an unquestionable agendum.The vocational and Technical education curriculum in the schools should be appropriately enriched to accommodate subjects like Technical Communication and Consumer Education.

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How Self-Confrontation Interviews Can Affect the Valence of Emotions: The Case of Novice EFL Teachers

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Abstract

The impact of emotions on the construction of the professional identity of language teachers is a recent focus of research (Zembylas, 2003; Sutton & Wheatly, 2003; Saric, 2015). Indeed, teachers' emotions have long been seen as a nuisance and they are not sufficiently considered in professional training which mainly concentrates on linguistic and didactic proficiency. However, pre-service teachers stress the emotional aspects of their work without really being heard by the institution (Lemarchand-Chauvin & Tardieu, 2018). How do they deal with anger, sadness, fear or joy in a professional context that they are discovering? What emotions do they really experience and what triggers them? Can novices be helped in order to benefit from their emotions in class instead of undergoing them?

After defining a theoretical framework (Plutchik, 1980; Cosnier, 1994; Rimé, 2005; Belzung, 2007; Jonczyk, 2016) about emotions, this paper will present research conducted with 12 novice EFL teachers who volunteered to keep a logbook for 3 years, to follow experimental training dealing with emotions (Guimbretière, 2014; Cadet & Tellier, 2014; Tellier, 2014; Jourdan, 2014; Duvillard, 2016) and to be filmed in class. Self-confrontation interviews (Clot, 2008) were conducted to have the novices talk about their emotions on the videos.

The analysis of the logbooks reveal that novice teachers experience more emotions with a negative valence (60%) than with a positive one (40%) and that they go through primary emotions that are polar opposites (ie: anger, joy, sadness). Moreover, these emotions are centered on their own achievements rather than on their students'. The analysis also shows that participating in the experimental training helped them reduce the intensity of their emotions. But the most striking result concerns self-confrontation interviews. Their analysis reveals that reflexivity (Schön, 1983; Perrenoud, 2001; Vacher, 2011) made all of them change the valence of their initial emotions at least once during the interviews. This led them to conclude that negative emotions can have a positive outcome and that in some cases, positive emotions can turn into negative ones.

This study is part of my PhD dissertation and has been conducted for two years with two cohorts of novice teachers. Another cohort will go through the same protocol next year. More analyses are still to come to validate the current results.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

The impact of emotions on the construction of the professional identity of language teachers is a recent focus of research (Zembylas, 2003; Sutton & Wheatly, 2003; Saric, 2015). The word emotion has the same etymology as motion from the Latin movere: to move. Therefore, an emotion is by definition unstable and capable to move or shake people. This may explain why teachers' emotions have long been seen as a nuisance, as it is contrary to the self-control and mastery expected from teachers in class. However, pre-service teachers stress the emotional aspects of their work and consider that their emotions are not sufficiently considered in their professional training which mainly concentrates on linguistic and didactic proficiency (Lemarchand-Chauvin & Tardieu, 2018).

Emotions have been the subject of philosophers since Aristotle's *Rhetorics*, Descartes' description of passions, not to mention the James/Lange vs Canon-Bard controversy. And yet, no consensus has been reached so far to define what emotions are. Contemporary advances in scientific research have linked emotions and cognition (Damasio, 1994, 1999, 2003; Goleman, 1995) and have thus led to consider that emotional development should be part of language teachers' initial training as they need to learn how to deal with their emotions and those of their students on a daily basis.

This article aims to present research led carried out in collaboration with 12 novice EFL teachers (pre-service and Year 1 in-service teachers). The protocol includes three types of data: a questionnaire sent daily to 33 pre-service teachers and to 6 Year 1 in-service teachers, logbooks data from 12 novices and self-confrontation interview recordings. The data analysis intends to find out which emotions novices experience at work, and to measure the possible impact that an experimental workshop and semi-directed interviews could have on their emotions.

2. Theoretical Framework

Three theories are particularly relevant for this study. This research is anchored in Cosnier's definition of emotions and affects (1994), in Plutchik's multi-dimensional approach (1980; 1991) and in Belzung's notion of valences of emotions (2007).

The aim of this part is not to define what an emotion is, as there is still no scientific consensus on a definition (Kleinginna & Klienginna, 1981). Contemporary society's interest in emotions and the fashionable use of the term by the media have created a confusion around this concept. It is now a genuine "catch-all term" (Cosnier, *ibid*.:10). Some researchers, including Cosnier, have chosen to limit the use of the word "emotion" to primary and mixed emotions. Cosnier uses "affects" (*ibid*: 14) to define daily emotional episodes. In this study, "emotion" will be used with a catch-all meaning, as its popularity conveys a representation easily understandable for all the participants.

Psycho-evolutionary theories describe emotions as universal and limited in number (cf. table 1) in the context of their adaptive function (Belzung, *ibid*. :112), and more precisely in Plutchik's theory of emotions (1980; 1991).

Researchers	**Primary emotions**
Izard	Interest, Joy, Surprise, Sadness, Anger, Disgust, Contempt, Self-Hostility, Fear, Shame, Shyness, Guilt
Plutchik	Acceptance, Anger, Anticipation, Disgust, Joy, Fear, Sadness, Surprise
Ekman	Anger, Fear, Sadness, Joy, Disgust, Surprise

Table 1. Primary emotions described by Izard (1977), Plutchik (1980) and Ekman (1992)

Plutchik's psycho-evolutionary theory defines eight primary emotions - that can be represented in the shape of a three multi-dimensional cone reproduced in figure 1 – from which all other emotions are derived. These eight basic emotions vary in dimension, that is in polarity (ie: joy vs sadness), in degree of intensity (ie: surprise goes from amazement to distraction) and in similarity (ie: joy is set between

anticipation and acceptance). Plutchik's model also insists on the notions of persistence and purity, as non-primary emotions are rarely pure but the results of combinations.

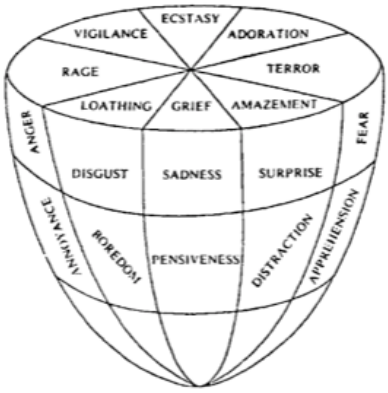

Figure 1. Plutchik's multi-dimensional model of emotions (1991: 111)

Belzung (207) underlines the positive and negative valence of emotions, which is relevant for our study in which novice teachers report about their practice.

3. Methodological framework

This experiment followed several steps. First, a logbook-like survey was sent daily for nine days to 33 pre-service EFL teachers and to 6 Year 1 in-service teachers. They were asked to select the emotions they felt among a list of six chosen from Izard's (1977), Plutchik's (1980, 1991) and Ekman's (1992) shared primary emotions: joy, sadness, shame, anger, guilt, fear and surprise. They were allowed to add emotions that were not on the list so as not to create a bias (Jonczyk, 2016).

Second, a group of 12 EFL novices – made up of 9 pre-service and 3 Year 1 in-service teachers out of the 39 respondents to the survey – volunteered to keep a logbook on a daily basis. They were provided with Plutchik's wheel of emotions (1991) and were asked to write about their emotions at work. These first two steps aimed to produce an inventory of novices' emotions at work.

Finally, a two-day workshop based on body and voice activities and the expression of emotions (Guimbretière, 2014; Cadet & Tellier, 2014; Tellier, 2014; Jourdan, 2014; Duvillard, 2016) was organized. The participants were trained to use body and voice as professional tools and means to convey emotions in class. Then, they were filmed in class and self-confrontation interviews (Clot, 2008) were conducted to give the novices the chance to name and describe their emotions both in class and while watching the videos, to describe their professional gestures, and to explain how they would handle the situation if they could do it again. According to Clot (2008), self-confrontation interviews help rebuild the meaning of lived experience. The aim of these experiments was to measure their impact on the novices' emotions and on the construction of their professional identity both in their writings and during the interviews.

The data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively using Tropes, a semantic analysis software developed by the French university of Aix-en-Provence.

4. Analysis of the results and discussion (questionnaire N = 349 answers, Logbooks N= 40176 words, Self-confrontation interviews N = 18)

4.1 The emotions novices experience at work

The results of the questionnaires pointed out that the respondents experience more emotions with a negative valence (62% of the pre-service teachers and 58% of the Year 1 in-service teachers) than emotions with a positive valence (38% and 42% respectively).

In both the questionnaires and the logbooks, the positive emotions they mention most frequently are joy, surprise and satisfaction. They are usually felt when novices consider that they gave a good class or when they experienced intersubjectivity with their students.

Pre-service teachers			Year 1 in-service teachers		
	/ 260 answers	/ 100%		/ 38 answers	/100%
Joy	195	75%	**Joy**	26	68%
Surprise	37	14%	**Surprise**	7	18%
Satisfaction	10	4%	**Satisfaction**	5	13%

Table 2. Top 3 positive valence emotions

The most mentioned emotions with negative valence are anger, fear, sadness and guilt, in a different order according to the length of experience of the novices. Anger remains by far the most cited emotion and it is usually caused by students' bad behavior in class and violation of rules. Fear, sadness and guilt are linked to moments when novices doubt their abilities to teach effectively and when they consider that they gave a "bad class".

Pre-service teachers			Year 1 in-service teachers		
	/ 419 answers	/ 100%		/ 53 answers	/100%
Anger	133	**32%**	**Anger**	17	**32%**
Fear	60	14%	Guilt	6	11%
Sadness	52	12%	**Sadness**	6	11%
Guilt	50	12%	Fear	5	9%

Table 3. Top 4 negative valence emotions

It is interesting to note that, before the experimental workshop, the most cited emotions both in the questionnaires and the logbooks are primary ones, which can explain why novice teachers complain about the difficulty and the suffering felt during the period of their initial training (Lemarchand-Chauvin, 2016). Another noteworthy point is that the different emotions the novices go through are centered on their own achievements rather than on their students', which is not the case with experienced teachers.

4.2 The impacts of the body and voice workshop on the novices' emotions

A two-day workshop based on body and voice activities was carried out so as to measure its impact on the emotions of the participants through the analysis of their logbooks and self-confrontation interviews to class video recordings.

The analysis of the logbooks in the weeks following the experimental workshop reveals positive aspects. Several findings can be highlighted. First of all, the novices seem to manage their emotions better and they trust themselves to act on them when they consider it necessary. That is the case of Elise who does not feel enthusiasm in class but realizes that it is important to show some degree of this emotion to her students. The novices' professional gestures have improved because they are now aware of the importance of body and voice as professional tools, as a means of conveying emotions. The participants do not describe their emotions as a burden any longer, as they are managed, chosen, and even acted out in the service of their classes. If joy and anger are still mentioned, emotions with a less intense tend to replace them, which can be considered to be a sign of emotional appeasement. Another interesting impact is the development of the novices' reflectivity (Schön, 1983,1987) when writing in their logbooks retrospectively. Charlotte and Elise are aware of this new asset and have started analyzing their practice to make plans to progress.

Victor	« Before the workshop I kept on shouting in class. I don't shout that much now, that's great » « I feel less anger in class. It's more annoyance or irritation than anger now »	Victor can now be firm in class without shouting. Emotions with a lower degree of intensity - irritation and annoyance - have replaced anger.
Sofia	«I feel more and more confident in my role. »	Sofia has understood that she has a « role » to play.
Marie	« I only shouted once today, and that's really nothing compared to what I used to do. Now I raise my voice as we did during the workshop. I also use a deep voice and I think works well, so I'm glad»	Professional gestures are gradually implemented. She uses her voice as a tool and feels less anger.
Charlotte	« I have a feeling of confidence and serenity when I think about the way that still lays ahead » « The workshop allowed me to sit back and reflect upon this profession "to survive emotionally" but also to improve in its practice»	She has adopted a reflective approach.
Elise	« I've understood that I'm too strict. I need to smile more and to show more enthusiasm in class» « I usually don't like being filmed, but it helped me. » « I've bought an I-pad to film myself in class just as we did. I want to see by myself how I evolve». « The workshop helped me deal with my stress. I can calm down more easily in class. It helps me calm the students' too, especially after break. »	Elise has understood the benefits of reflectivity. She can manage her emotions better and turn them into a tool.

Table 4. Analysis of the impact of the workshop and of class video recordings on the novices' emotions

The self-confrontation interviews led to the same conclusions, but they also highlighted an interesting point, which is the change of valence of the emotions initially felt.

4.3 The effect of reflectivity on the valence of emotions and on the novices' construction of professional identity

The analyses of the self-confrontation interviews reveal that adopting a reflexive posture (Schön, 1983, 1987; Perrenoud, 2001; Vacher, 2011) enabled the novices to shift the valence of their initial emotions at least once during the session. Indeed, describing the activity and their professional gesture can help them deduce whether these gestures were appropriate or not and find solutions. It can also contribute to change their view of a situation, like Sebastian who realized that giving his students time was important and that hurrying was counterproductive.

Moreover, having them describe the emotions that they felt at that specific moment led several of them to recognize that there was a discrepancy between the emotion and its expression on the video. That is the case of Thomas who thought that he had shown surprise and joy to his student while his face had remained unmoved.

Novices	Initial emotion(s) in class	Reasons	Emotion(s) after watching the video	Reasons
Victor	Annoyance & irritation Anger	"The students were not listening, and they were chatting" "My anger made me switch from English to French"	Interest & satisfaction Interest	"It allows to look back and find solution to progress" "I find it interesting and I'd like to understand why I expressed anger in French"
Thomas	Surprise and joy	"A student gave a non-expected answer"	Disappointment	"I didn't externalize my emotions when I should have to encourage this student. I thought I had. I'm disappointed"
Sebastian	Irritation	"The activity took too much time"	Satisfaction	"In retrospect I realize that it is important to give time to the students"
Nathalie	Surprise (positive valence)	"I asked him to explain what "a lie" was and he said "Miss you are ugly"	Disappointment & remorse	"I ignored him. I feel ill-at-ease with my reaction, I should have thanked him."
Charlotte	Frustration	"The students were not listening, they did not know what to do"	Satisfaction & hope	"In retrospect, I understand that I had not prepared the activity well enough, it was not their fault. It gives me hope."

Table 5. Analysis of the effect of reflectivity on the valence of emotions and on the novices' construction of professional identity

The self-confrontation interviews led them to conclude that emotions with a negative valence can have a positive outcome once analyzed. Leading novices towards reflectivity by asking them to describe the chosen situation and their professional gesture can help them understand the nature of their errors. Once they have spotted their errors, they feel satisfaction and are more optimistic about the future. They can project themselves into a virtuous dynamic of progress. Victor has not found an answer to his code-switching yet but his curiosity is aroused and his reflection launched.
Conversely, emotions with a positive valence can have a negative outcome after analysis. That was the case for Thomas and Nathalie who both experienced positive surprises. Neither of them managed to deal with an unexpected pleasant situation and to externalize the right emotions in due time. In retrospect, they were both disappointed by their reaction. Further reflection should lead them to turn this negative emotion into a positive one as it helped them understand how they should react in the future.

5. Conclusion

These experiments lead to conclude that novice teachers' emotions should be considered during their initial training as they can be an asset for their progression. Beginners can learn to manage them, to externalize them or to act them out thanks to body and voice workshops or art-based activities. But the only way to learn to draw positive out of negative-valence emotions is to help novices become "reflective practioners" (Schön, 1983; 1987). The use of logbooks can be the first step. Self-confrontation interviews allow then to go further as they turn class activity into a subject of research. They help deconstruct and reconstruct the meaning of the activity and to become aware of it.

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Belgian CLIL Teachers' Professional Identity: The Role of Self-Efficacy

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Abstract

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a generic term referring to a teaching approach whereby content is taught through a second or foreign language. For Belgian teachers entering the CLIL classroom, this dual-focused approach is a challenge, since they are either trained as content or language experts. This demands a professional (re)orientation which current teacher training programs in Belgium do not yet offer. How CLIL teachers interpret this multiple role and how they deal with it in practice, constitutes their professional identity. Research has shown that teachers' perceptions of their own professional identity strongly affect their sense of self-efficacy and professional development (Beijaard et al. 2004, Lamote & Engels 2010). Self-efficacy is regarded as a powerful construct related to teachers' motivation and behavior in the classroom as well as contributing to important student outcomes (Tschannen-Moran et al. 1998). The aim of the present study is to contribute to understanding how CLIL-teachers perceive their professional experience in terms of self-efficacy, how they see their (multiple) roles and how they think they deal with it in practice.

CLIL teachers' efficacy beliefs were measured using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short version) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2001). This multiple item scale assesses three dimensions of the underlying construct: sense of efficacy for instructional strategies, sense of efficacy for stimulating pupils' involvement and sense of efficacy for classroom management. For the assessment of teachers' sense of efficacy about CLIL instructional strategies, a 17-item survey was composed based on the European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education (Marsh et al. 2010) and an observation tool for effective L2 pedagogy in CLIL (de Graaff et al. 2007). The participants were Belgian secondary school CLIL-teachers (N=80).

The results show that CLIL teachers attribute themselves moderately low scores for self-efficacy with regard to the general aspects of teaching, as opposed to moderately high scores for teachers' efficacy with regard to specific aspects of CLIL teaching. As a positive linear correlation was found with the level of collegiality in the school context, it is suggested that opportunities for raising self-efficacy beliefs lie in helping school teams to function as professional collegial communities, working together in an atmosphere of joint responsibility (Andrews & Lewis 2002).

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

Research has shown that teachers' beliefs such as self-efficacy largely predict teaching practices as well as student learning (Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2007). Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001: 783) define a teacher's self-efficacy as "a judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated". As such, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs have proven to contribute to a powerful construct, related to several educational outcomes such as teachers' motivation (persistence, commitment, enthusiasm) and instructional behavior in the classroom (Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2007). Teachers with high levels of self-efficacy would work longer with students with special needs, would recognize student errors more easily and would attempt new teaching methods that support students more quickly as they would be more willing to adopt instructional innovation (Guskey 1988, Guskey& Passaro 1994, Muijs & Reynolds 2002). In addition, a high level of self-efficacy is said to contribute to important student outcomes such as achievement, motivation and their own sense of efficacy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2007). Self-efficacy is also believed to be related to the pedagogic goals teachers set themselves or their task orientation (Lamote & Engels 2010). Task orientation refers to teachers' answers to the questions: 'What do I want to achieve with my pupils and how do I want to do this?' Like self-efficacy beliefs, task orientation beliefs are influenced by the prevailing knowledge and beliefs about the goals and teaching methods at a certain time.

Bandura (1977, 2006) refers to self-efficacy as a multidimensional construct which is highly context-specific. In the same vain, Bong (2006) further specified that self-efficacy beliefs may not only be context-specific in general, but rather even skill specific, task specific, or domain specific. Efficacy beliefs may vary within teachers depending upon the subject area, student characteristics, the amount of work they face, and whether they are teaching in- or outside the field of expertise (Ross et al. 1999, Tournaki & Podell 2005, Tschannen-Moran & Johnson 2011).

CLIL is a specific teaching context whereby content is taught through a foreign language. For Belgian CLIL teachers, however, the integration of content and language learning is believed to cause an important change in their mindset, since they are either trained as content or language experts. But, both content and language teaching each are linked to their own skill, task or domain specificity. Research has shown that content teachers, who are not familiar with second language acquisition theories, predominantly focus on subject matter, whereas language teachers might overemphasize the linguistic form (Coyle 2007, Cammarata & Tedick 2012, Pavon & Ellison 2013). The aim of the present paper is to contribute to understanding how CLIL-teachers perceive their professional identity in terms of self-efficacy, how they see their (multiple) roles and how they think they deal with it in practice. While "the study of teacher cognition has established itself on the research agenda in the field of language teaching and provided valuable insight into the mental lives of language teachers" (Borg 2003: 81), research into teachers' attitudes and beliefs in CLIL is still rather scarce but is getting increasingly more attention (Cammarata & Tedick 2012, Pavon & Ellison 2013, Moate 2013, Pavon 2014, De Mesmaeker & Lochtman 2014, Pérez 2016). This study is (one of) the first to examine CLIL teacher beliefs and attitudes in the Belgian context.

2. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a generic or an umbrella term referring to a pedagogical approach whereby content is taught through a second or foreign language. As in most European countries (Pérez 2016), in Belgium teachers are trained to teach just one subject, i.e. either a content subject or a language. With no formal training on integrating content and language teaching, teachers' beliefs about self-efficacy become a crucial factor in guiding their pedagogical classroom practices (Tan 2011).

Providing a pedagogical basis for CLIL, Coyle (2002, 2007) developed the 4C's conceptual framework, in which she explains the interrelationship between the 4 components of CLIL teaching: content (subject knowledge), communication (language knowledge), culture and cognition. According to Coyle (2007), however, a cohesive view of CLIL pedagogies is still lacking (see also Pérez 2016). Two general observations can be made about CLIL in Europe. On the one hand CLIL pedagogies have been highly influenced by foreign language learning theories in favor of language teaching perspectives. On the other hand, transmission-oriented approaches have encouraged teachers to focus primarily on content delivery (see also Pérez 2016). In the same vain, Lyster (2007: 1) concludes that traditional

teaching methods often “tend to separate language development from general cognitive development”, ignoring the relationship between medium and content, and therefore between language learning and content learning.

Although the European Framework for the professional development of CLIL teachers (Marsh et al. 2010) is a first attempt to formulate the professional competences of a CLIL teacher, this document still states that the integrative nature of CLIL is highlighted as a major challenge in the development and implementation of a teacher education curriculum. Applying CLIL the way it is conceptualized in theory, suggests significant changes in the scope of teachers’ responsibilities in practice (Moate 2013). Teachers undertaking CLIL would need to develop multiple types of expertise: among others, in the content subject, in the target language, with regard to best practices in teaching and learning and in the integration of the previous three (De Mesmaeker & Lochtman 2014). But, ready-made CLIL materials still are in short supply (Mehisto et al. 2008, Pérez 2016). Teachers would therefore often spend considerable time developing their own course material and/or adapting existing learning materials. Moreover, changing the language of instruction would place increased organizational and cognitive demands on CLIL teachers, as much as on their students (Mehisto 2008, Banegas 2012), one of the problems being that CLIL teachers often do not feel very confident in the foreign language themselves (Pavon & Ellison 2013, Pavon 2014). The integration of content and language teaching would not be “self-evident” and it seems to require considerable training for both teachers and pupils (Gajo 2007: 578, Banegas 2012).

Collaboration among content and language teachers has (therefore) been found of utmost important for successful CLIL pedagogy (Moate 2012, Pavon & Ellison 2013, Pavon 2014, Pérez 2016). Research has also shown that developing the ability of school personnel to function as professional collegial and collaborating communities may result in substantive school improvement and success in general (see also Goddard et al. 2007, DuFour 2004, Little et al. 2003). Strengthening interpersonal relations among teaching personnel of different subjects is thought to influence a school’s professional culture and lead to teachers increasing their involvement and ownership (Andrews & Lewis 2002). Furthermore, collegiality is said to play a significant role in fostering innovative practices (Hopkins et al. 1998).

3. The study

3.1 Research questions:

The present study wanted to answer the following research questions:

RQ1 How do CLIL-teachers perceive their professional identity in terms of self-efficacy?
RQ2 How do CLIL-teachers see their (multiple) roles as content and language teachers?
RQ3 How do CLIL-teachers perceive their teaching goals resp. task orientation?
RQ4 What is the role of collegiality with regard to CLIL-teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs.

3.2 Participants

The participants are Belgian secondary school CLIL-teachers (N=80) from 45 schools in Flanders (5), Brussels (9), and Wallonia (31). The distribution of male and female respondents was 38,8% and 61,3%, respectively. The average age was 39 (SD = 9.3), the average amount of experience in secondary education was 9 years (SD = 7.9) and the average amount of experience in CLIL education was 4.5 years (SD = 3.2). For 60% of the respondents the CLIL target language is their mother tongue.

3.3 Research tool

The participants completed an online survey on professional identity, of which self-efficacy formed a crucial part. The questionnaire can be split up in two larger sections. In the first section respondents were asked for information on a number of independent (background) variables: age, gender, mother tongue, language knowledge, academic background, teaching experience in secondary education and more specifically in CLIL education and school contextual variables such as CLIL target language, CLIL subjects, teaching materials being used, professionalization and training, professional support and collegial interaction. The second section consisted of five-point Likert scales. The scales measuring two

dimensions of professional identity – self-efficacy and task orientation – are described below (see also De Mesmaeker & Lochtman 2014).

3.4 Self-efficacy scales

CLIL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were measured by two types of scales: one for more general aspects of teaching (not typical of CLIL) and one for teachers' self-efficacy typical of CLIL. The general self-efficacy beliefs for more general aspects of teaching were measured using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short version) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2001). This measure assesses three dimensions of the underlying construct: sense of efficacy for instructional strategies, sense of efficacy for stimulating pupils' involvement and sense of efficacy for classroom management. Each statement had to be read from this viewpoint, 'As a CLIL-teacher, to what extent do you feel able …' and had to be scored on a 5-point response scale (1 = not at all, 2 = very little, 3 = somewhat, 4 = quite a bit, 5 = a great deal. Sample item: '… to motivate students who show little interest in school work?'.

For the assessment of teachers' self-efficacy typical of CLIL pedagogical skills, a 17-item survey was composed. The aim was to cover several aspects with regard to effective CLIL pedagogy. The statements had to be read from the viewpoint: 'As a CLIL-teacher, to what extent do you feel able …'. Sample items are: '… to reach the core goals of the course by using authentic materials in the target language'; '… to use didactic strategies that push the language output of pupils in the target language'; '… to use corrective feedback to make pupils aware of their linguistic errors'; '… to use a level of language proficiency that complies with the students' level of comprehension'; '… to set assignments and tests to evaluate the pupils' progress with regard to language as well as the subject area'. Additionally, CLIL- teachers were asked about their perceived pedagogical role within the CLIL classroom on a 7-point Likert scale or continuum ranging from 1 = 'I see myself exclusively as a content teacher' to 7 = 'I see myself exclusively as a language teacher'.

3.5 Task orientation scale

To measure the goals CLIL teachers set themselves we developed items for several areas of the CLIL-approach based on the 'Views on education' scale developed by Denessen (1999) and CLIL-specific documents such as The European Framework for CLIL Teaching Education (Marsh et al. 2010) and the observation tool for effective L2 pedagogy in CLIL (de Graaff et al. 2007). These areas were: learning goals, didactic approach, feedback and evaluation, language awareness strategies. All task orientation items had to be read as statements starting by 'I believe it is my responsibility as a CLIL teacher….' Sample items in the different areas are: ' … to set clear content goals as well as language goals for each lesson' (CLIL learning goals); … to opt for learning activities that offer opportunities for language development (in terms of the four language skills: speaking, writing, reading, listening (didactic approach); … to give corrective feedback on pupils' oral language production (feedback); … to make pupils aware of the differences and similarities between languages' (language awareness strategies). Depending on a high score (strongly agree) or a low score (strongly disagree), we felt respondents could be regarded as more or less oriented towards an integrated approach of content and language learning.

3.6 Collegiality scale

Another important contextual variable that was added to the questionnaire is that of collegiality among teachers. We therefore developed a scale with 14 items, measuring the level of collegial interaction. Sample items are: 'I exchange ideas on education with colleagues', 'Sometimes I ask a colleague for help with regard to my teaching practice', 'I swap teaching materials with colleagues', 'Within our CLIL team we share responsibility for the design of our CLIL courses'.

4. Results and discussion

We start the description of the results with a report of the factor structure of each instrument. For all of the scales a (confirmatory) principal component analysis (PCA) with orthogonal rotation (varimax) was conducted. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis. The

internal consistency of the scales and subscales was verified by a test of reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and by checking the theoretical framework.

4.1 Principal component analyses

First, a PCA for the 12 items assessing teachers' sense of efficacy about the general aspects of teaching revealed a three-factor structure. By analogy with Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001), we named the first component 'sense of efficacy for instructional strategies' (3 items; α = 0.691), the second 'sense of efficacy for stimulating pupils' involvement' (4 items, α = 0.762) and the third component 'sense of efficacy for classroom management' (5 items, α = 0.837).

Based on a second PCA, teachers' sense of efficacy about CLIL instructional strategies, measured on a five-point Likert scale, was split into four components based on the Kaiser criterion. We labeled them: 'form and meaning focused processing' (6 items, α = 0.842), 'scaffolding and feedback' (5 items, α =0.810), 'selecting and adapting material' (3 items, α= 0.754) and 'stimulating input and output' (3 items, α = 0.734).

We then performed a PCA for task orientation. For the items measuring objectives of education, the PCA provided two components based on the Kaiser criterion. By analogy with the theoretical concept taken from Denessen (1999), we labeled component 1 as 'personal and social development' (6 items, α = 0.832) and component 2 as 'career development' (4 items, α = 0.844). A PCA of the items assessing the pedagogical relationship revealed a three-component structure, which we reduced to two components as only two items were related to component 3. In accordance with Denessen's research (1999), we named the first component 'discipline' (5 items, α = 0.752) and the second component 'involvement' (3 items, α = 0.731). A PCA of the items measuring the instructional emphasis showed a structure with two components, the first of which we referred to as 'process' (4 items, α = 0.758) and the second 'product' (3 items, α = 0.418). Since the internal consistency of the 'product' scale scores under the acceptable standard of α ≥ .60, we excluded it from further analysis.

Another PCA was conducted for the 16 items assessing CLIL-teachers' task orientation, which provided us with four components based on the Kaiser criterion. Since the fourth component consisted of only two items, we decided to reduce the number of factors to three. After an interim analysis of internal consistency, the three-factor structure seemed to be the best solution. We labeled them: 'language awareness strategies' (6 items, α = 0.843), 'goals and instruction' (6 items, α = 0.795), and 'stimulating input and output' (4 items, α = 0.711).

Finally, a PCA was conducted for the 14 items informing about collegiality in the school team, which provided a three-factor structure. In line with Little's model on collegiality (1990), we labeled the first component 'Sharing, aid and assistance' (5 items, α = 0.735), the second 'Joint responsibility for work' (5 items, α = 0.830) and the third 'Storytelling and scanning for ideas (4 items, α = 0.835).

4.2 Self-efficacy, collegiality and task orientation

CLIL teachers attribute themselves rather low scores on the scales measuring their sense of efficacy beliefs about the general aspects of teaching. Especially with regard to the subscale 'student engagement' (M = 2.53), indicating that one is able to keep students motivated for school work and to help them appreciate the value of learning, CLIL teachers believe to have rather little influence. Remarkably, the opposite is true for teachers' sense of efficacy about the CLIL approach, for which they attribute themselves moderately high scores on the different subscales, ranging from 3.55 to 3.76.

When asking respondents about the CLIL subjects they teach, we noticed that part of the teachers indicated that they teach both content classes and language classes within the CLIL program. By language classes we mean English, French or Dutch as a foreign language, but also conversation classes or writing and reading courses in the target language. Apart from teaching biology and chemistry, for example, some teachers indicated that they provided language-based courses. In the analysis, teachers were therefore divided into two groups on the basis of whether they only taught a content class (N = 41), or whether they also taught a language class in addition to teaching a content class (N = 21).

The results of the scale where respondents had to indicate their perceived pedagogical role within the CLIL classroom on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = 'I see myself exclusively as a content teacher' to 7 = 'I see myself exclusively as a language teacher', show that teachers' beliefs about their respective roles as mainly content teachers or mainly language teachers depend on the types of courses they teach. Those respondents who teach only content classes see it as their principal

pedagogical role to teach content, whereas those who also teach a language course have a much more balanced, 'integrated' approach to teaching content and language. As research has shown, these perceptions may have implications for the actual instructional practices of these teachers. Especially in the case of the content teachers, whose pedagogical beliefs show little regard for the important role of language in the teaching and learning process, their classroom practices may limit students' (language) learning opportunities. In fact, both content and language teachers can offer expertise to CLIL, but as for example Mehisto (2008:104) concludes from extensive lesson observations and debriefing sessions with teachers in Estonian CLIL programs, "many teachers appear to have a mindset that does not readily leave room for taking on an expanded role as both a teacher of content and language". It is possible that many content teachers do not recognize that content acquisition is inextricably tied to language learning and that every content lesson needs to be a language lesson. As Lyster (2007: 5) remarks on the strategic manipulation of language in immersion and content-based classrooms "[s]uch an approach requires a great deal of systematic planning and does not necessarily come naturally to content-based teachers". Indeed, different teachers may have very different representations of the role and function of language in learning and teaching, with "far reaching consequences for the language ecology of their classroom and therefore also for the language opportunities which arise in them" (Dalton-Puffer 2008: 12).

CLIL-teachers' scores on the general task orientation scales are rather moderate, although more tending towards a pupil-oriented approach to teaching, i.e. they seem to emphasize personal and social development of their students. Concerning the student-teacher relationship, on the other hand, CLIL-teachers seem not to agree with pupils' taking too much part in decision-making at school, but rather want to maintain discipline in the classroom. With regard to the specific CLIL task orientation subscales, scores are moderate as well. Teachers neither agree nor disagree markedly with the statements that, for example, raising language awareness by using different strategies or setting clear content and language goals, are part of their responsibilities as a CLIL teacher.

There was a low score of CLIL teachers on the scale assessing collegiality in their school context. Referring to Little's model (1999), we can say that CLIL teachers, in average, seem to be at one end of the curriculum, i.e. the 'independence' side (as opposed to the 'interdependence' side), implying that they are working autonomously in a school culture with little collegial interaction or feelings of joint responsibility about the development and practice of the CLIL curriculum. Rather moderate are the scores on the professionalization subscale, which indicates that the teachers are open to innovation, prepared to read professional journals and follow extra training.

5. Conclusion

The main focus of the present study was to describe Belgian CLIL teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy. More specifically, our aim was to explore CLIL teachers' beliefs about their efficacy in dealing with the content and language integrated approach. In this paper, we report on quantitative data collected through an online survey. This survey was distributed among secondary CLIL teachers in both the Dutch and the French speaking community of Belgium.

For the measurements of self-efficacy beliefs, we made use of multiple item scales that were found valid and reliable in previous research. As both the construct self-efficacy and task orientation demanded specific items with regard to the integrated approach of CLIL, we developed separate scales for the assessment of teachers' sense of efficacy about CLIL instructional strategies and task orientation for goals, methods and strategies that are considered necessary for the multiple focus in CLIL.

Results show that CLIL teachers in the Belgian context describe themselves as having a moderate view on CLIL task orientation or educational goals with regard to CLIL specific instructional orientations, where respondents seem to have no marked opinion about the use of language awareness strategies, goals and instructional methods for the integrated approach or the stimulation of input and output. With regard to their sense of efficacy, CLIL teachers attribute themselves moderately low scores for self-efficacy with regard to the general aspects of teaching, as opposed to moderately high scores for teachers' efficacy with regard to specific aspects of CLIL teaching. Since self-efficacy is regarded as a powerful construct related to teachers' motivation and behavior in the classroom as well as contributing to important student outcomes (Tschannen-Moran et al. 1998, Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2007, Dellinger et a. 2008), further research is needed to shed light on how these efficacy beliefs are established and what factors may lead to their improvement. As a positive linear correlation was found with the level of collegiality in the school context, opportunities for raising self-efficacy beliefs undoubtedly lie in helping school teams to function as professional collegial communities, working together in an atmosphere of joint responsibility (Andrews & Lewis 2002, Moate 2012, Pérez 2016).

Another interesting finding concerns the CLIL teachers' perceived pedagogical role within the CLIL classroom. Teachers who provide both content and language classes in the CLIL curriculum seem to have a more balanced, 'integrated' view on teaching content and language as opposed to teachers who exclusively teach the content subject they were trained for. A greater focus on the integration of content and language in educational literature and teacher training could help to change the fixed mindset, separating language learning form content learning, for future generations of teachers.

Finally, there are some limitations linked to the method that was used in this study. First, when using self-reporting instruments, there is always the risk that respondents provide 'socially' desirable answers. Second, the length of the questionnaire (estimated time: 40 min.) might have been responsible for respondents not to be as reflective and accurate until the last question. Furthermore, the closed structure of a questionnaire with set answering categories leaves little room for specifications or nuances. Although we added space for remarks and several open questions, most data were gathered through multiple choice questions and multiple item Likert scales, so that respondents only had to tick boxes to state their beliefs. Therefore, researchers more and more emphasize the relevance of stories and narratives in research on teachers' professional identity (e.g. Cammarata & Tedick 2012). The present quantitative study is being extended with qualitative research, comprising interviews with teachers, classroom observations or the use of stimulated recall.

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Capturing Teacher Cognition through the Triangulation of Interviews, Observations and Stimulated Recall Data

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Abstract

Understanding teacher cognition (teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs, including affective dimensions thereof) is essential to develop theories of learning and teaching which take into account the complexity of real-world educational contexts. Evidence suggests that teacher cognition is dynamic. That is, teachers adjust their lesson plans to the teaching context and refine their theory of language learning and teaching through post-lesson reflection. Most empirical studies of teacher cognition, however, only consider lesson planning, with few considering interactive and post-action cognition. This paper argues that it is necessary to consider the full reflective cycle in order to obtain a complete picture of teacher cognition. Evidence from a case study of Thai university teachers' cognition regarding spoken error correction is provided to support this argument. In this case study, four sources of data were triangulated: 1) pre-lesson interviews, 2) lesson observations, 3) stimulated recalls, and 4) post-lesson interviews. The data collected in this study highlight a number of advantages of collecting data on interactive and post-action cognition as well as data on pre-action cognition, and also some challenges involved in collecting data on interactive cognition through stimulated recall interviews. One advantage of triangulating data from the full reflective cycle is that it sheds light on aspects of teachers' thinking that they may be unaware of when asked to reflect on their teaching in the abstract during pre-action interviews. Another advantage is that it uncovers a fuller range of factors that teachers take into account during their teaching. It is, however, not always feasible to carry out stimulated recall interviews to explore teachers' interactive cognition within 48 hours after the observed teaching as recommended in the methodological literature. Care is also required in framing the stimulated recall questions, if the intention is to understand when decisions are made within the thinking process. That is, if there is a need to differentiate interactive cognition from post-lesson reflections.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

Research on teacher cognition (teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs, including affective dimensions thereof (Andrew, 2003) is an important complement to experimental and evaluative research focusing on the effectiveness of particular approaches methods and techniques. As a complement to these more reductionist approaches, research on teacher cognition has the potential to support the integration of the findings from such approaches as well as shed a light on a wider range of variables and how they interact in real world teaching contexts. Moreover, research on teacher cognition takes into account the agency of the teacher (Borg, 2006; 2012) who has a great impact on learning (Naderi & Ashraf, 2013). In short, research on teacher cognition is essential to develop a holistic understanding of how different variables impact on learning and teaching in complex real-world teaching contexts (Schepens, Aelterman, & Van Keer, 2007).

Teacher cognition is, however, a challenging construct to research. First, teachers' thought process are not directly observable (Borg, 2006; Clark & Peterson, 1986). Second, teachers may not be fully aware of the decision process that they engage in (Calderhead, 1984; Sutcliffe & Whitfield, 1979). Third, teacher cognition is dynamic. Teachers adjust their lesson plans to the teaching context (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Farrell & Bennis, 2013) and refine their theory of language learning and teaching through post-lesson reflection (Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Woods, 1996). Fourth, teacher cognition constantly evolves as a result of engagement in the aforementioned reflective cycle (Feryok, 2010). Fifth, teacher cognition can be informed by various factors (Borg, 2006).

Despite this, most research on language teacher cognition has only explored one or two phases of the thinking process such as lesson planning (e.g. Couper, 2017; Önalan, 2018; Oranje & Smith, 2017; Yunus, Salehi, & Amini, 2016), interactive thinking (e.g. Samar & Moradkhani, 2014), or lesson planning and post-lesson reflection (e.g. Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Yigitoglu & Belcher, 2014). Recently, some studies have attempted to obtain a fuller picture of the thinking process. For instance, Mori (2011) in her investigation of teacher cognition regarding corrective feedback in Japan, examined teaching materials (textbooks and handouts) and carried out classroom observations, interviews about observed lessons, and follow-up interviews. It is, however, not clear from the results how each of the different data sources contributed to her understanding of teacher cognition in her context.

Although some studies used stimulated-recall -- a technique for eliciting teachers' verbal commentaries on their practices--to tap either teachers' interactive thinking or their lesson reflections, it seems that studies exploring both stages of cognition are scarce. For example, Burri (2015) examined the cognition development of 15 student teachers on pronunciation pedagogy from focus group interviews, questionnaires, classroom observations and semi-structured interviews, as well as video-recorded lessons. However, the lesson video-recordings were used only for more in-depth analysis of the data from other sources and were not utilised with the teachers to comment on their practices. In this way, the data of classroom practices were only drawn from the researcher and not directly from the subjects. As teacher cognition is not directly observable (Borg, 2006), interpreting the data only from the observation without considering teachers' commentaries of their own actions could lead to misunderstanding. Some of the studies interviewed the teachers about their thoughts after being taped by their lesson video recordings (e.g Miri, Alibakhshi, & Mostafaei-Alaei, 2017), but the data was still focus on their pre-active and post-active cognition.

This study argues that utilising data triangulation to explore teacher beliefs and thought processes occurred before, during, and after practices (Clark & Peterson, 1986) is necessary to provide a full picture of their cognition. This paper explores the following questions:

1. What are the advantages, if any, of collecting data on interactive and post-action cognition as well as data on lesson planning over collecting data on lesson planning only?
2. What challenges, if any, are associated with data triangulation to the exploration of teacher cognition?

2. Methodology

2.1 Research strategy: Data triangulation

To investigate as full a decision-making process as possible, the data was collected from four sources: background interview (in-depth interview exploring their background as language learner and teacher), lesson observations, stimulated recalls, and post-observation interviews. Video-recordings of observed lessons were used as stimuli in the stimulated recalls, each data source was expected to reveal the process of teachers' decision-making in three different stages—pre-active cognition (lesson planning), interactive cognition, and post-lesson cognition (reflections on the lessons). Since a belief system is complex (Richardson, 2003; Tudor, 2001), using multiple sources of data might enhance the investigation into beliefs as well as trustworthiness of the study since it allows the researcher to interpret the data from different contexts and time (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Lincoln & Guba as cited in Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). The data was collected through 77 interviews and 33 observations conducted with 11 Thai teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Each process of data collection is illustrated in Figure 1.

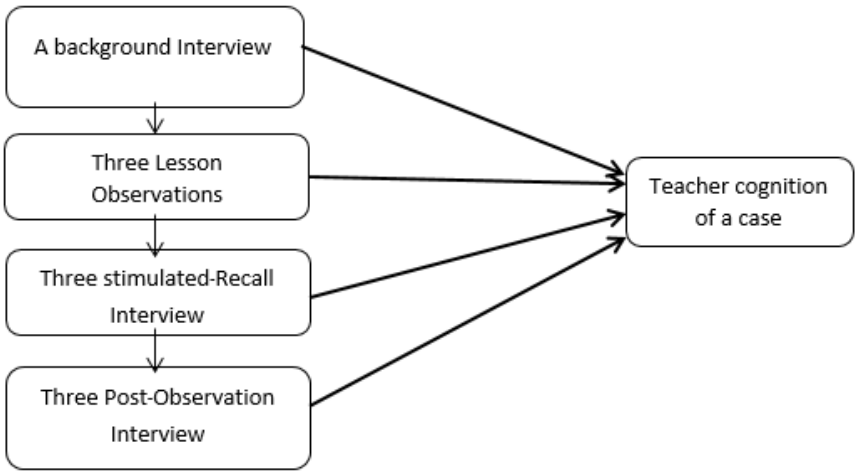

Figure 1. The process of data collection

2.2 Instruments

2.2.1 Pre-lesson interview schedule

The pre-lesson interviews were mostly informed by Borg's (2006) model of language teacher cognition in order to outline some guidance of possible factors that tend to affect teacher cognition; while some other questions were informed by previous research about factors affecting teacher cognition. According to Borg's (2006) model, teacher cognition is developed through their own educational experience and may be influenced by teacher education or training. In addition, it indicates that teacher cognitions and practices are mutually informed and contextual factors can affect congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices (p.334). The interview questions were categorised into themes and subthemes according to Borg's (2006) model and prompts were preset as a guideline. Some questions are shown in Table 1.

Themes	Sub-themes	Prompts
1. Education	1.1 Prior learning experience	-How was your learning experience in the classrooms?
		-How is your learning experience out of the classroom?
	1.2 Prior teaching experience	-Do you gain knowledge or beliefs about teaching speaking through your teaching experience?
		-What courses relating to speaking skills have you taught?
		-What types of errors you most frequently correct when you were teaching?
	1.3 Teacher education /training	-Does the education/training affect how you teach? -What did you learn about teaching speaking during your education/training?
2. Nature of the instructional tasks and contents	2.1 Nature of the course	-What are the objectives of the course? -How long is the course? -Does the nature of the course affect the way you give corrective feedback? -Are there any other aspects of courses affecting your teaching?
	2.2 Nature of the tasks	-How do you design the tasks? -How do you evaluate students' task fulfillment? -Are the students assigned to work individually, in pairs, or in groups? -Are there any other aspects of tasks affecting the way you give corrective feedback?
	2.3 Teaching materials	-What materials do you use in the classroom and why?
3. Students	3.1 Ability	-What the differences of giving corrective feedback to students of different proficiency levels?
	3.2 Participation and behavior	-How do you deal with a lack of participation in speaking classes? -Do students' responses to your feedback affect your beliefs about corrective feedback? -How do you deal with bad behaviors in the classrooms?
4. Contextual factors	4.1 Class size	-Do you treat students' errors differently in small classes and big classes -What is the maximum number of students do you think is suitable for teaching speaking?
	4.2 University policies	-What are the advantages and disadvantages of those policies on your speaking classes?
	4.3 Role of exams and course evaluation	-What is the nature of the exams and evaluation of the course? -Do the exams affect how you give feedback to your students? -Do the exams affect your beliefs about spoken errors?

Table 1. Questions in the pre-lesson interview schedule

2.2.2 Observation

Non-participant lesson observations were used to articulate with the background interview and to reveal some possible emerging themes for the next stages of the data collection – the stimulated-recall interview and the post-observation interview. The participant's teaching practices were video-recorded. To keep the interference of the observation at the minimum level, a fixed-position video camera was used to record interactions between the teachers and students. The reasons for selecting the observation were its advantages of allowing for direct information and firsthand accounts rather than self-report accounts (Merriam, 2001; Dörnyei, 2007). When the data from the background interview and the lesson observations was analysed, a stimulated-recall interview was used to investigate interactive cognition of the teachers.

2.2.3 Stimulated recall prompts

The questions in the stimulated recalls were guided by Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model of teachers' judgments and pedagogical decisions in terms of assuming what factors determining the teachers' practices. Shavelson and Stern (1981) suggest that teachers' decision making is mainly influenced by teachers' judgments on students and content, and institutional constraints. Those judgments are informed by knowledge about learners, individual differences between teachers, nature of the instructional tasks; and heuristics for the causes of events. According to the model, students play important role in teachers' decision. Information about students from both psychological and behavioural aspects affects teachers to make the most suitable decision for learning outcome.

However, the prompts at this interview stage was not as precise as those in pre-lesson stages and different in each interview of individual teachers and different teachers because they were based on actual classroom incidents. For example, some of the teachers corrected errors for students when they could not self-correct, while others opted for asking their classmates for the correction. Therefore, the questions to elicit their reasons behind their practices were different.

2.2.4 Post-lesson interview schedule

The post-observation interview schedule focused on themes that emerged from the pre-lesson interviews and stimulated recall interviews. The focus of post-lesson interview was crosschecking themes derived from data of the previous stages. Again, the interview questions were unique in each post-lesson interview.

3. Results

The paper aims to demonstrate the value of data triangulation that takes into account the full process of teacher cognition. The data collected in this study shows that preset questions enhanced in-depth investigation of teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs. In addition, triangulating data of various stages of teaching could help compensate the possible drawbacks of the researcher's interference because the data interpretation in each stage could be progressively cross-validated with the teachers. The example of the interview data which were validated by the interviewees are shown in Table 2.

Teacher	Sources				Benefits of triangulation
	Pre-lesson interview	Observation	Stimulated recall	Post-lesson interview	
Diann[6]	"If there's not enough time, I'll give a quick feedback such as telling them the correction."	She gave the correction with a grammatical error; while eliciting the correction from the student with mispronunciation of 'can't.	"…when she mispronounced it, I realised she didn't see the difference between the pronunciation of 'I can.' and 'I can't.'"	"I didn't realise what type of feedback I was giving. It was automatic reactions from my teaching experiences."	-influence of teaching experiences was confirmed -unawareness of the teacher's own theories about types of corrective feedback was revealed
Denise	"I correct errors causing communication breakdown and those relevant to the lesson focus."	She did not correct the mispronounced 'chubby' and 'cheek', as well as the grammatical structure in "I am /ʃɪpp.i/ / /ʃiːp/ ."	"She mispronounced it but I didn't correct her because it was the beginning of the course. I didn't want them to lose confidence. I just wanted them to speak out."	"When I talked with foreigners. They always complimented my English though I made mistakes. It made me not afraid to speak. So, I think building confidence is important."	-influence of student confidence was emerged -influence of experiences in speaking English was revealed

Table 2. How the data is complemented by triangulation

3.1 How can data triangulation enhance a fuller picture of teacher cognition?

3.1.1. Uncovering unaware cognition

The data from the various sources strengthen each other by challenging the themes made from each stage of data collection and revealing some beliefs that the teachers were unaware of. As can be seen from Table 2, it can be assumed from Diann's statement in the background interview that she would correct errors herself if there was a time constraint. However, it appeared in her lesson that she used elicitation with a phonological error while correcting a grammatical error herself. At this stage, it might be possible that not only a time constraint, but also linguistic types of errors affected how she corrected errors. This theme was carried to the post-observation interview. However, the data from the post-observation interview revealed that she did not aware of what types of corrective feedback she used in her lessons. Instead, she made decisions about that based on her teaching experiences of how to correct students' errors in order to enhance their understanding about the error and the correction, as she did with the mispronunciation of 'can't'. As might be noticed, examining the full reflective process of teaching uncovered the influence of error types that she had not been aware of.

3.1.2. Uncovering a fuller range of factors

In the case of Denise, the factors emerged from the background interview were meaning and the lesson focus. Nevertheless, the lesson observation showed that she did not correct a student who said "I am shippy sheep (/ʃɪpp.i/ / /ʃiːp/)." instead of "I have chubby cheeks." It could be said that the mispronunciation the student made caused communication breakdown, but Denise did not treat the errors as she previously claimed. Later in the stimulated-recall interview, she explained it was because she avoided destroying student confidence, especially when at beginning of the course like in the observed lesson. In the post observation interview, her experiences of speaking English and of getting feedback from other English speakers were emerged as the sources of her belief about student

[6] All the names are pseudonyms.

confidence. In this case, her interactive cognition played an important role in revealing the factor of student confidence and in eliciting the sources of her beliefs and practices.

According to the example of data discussed above, exploring teachers' interactive cognition served as a bridge to their pre-active cognition and classroom practices. If the interactive decision-making had not been investigated, the teachers might not be able to articulate how they reacted to students' errors in their actual classrooms and the contextual factors of student confidence in the case of Denise might not be emerged. Furthermore, the data revealed that teachers' pre-active, interactive, and post-active cognition intertwined. That is to say, inexistence of one stage of cognition could make it less likely for the researcher to investigate a full picture of teacher cognition. In the present study, iterative observations and interviews of each circle of teaching (planning, teaching, interactive decision-making, reflections on teaching) also appeared to be essentially beneficial to research validity and trustworthiness, as well as to reduce subjectivity of the researcher.

This study argues that investigation of full cyclical process of teaching needs to be accomplished by using data triangulation, especially stimulated-recall interview to tap interactive thinking in any future studies of teacher cognition. Although the merits of data triangulation are becoming more recognised, there has been little discussion of practical problems of conducting data triangulation and solutions to those issues. The next research question of this paper, then, relates to challenges of conducting data triangulation.

3.2 What challenges with adopting triangulation to the exploration of teacher cognition?

3.2.1 The feasibility of the timing of stimulated-recall interviews

Conducting stimulated-recall interviews as soon as possible after a lesson was completed, ideally no later than 48 hours after the observations to increase the possibility of recall accuracy is recommended (Bloom, 1953) as delayed recall may lead to plausible explanations depending less on the participants' memories, and may be the report of a combination of the experience and other related memories rather than of only a direct report of experience (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Ericsson & Simon as cited in Stough, 2001). Ryan (2012) realised this issue and did the stimulated-recall interviews right after the observed lessons. He reported that although he may not have missed some issues that should have been probed further, he claimed his research skills could manage this issue. Nevertheless, this solution may not be able to be adapted to other researchers. Moreover, this present study found that it was not viable to conduct the stimulated-recall interviews at the expected time since the participants might have tight schedule and it was important to respect that and to conduct the interviews at their convenience.

In accordance with the recommendation about within 48-hours stimulated recalls, the participants of this study seemed to be able to smoothly recall their thoughts and decisions at the time of teaching. However, when it was necessary to do the stimulated recalls later than two days after the observed lesson, it seemed that they had problems of articulating their interactive thinking. It was found that when the researcher gave them some context background and more detailed explanations of the interview questions, they could better articulate their interactive decision making.

3.2.2 Differences between memories at the time of teaching and teaching reflections

After the teachers viewed the video-recording of their lessons, they were asked to comment and discuss their decision making during the error correction phases. However, video stimulated recalls can be used to discuss post-lesson thinking by not accessing interactive thinking (Borg, 2012).It is essential to make obvious differences between questions used to tap teachers' interactive thoughts and post-active thoughts to explore a fuller picture of their cognition. For instance, according to Table 2, Diann justified her use of comparison between 'can' and 'can't' in the stimulated-recall interview, while later pointed out that she was mostly unaware of how she corrected an error.

To increase a tendency of revealing the teachers' interactive thinking instead of their lesson reflections, prepared questions informed by Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model of teachers' judgments and pedagogical decisions were used to take contextual factors more into consideration while prompting the teachers' interactive cognition. The present study found that using the prepared questions was effective for this purpose, especially when emphasising on their ongoing decision by adding 'at that moment' to the questions. The differences between questions for stimulated-recall interviews and post-observation interviews are highlighted through the case of Jane and Eve in Table 3.

Case	Stimulated-recall questions	Stimulated-recall answers	Post-observation questions	Post-observation answers
Jane	You didn't give any feedback to them. What were you thinking at that moment? (theme: influence of student behaviours)	"I'd like to put some pressure on them. They haven't tried hard enough since the last class and didn't show any improvement this time."	How do student behaviours affect your feedback?	I give less feedback to misbehaved students, especially those who were inattentive in the class.
Eve	What were you thinking when you corrected the pronunciation of /r/ and /l/ although you had corrected it before in the practice stage? (theme: influence of student proficiency)	"I know Thai students have problems about /r/ and /l/ sound… So, I wasn't surprised they couldn't pronounce it correctly."	How do the common errors among Thais affect your feedback?	"I correct mispronunciation for them, but I let them correct their grammatical errors…it's about areas of error."

Table 3. Stimulated-recall and post-observation and answers

As shown in Table 3, paying more attention to the recall questions yield more insightful interactive decisions; while post-lesson questions focused on eliciting more information about themes emerging from the stimulated-recall interviews. In the case of Jane, the theme about influences of student behaviours was confirmed by her recall. In contrast, in the case of Eve, the theme about influence of student proficiency was negated when she explained that she corrected the same error multiple times because it was a common error among Thai learners; while effects of error areas emerged from her post-observation answers.

4. Conclusion

This study highlights the importance of data triangulation and demonstrates how it can reinforce the research validity and trustworthiness. It argues that gathering data from various sources can enhance the possibility of getting in-depth information about teacher cognition which is complex and context-sensitive (Borg, 2006). Evidence was gathered from a case study of Thai university teachers' cognition regarding spoken error correction. The results show that data triangulation, especially with stimulated-recall interviews, is effective for the teachers to articulate their beliefs and knowledge at each stage of teaching, which finally provides a fuller picture of their cognition. However, researchers might face problems of time lapse between observed lessons and stimulated-recall interviews. This study found that providing the interviewees with some background information about the classroom incidences could enhance the elicitation of their interactive decision-making. Moreover, this study suggests that paying attention to the interview questions of stimulated recalls and post-lesson interviews could yield more insightful data of the teachers' interactive thinking and lesson reflections.

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Bio data

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Emotions and the Teaching and Learning Process

“You Just Smile and Everything is Fine.” Verbalizing Emotions by Instructed Learners of English as a Foreign Language

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Abstract

“Emotions are at the heart of what it means to be human. Indeed, emotions are at the heart of what it means to be alive.” (Fox, 2008, p. XV) As Fox’s observation indicates, emotions are fundamental and ubiquitous companions of our lives. They are interwoven with human essentiality and indispensable for our successful functioning in the world. Given the omnipresent nature of emotions, the ability to talk about them is an inherent part of our communicative competence as well. Since successful communication in the target language is the primary goal of foreign language teaching and learning, facilitating students’ proficiency in the use of the target language emotion vocabulary in interaction also belongs to the essential tasks of the classroom setting. Formal language instruction is, however, often judged to ignore the emotional component (Dewaele, 2015, p. 14) resulting in a “clear disadvantage” (Dewaele, 2011, p. 35) over naturalistic or mixed learning contexts in the communication of emotions “leaving learners unable to express their own feelings and unsure about interpreting those of others” (Pavlenko, 2005, p. 146).

While acknowledging the numerous benefits of authentic interaction contexts outside classroom activities in the successful verbalization of emotions (e.g. Dewaele, 2013, Pavlenko, 2008, Bicsar, 2014), the presentation strives to get to the bottom of the formal language learning setting. It intends to shed light upon what a predominantly instructed access to English as a foreign language empowers learners to do in the target language communication of feelings. This endeavor is set within the framework of interlanguage pragmatics, which is motivated by the very nature of emotions: given the often intimate and private essence of feelings (cf. Schwarz-Friesel, 2007, p. 44), their verbalization can be assumed to be highly sensitive to contextual factors in social interaction (cf. Dewaele, 2008, p. 1762). Nevertheless, the analysis of emotion communication “is largely absent in pragmatic research designs” on foreign language learning (Dewaele, 2011, p. 32). In order to bridge this gap, the presentation introduces findings of an empirical study that locates the ability to verbalize emotions in the target language not only in the realm of lexical knowledge, but also in the domain of learners’ sociopragmatic competence (cf. Dewaele, 2015, p. 13). The recently completed analysis addresses the question of how Austrian secondary school learners of English utilize the emotion lexicon of the target language according to varying degrees of social distance and dominance of interlocutors in the situation in relation to emotive speech production by L1-users of English. This inquiry is pursued in speech data elicited from 29 teenage learners of English at an Austrian secondary school and 20 students of the same age group from public schools in the UK by means of the mapping method (see e.g. Ogarkova et al., 2012 or Toya & Kodis, 1996). By putting the findings up for discussion, the presentation seeks to contribute to those empiric insights that enable us to predict as well as to overcome learning obstacles in the successful communicative use of emotion terms in the target language in the instructed foreign language classroom.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction: Aim of the study

"Is it really possible to tell someone else what one feels?", poses Anna Karenina the admittedly legitimate question in Tolstoy's famous novel (1874, reprinted in 1994, p. 905). The present study joins the heroine in her quest for a corresponding answer but places the issue at hand in a foreign language (FL) context: It investigates how instructed learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) "tell someone else what they feel" in their target language (TL). That is, preliminary results of an empirical study are to be illustrated blow, which has been carried out with the purpose of exploring lexical characteristics of emotion verbalization in the TL-output of Austrian EFL-learners. The focus thereby lies on the use of descriptive emotion terms, which fulfil the referential function of naming emotion states directly or indirectly (cf. Kövecses, 1995, Pavlenko, 2008, Schwarz-Friesel, 2007). These are scrutinized in utterances of Austrian secondary school EFL-learners in the light of L1-English[7] language use tendencies. This endeavor is set within the framework of interlanguage pragmatics, which is motivated by the very nature of emotions: As feelings are rather intimate and private, multifaceted, oftentimes intensive and overwhelming experiences, their verbalization may incorporate face loss to the speaker and/or the interlocutor rendering the communication of affective[8] episodes highly sensitive to contextual factors in social interaction (cf. Dewaele, 2008). This assumption allows the conclusion that successful emotion communication in a foreign language requires pragmalinguistic abilities on the one hand (including knowledge of the TL-descriptive emotion lexicon) and strongly calls for learners' sociopragmatic competence on the other hand. However, the analysis of emotion communication has been "largely absent in pragmatic research designs" on foreign language learning and use (Dewaele, 2011, p. 32). In order to bridge this gap, the present study locates the ability to verbalize emotions in the target language not only in the domain of lexical knowledge, but also within the scope of interlanguage pragmatics by addressing the following research question: How do the basic contextual parameters of social distance and dominance influence the lexical choices Austrian secondary school EFL-learners and L1-speakers of English make about emotionally loaded experiences?

By focusing on instructed learners of English, the present study swims against the current of corresponding mainstream research, since the current zeitgeist in SLA research directs more attention to foreign language use in authentic contexts outside the classroom (Dewaele, 2005). Yet, it is to bear in mind that institutional language educational often lays the cornerstone for multilingualism. Language learning histories mostly begin at school level and even speakers growing up or living with two or more languages outside the classroom are confronted with language learning at school at one point. Accordingly, the present study intends to shed light upon what a predominantly instructed access to EFL empowers learners to do in the target language communication of feelings. It is to be emphasized here, however, that the analysis does not strive to conduct an error analysis *per se*, as learners are not considered imperfect speakers, who, being interlanguage users (Selinker, 1972), show inevitable differences to native speaker patterns (cf. Dewaele, 2017a). Rather, similarities are to be explored beyond possible differences in order to uncover positive transfer potentials (cf. Hufeisen, 2004) exploitable in the successful development of FL-emotion communication.

In order to explore the research question stated above, the role of emotions and their verbalization in the context of foreign language learning needs to be distinguished first, which is the focus of the next chapter.

[7] The majority of the English participants reported to speak English exclusively. Consequently, contemplating the linguistic multiplicity of the controls (cf. Dewaele, 2017a) appears rather gratuitous in the present study, in which they will be labelled L1-English speakers. By doing so, the present analysis does not question the biased stance intrinsic in the dichotomy L1- vs. FL-speaker and the English students are certainly not considered role models for the learners (cf. ibid.), however, contemplating the language learning histories of the participants, the twofold distinction between EFL-learener and L1-English speaker seems adequate and will be adopted here.

[8] The terms "emotion", "feeling" and "affect" are used as synonyms in the present study, while acknowledging that they have a distinct radius of meaning in emotion psychology (see e.g. Damasio, 2004).

2. Talking about emotions in a foreign language: Current state of research

For the Austrian learner wishing to report on an emotion experience in English, the question is of immediate importance whether his/her target language offers the same possibilities and freedoms to verbalize feelings in social interaction as his/her source language. The aforementioned learner is in the convenient position that his/her source and target languages are of a common ancestry lending themselves to the initial speculation that they share general cultural constructs exerting influence on the social sharing of emotions (cf. Hofstede, 2001, Niedenthal et al., 2006) and the verbal conduct of Austrian and English speakers about affective experiences is, hence, likely to be comparable. Note, however, that this is concurrently the crux of the matter: Relevant findings suggest that the verbal expression of feelings may be subject to variation in discourse norms and preferences governing interaction even across rather proximal cultures. Evidence for this assumption comes from an extensive body of cross-cultural pragmatic literature concerned with pragmatic routines and speech act realization patterns across cultures (for a summary, see Kasper & Rose, 1999). These indicate not only that English and German reveal general differences along a number of discourse dimensions (House, 2006), but also that the social constellation of the situation influences speech production, which may be subject to cross-cultural variation (House & Vollmer, 1988, Takahashi & Beebe, 1993, Barron, 2003). While acknowledging that these findings need to be contemplated with great caution due to limitations of the research instruments and to possible situational, individual, regional, dialectal, etc. variation (cf. Andrews & Krennmayr 2007; Taguchi & Roever 2017: 85), they are indicative of the probability that social role distributions within the situation impact the way interaction is carried out (cf. Meyer ,1997). That is to say, depending on whom we interact with, we may cautiously consider and carefully choose the appropriate linguistic means to convey our intended message in order to acknowledge and verbally reflect the distribution of social roles within the situation. While the current state of research does not allow to map established cross-cultural pragmatic findings directly onto emotion communication in a foreign language, since they emerge around verbal action other than the verbalization of feelings, they allow some tentative conclusions for the present study: Similarly to e.g. weighty requests or imposing refusals, which pose a rather great threat to the interlocutors face wants (Szili, 2004), narrating emotional content to a discourse partner may entail an equally high risk of damaging the interactants' self-image. Since face-threating discourse has been found to yield diverging communicative preferences in English and German, it can be assumed that speakers of the two languages may resort to patterns of speech differently in the communication of feelings as well and Austrian EFL-learners need to be on the *qui vive* when utilizing the feelings-related segment of the target vocabulary in interaction. Since, however, no corresponding study is known to this author, which would be an aid in supporting or falsifying this observation, this conclusion remains to be further explored in the next parts of the present study. Before turning to the question of how the EFL-learners of the analysis at hand master the challenge of recounting affective episodes to an interlocutor in various social settings, findings offered by established research on feelings in foreign language contexts are to be illustrated in a cursory manner.

Emotions are not novel to the research field of foreign language learning and use (Arnold, 2011) and, in correspondence with their intricacy, they have been subject to scrutiny from a multitude of analytic perspectives. Without any claim to completeness, the latter include exploring emotions under the generic rubric of "affective variables" with the aim of characterizing facilitative and impeding factors in FL-learning and use (for a summary, see Arnold & Brown, 1999, for recent findings on foreign language anxiety and enjoyment, see e.g. Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017, Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, or Dewaele et al., 2017). Another research vista is represented by studies that explore how emotions are expressed in multilinguals' multiple languages, which has risen to prominence in recent decades evidenced by pioneering recapitulatory books of the field (e.g. Dewaele, 2013, Pavlenko, 2005). Analyses in this vain strive to pin down interrelated linguistic, contextual and individual factors that influence language use in emotionally loaded situations and for affectively charged contents (e.g. Altarriba, 2006, Caldwell-Harris & Ayçiçeği-Dinn, 2009, Dewaele, 2017b, 2013, 2008, 2006, 2004, Dewaele & Salomidou, 2017, Harris, 2004, Koven, 2004, Pavlenko, 2008, 2005, 2004, Piasecka, 2013). A further line of inquiry argues that different emotional worlds unfold in multilinguals' multiple languages resulting in disparate identities and selves as well as in feeling distinct when using the various verbal codes for communication (e.g. Dewaele, 2016, Dewaele & Panicacci, 2017, Panayiotou, 2004a, 2004b). Since these studies are mostly concerned with how multilinguals express emotions as well as with how they feel when using a language and not with the question of how they describe these feelings, they cannot be further explicated here. Nevertheless, they imply that using another language may open up new emotional realities, which might operate also in the course of verbalizing affective episodes.

Even though the scientific interest in emotions in foreign language contexts appears rather keen, studies on emotions-related descriptive verbal behavior by instructed learners are rather sporadic. One reason for this tendency might be that the instructed FL-classroom is frequently interpreted as an impeding factor in the successful TL-communication of feelings. It is judged to ignore the emotional sphere and be "relatively emotion-free" (Dewaele, 2015, p. 14). Consequently, learners exposed exclusively to instructed TL-input have been described to have "a clear disadvantage compared to those who combine classroom learning and authentic interaction, or learn the language naturalistically" (Dewaele, 2011, p. 35). Pavlenko (2005, p. 146) puts this argument further by claiming that instructed learners are left "unable to express their own feelings and unsure about interpreting those of others". While acknowledging that authentic TL-interactions have numerous benefits, which classroom activities are not in a position to compete with (see e.g. Bicsar, 2015, 2014, Dewaele, 2013, 2006, 2004, Pavlenko, 2008, 2005), it appears, nonetheless, to be of great relevance to inspect emotion-naming utterances in EFL from at least two perspectives: On the one hand, institutional foreign language learning is, quantitatively speaking, the main source of multilingualism in Europe and more than the half of FL-users is furnished with the linguistic equipment of a target language (cf. de Cillia, 2010), including its emotion lexis, in the formal instruction setting. On the other hand, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), an important source document for language education, also reaffirms the need for research to expand its scope onto emotion communication by instructed foreign language learners, as it assigns the ability to verbalize feelings to several of its competence levels (cf. *ibid*.). Finally yet importantly, few analyses show that the scrutiny of emotion verbalization from the perspective of foreign language use leads to auspicious results. These show e.g. that learners of English tend to be more direct, less elaborate, less detailed and less addressee-oriented than L1-speakers of the language but use similar internal story-structures in their emotion narratives (Rintell 1990). Further corresponding analysis are indicative of the importance of social power distributions in the communication of anger in EFL implying that intimacy between interlocutors leads to enhanced explicitness in the speech of learners and L1-speakers of English alike but social norms and expectations may influence emotive speech production in differing ways across groups in situations with imbalanced social hierarchies (Toya & Kodis, 1996). Yet, other studies show that FL- and L1-speaker differences tend to be rather qualitative in nature, since instructed learners of target languages do not seem to be at a disadvantage when it comes to the frequency and wealth of emotion terms in FL-speech production (cf. Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002, Pavlenko & Driagina, 2007, Ho 2009). The scrutiny of actual lexical choices, however, tends to reveal conceptual, lexical and morphosyntactic transfer from the L1, avoidance of certain TL-items, and transfer from the context of the instructed language classroom in affect-related utterances of FL-learners (cf. *ibid*. and Bicsar 2015). Given the rather narrow circle of research explicitly focusing on emotion description by instructed foreign language learners, these observations are by no means to be considered conclusive, particularly as results are occasionally contradictory (see e.g. quantitative findings in Bicsar 2015). Instead, they excite to further exploration of patterns of FL-emotion verbalization, which is to be carried out in the next section.

3. How do you feel? Research design and results

The present analysis strives to explore the effect social distance and dominance has on the lexical choices Austrian EFL-learners and L1-English speakers make in emotion-naming speech. The participants as well as the methods of data collection, the analysis along with the results are delineated in the section at hand. It is to be noted, however, that the following preliminary findings represent work in progress and are, by no means, conclusive.

In order to investigate the interactional use of the English emotion lexicon, 29 Austrian learners (22 females, 7 males) from the Realgymnasium – BORG Schwaz, Tyrol and 15 native speakers of English (10 females, 5 males) from the Fazakerley High School and the Wirral Metropolitan College in Liverpool, England participated in the study. Since Austrian learners are expected to reach the proficiency level of B2 in the 8th secondary school year in all skills in English (cf. BMUKK 2004) and are, accordingly, likely to have developed the ability to make verbal reference to emotions in their target language (cf. Council of Europe, 2001), it was decided to include EFL-learners in the aforementioned school year with a mean age of 17,3 years (SD = 0,82). To control for socioeconomic background, the L1-English participants are of the same age (M = 17,6, SD = 0,61) and attend comparable schools in England. The sampling strategy is to be considered primarily as opportunity sampling (cf. Dörnyei, 2007).

In order to implement the independent variable of social status in the course of data collection, a written portrayal of four different situations involving interlocutors of varying social distance and dominance was used as stimulus for a subsequent role-play (cf. Toya & Kodis, 1996). The use of role play is often subject to criticism in corresponding research, since one cannot possibly do justice to the multitude of factors influencing interaction in real life situations in an experimental setting (Albert & Marx, 2014). Observing emotion verbalization in authentic contexts would certainly be the *ne plus ultra* of data collection methods to any researcher concerned with feeling states in any form, however, the unpredictable nature of affective reactions poses a rather insurmountable challenge to a naturalistic approach (Wallbott & Scherer, 1989). As role-plays are frequently implemented in order to obtain data that would otherwise not be accessible (Albert & Marx, 2014), this method of data elicitation was used here as well. The application of different situations as stimuli proved to be effective in the manipulation of the independent variables of social distance and dominance by alternating the interlocutors in the situations. The co-actants, thus, included a teacher (high social dominance), a stranger (great social distance), a younger student (lower social stance relative to the speaker) and one's best friend (low social distance and dominance). The emotion category evoked by all of the conditions was anger, which was kept constant. In other words, the respondents had to describe their feelings triggered by an anger-provoking scenario to a teacher, a stranger, a younger student and their best friend. The role-plays were carried out by the researcher, who sought to approximate the course of data collection as close as possible to the flow of natural conversation. The Tyrolean learners were vigorously assured that the aim of the study was not an error analysis and no attention would be paid to possible mismatches between their output and regularities of English grammar. Reducing uneasiness appeared *a fortiori* necessary, since the subject matter of emotions is a delicate topic for discussion by itself and interview situations may additionally be perceived by participants as invading their privacy (Alami, 2015). The 9,9 hours of recorded role-plays were transcribed following the simple transcription rules announced by Dresing and Pehl (2013). The transcribed dataset amounts to a total of 23067 words with the EFL-learner corpus comprising 15056 and the L1-corpus 8011 words. The data segmentation was conducted by close-reading (cf. Kranich & Bicsar, 2012) in order to identify all emotion-naming instances. The subsequent annotation was carried out via the research software Atlas.ti v.7.5.4. Which lexical items qualified for analysis?

In line with previous research (see above), the dependent variables were constituted by frequency and richness of emotion-naming instances with the addition of the proportion of lexical modification in the emotion-naming propositions. Based on Ortony et al. (1987) and Pavlenko (2008), lexical items were selected for analysis, if they represented genuine emotion words with direct reference to emotion concepts and were used with a state-reading (e.g. afraid, furious, excited). Instances corresponding to indirect means of emotion description including conventional idiomatic phrases (e.g. to explode) as well as ad-hoc formulations with the verb to feel (e.g. to feel betrayed) were also classified as relevant for the analysis (cf. Kövecses, 2000, Ortony et al., 1987). Emotion-related and emotion-laden words (cf. Pavlenko, 2008) were excluded alongside with expressions signifying external and bodily conditions (e.g. to be exhausted) as well as subjective evaluations and cognitive appraisals (e.g. to be confident) without denoting the internal emotive state of the speaker (cf. Ortony et al., 1987). The inclusion of lexical modifiers as dependent variables into the analysis is grounded in the interplay between language and politeness: Research suggests that the use of intensifiers is linked to authoritativeness and power, whereas hedges are associated with a submissive lower social status and applied in order to achieve higher levels of indirectness (Johnson, 1987, Hosman, 1989, Brown & Levinson, 1987, reprinted in 1999). Since the use of lexical modifiers may be indexical of the speaker-hearer relationship (cf. Aijmer & Simon-Vandenbergen, 2009), the frequency of intensifiers and hedges rendering the emotion-naming proposition more direct or indirect appeared to be an appropriate measure in capturing the impact of varying levels of social distance and dominance on the verbalization of emotions.

How do the basic contextual parameters of social distance and dominance influence the lexical choices Austrian secondary school EFL-learners and L1-speakers of English make about emotionally loaded experiences? A series of one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests across the four situations revealed that the frequency and richness of emotions words as well as the use of modifiers showed mostly skewed distributions. Therefore, independent-samples Mann-Whitney U tests were carried out as a non-parametric alternative to t-tests. The results indicate a significant inter-group differences in the frequency of emotion words in the best friend situation with an intermediate effect size (U = 133,5, Z = -2,1, p = .034, d_{Cohen} = 0.66). Even though both subject groups show a gradual increase in the frequency of affect-denoting items, as the discourse partner becomes socially less powerful and more familiar (ranging from 47 tokens in the teacher situation to 72 tokens in the best friend situation in the EFL-group and from 26 tokens to 54 tokens in the corresponding situations in the L1-group), which reaches the

highest values in the best friend scenario in both datasets, the L1-English speakers of the sample use emotion words significantly more often in this situation than the learners.

A series of Mann-Whitney U tests performed on the wealth of emotion lemmas revealed a significant inter-group difference in the younger student and best friend setting with an intermediate effect size (U = 136, Z = -2,2, p = .027, d_{Cohen} = 0. 0.639 and U = 134, Z = -2,1, p = .031, d_{Cohen} = 0.656). The EFL-learners of the sample used significantly fewer types of emotion words to talk about their feelings with socially less dominant and rather close interaction partners. Nevertheless, type-token ratios (TTR) calculated for each situation revealed that both subject groups seem to choose emotion words with greater elaboration when relating feelings in situations with socially rather dominant or distant partners (TTR peaks in the teacher and stranger scenario with 0,59 and 0,54 in the L1-dataset and reaches the highest value in the stranger setting with 0,31 in the EFL-corpus, as opposed to 0,48 and 0,38 in the younger student and best friend setting in L1-speech and 0,23, 0,27 and 0,29 in EFL-utterances addressing a younger student, a teacher and the best friend respectively).

How does social distance and dominance influence the frequency of modifiers in emotion-naming utterances across groups? A series of Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that the EFL-learners of the sample used emphatic lexical items significantly more often in describing an anger-provoking experience to their best friend than the Liverpoolian respondents with an intermediate effect size (U = 112,5, Z = -2,6, p = .008, d_{Cohen} = 0.852). The EFL-data displays a gradual increase of emphatic lexis in general, as the familiarity and proximity to the interlocutor rises, which peaks in the situation with the best friend (ranging from 18 tokens of intensifying adverbs in the teacher setting to 32 tokens in the best friend scenario). The L1-data shows a more even distribution of intensified utterances with a less remarkable increase (ranging from 11 to 17 occurrences of corresponding adverbs). However, the interlocutor's social status seems to have a comparable effect on the use of hedges, which is most salient with the teacher and the stranger in both groups (16 and 11 tokens in the EFL-data, 10 and 19 tokens in the L1-group) and decreases comparably, as social hierarchies become more flat (6 and 4 tokens of hedging with the younger student and the best friend in the EFL-corpus and 9 and 7 instances of mitigating lexis in the L1-data in the corresponding situations). The frequency of mitigation does not show significant differences across groups (U = 204, Z = -3,7, p = .706 in the teacher scenario, U = 152, Z = -1,85, p = .064 in the stranger situation, U = 172, Z = -1,4, p = .148 in the younger student setting and U = 165,5, Z = -1,7, p = .087 in the best friend context).

4. The power of the interlocutor: Resume of results

How do the basic contextual parameters of social distance and dominance influence the lexical choices Austrian secondary school EFL-learners and L1-speakers of English make about emotionally loaded experiences? While only a tentative answer is possible in the current phase of the present study, the results suggest that the position occupied by one's best friend is, indeed, a special one. While both participant groups reveal a gradual increase in emotion word tokens when moving from socially asymmetrical situations to rather balanced social role distributions, the L1-English speakers of the sample honor the imaginary best friend with significantly more verbal references to emotions than the EFL-learners. This pattern is likewise observable in the array of emotion lemmas. Even though the best friend situation elicits the greatest diversity of emotion-naming lexis in both groups, the repertoire of lemmas is significantly wider when the L1-English speakers of the sample relate feelings to the interlocutor featuring the lowest social distance. As to the modification of the emotion-naming proposition, the patterns observable in the data show a number of concurrent features. Both groups refrain from intensification most of all in the teacher scenario, which is characterized by rather high social asymmetries relative to the speaker. Social dominance and distance seems to be decisive in the distribution of hedging devices as well, since the teacher and the stranger are in favor of most mitigating items in both datasets, *albeit* in reverse orders, followed by a drop in downtoning elements as social supremacy of the speaker and intimacy between interlocutors rises. Contrary to previous research (Rintell, 1990), the L1-respondents do not advert to higher levels of indirectness in the present sample. Additionally, while a number of differences characterize the frequency of emphatic elements, these reach significance only in the situation with the imaginary best friend. The EFL-learners of the sample make use of intensifying elements in their emotion-naming propositions notably more often when describing feelings to their best friend. This implies an urge to be more explicit and amplified with an intimate interlocutor, which is achieved by the use of adverbs transparent in their intensifying meaning rather than by resorting to a greater array of emotion words expressing different shades of feelings (cf. results in Bicsar 2015, 2014). However, given the preliminary nature of the results, the present analysis is not in a position to indulge in a conclusive interpretation of these tendencies. It, nevertheless, provides

an impetus that the verbalization of emotions in instructed FL-language contexts is an auspicious research field. The more we know about tendencies of emotion communication in a foreign language, the more we can support learners in the appropriate use of the TL-emotion lexicon in interaction, so that they become able to answer Anna Karenina's question with a confident *yes* in their target language as well.

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Toward a Task Design Model for Mental Acceptance and Motivation: A Transdisciplinary Approach

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Abstract

The Erasmus+ TECOLA project (www.tecola.eu) focuses on pedagogical differentiation through telecollaboration and gamification for intercultural and content integrated language teaching. The role of the University of Antwerp as partner is the development of a task design model for telecollaboration in virtual and gamified environments.

Literature on Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), Technology-mediated TBLT and Telecollaboration, but also current pilots and exchanges in practice, show a certain disregard for established concepts and principles from motivation theory and psychology in general such as mental acceptance, self-regulation, identification, appropriation and agency. Secondly, tasks are seen as products with features that may have an effect on learning, but not much is said about task design as a process. Tasks keep falling from the sky.

In this presentation, we will first highlight our theoretical foundations for conceiving the task design model by presenting the models involved. We will then explain how our task design model has been presented to and discussed with teachers. The model itself will be presented as an evolving concept which will be tested in the Spring of 2019 in various exchange projects in Europe.

Finally, we will show that this project is an illustration of how transdisciplinarity (Colpaert 2018) can be a better solution than interdisciplinarity especially in cases where multiple disciplines come together: linguistics, language acquisition, technology, psychology and pedagogy.

Conference Paper

1. The TECOLA project

The Erasmus+ TeCoLa project aims at enabling teachers (and teacher educators) to make best pedagogical use of telecollaboration and gamification for improved foreign language learning and teaching in secondary schools. Special emphasis is on enhancing tasks and activities related to intercultural communication (EU citizenship) and subject integrated (vocational) language learning (CLIL). The role of the University of Antwerp as partner is the development of a task design model for telecollaboration in virtual and gamified environments. Starting points to develop and test this model are secondary school level language learning and teaching contexts in Europe. The task design model should become an inspirational methodological framework rather than a set of prescriptive guidelines.

2. TBLT

Grounded on socio-cultural views on language learning, TBLT has been established for some time now as one of the main approaches to language learning and teaching worldwide (Van den Branden, 2006; Van den Branden, Bygate & Norris, 2009; Thomas & Reinders, 2010; Ortega & Gonzalez, 2014). TBLT has been identified as the most advanced form of communicative language teaching as learners are expected to act not only as language learners, but also as language users (Ellis, 2003; Van den Branden, 2006). Tasks, the smallest unit of syllabus design and evaluation, are at the centre of each rich language learning activity and they are generally structured into three stages: pre-task, in-task and post-task (Ellis, 2003; Van den Branden, 2006). For the development of the task design model, we adopted Van den Branden's (2006) definition of tasks viewed as "an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language" (p. 4).

3. Challenges for Task-based language teaching (TBLT)

Although much is already known about TBLT, little is said about the challenges TBLT is facing. Literature on TBLT, technology-mediated TBLT and telecollaboration, but also current pilots and exchanges in practice, show a certain disregard for established concepts and principles from motivation theory and psychology in general. Apart from that, not much has been written or researched about TBLT and collaborative learning and, consequently, about TBLT and telecollaboration.

3.1 Collaborative learning

A first challenge for TBLT, as said before, is collaborative learning. For many years now, collaborative learning has established itself as a key concept in pedagogy. In short it is seen as a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together (Mitnik et al., 2009). In collaborative learning, students are active participants in their own learning process and this is why, for obvious reasons, collaborative learning is used in student-centred settings (Colpaert & Gijsen, 2017).

Research shows that collaboration is beneficial for learners, and researchers agree that it should be included in the design of powerful learning environments. This is why many teachers have started exploring collaborative activities with their learners. Benefits from the teacher's point of view are fewer teacher-centered classrooms and the subsequent assumption of a reduced workload. Given the pressure many teachers are confronted with, this is an understable rationale. When the students are working together, the teacher has time to focus time on other obligations (Colpaert & Gijsen, 2017).

However, since the learner is the point of focus of TBLT, the question that remains is: do students really want to work and learn together? The way learners experience a collaborative task, depends on a number of factors (Colpaert & Gijsen, 2017). Firstly, there are different types of learners: some prefer collaborative tasks over individual tasks; others do not. Secondly, the learners have to adjust to a change of context: from teacher-centered, large group instruction to a more individualized and learner-centered working environment. Not all students are flexible enough to adapt to this new style of teaching and learning. And lastly, many learners have concerns related to anxiety when it comes to collaborative learning: there is the free-rider problem where lazy students profit from the work of hard-working students, the objectivity of the peer-evaluation might cause concern, the teacher might be too far away to have an objective view on the situation, and conflicts or misunderstandings, especially in

intercultural settings, might arise (Belz 2002; Kramsch and Thorne, 2002; O'Dowd, 2003; O'Dowd and Ritter, 2006).

The need for and the effect of collaborative learning largely depends on factors such as modality, activity type, task type, context and personal goals (Colpaert & Gijsen, 2017). Modality is the way the proposed collaborative activity is being presented and implemented, in terms of pre-task, in-task and post-task events (Ellis, 2003). Activity type refers to the nature of the collaborative activity: peer teaching, peer evaluation, peer coaching, peer feedback, co-construction, and group reflection (Ellis, 2003).

3.2 Telecollaboration

Another challenge for TBLT is telecollaboration. In language learning contexts, telecollaboration is understood to be: "Internet-based intercultural exchange between people of different cultural/national backgrounds, set up in an institutional blended-learning context with the aim of developing both language skills and intercultural communicative competence (as defined by Byram 1997) through structured tasks" (Guth & Helm, 2011, p.42). During these exchanges learners get a chance to engage online in authentic meaningful communication with new peers from other countries. Telecollaborative exchanges, especially in innovative e-learning environments such as 3D or virtual spaces and when using appropriate telecollaborative tasks, have the potential to facilitate interaction and collaboration, enhance language learning and intercultural communicative competences (ICC) in a technology mediated setting.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has been the prominent approach to learning and teaching in technology-mediated learning environments (Van den Branden, 2006; Van den Branden et al., 2009; Thomas & Reinders, 2010; Ortega & Gonzalez, 2014). However, although the idea of designing tasks from a task-based perspective has gained and secured widespread support with researchers all over the world, there's up-to-date not yet cogent evidence that designing technology-mediated tasks according to TBLT criteria can result in successful learning.

Research-based evidence shows that FTF tasks play an important role in successful language learning (Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008) yet, we do not have enough knowledge on how tasks work in technology-mediated settings (Hampel, 2006; Doughty & Long, 2003; Wang, 2007). Additionally, there is a need to explore how tasks can be designed to fully maximize the potential of interaction in an online medium (Thomas & Reinders, 2010). Over the past two decades researchers in the field of Computer Assisted language Learning (CALL) have been increasingly interested in tasks design, but to this date TBLT and CALL have not been able to answer the question of "how to integrate new technologies and language tasks into an organic and mutually informative whole" (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014, p.4).

Adding on to the challenge of designing tasks for technology-mediated TBLT are the fact that they need to be collaborative tasks. Up to date few studies have tried to question or criticize the acclaimed benefits of collaborative tasks when applied in the field of technology. Most evidence supporting advantages of collaborative learning stems from research that has been conducted in traditional classroom-based settings and it is by no means a valid assumption that collaborative learning in a technology-mediated setting can trigger the same results. Technology allows us to design and work with tasks in highly varied environments, but we cannot assume that tasks work in the same way as they do in the FTF classrooms (Thomas & Reinders, 2010).

Hence TBLT is, as described, potentially a suitable approach for second language learning in technology-mediated settings, but TBLT-based tasks do not necessarily create acceptance and willingness in the learner' mind. This brings us to the next challenge for TBLT: psychology.

3.3 Psychology

There is a serious gap in literature on tasks, especially TBLT literature, regarding the psychological-motivational side of task design, execution and evaluation. It is important that tasks are designed in such a way that they elicit learners' motivation and engagement, i.e. that they are meaningful to all those involved. For telecollaborative activities to be effective, students need to be convinced that the task is meaningful to them and useful to others, i.e. their peers and teachers (Foster & Skehan, 1999; Ellis, 2009; Colpaert, 2010). For telecollaborative activity to be successful, teachers should acknowledge that there is no such thing as one task that will be meaningful to all learners involved.

4. Motivation

To close the psychological gap, we focussed on the mental acceptability of the task, the learners' willingness to do the task, and their identification with the task. We built our task design model on theories such as Self-Determination Theory, Dörnyei's L2 SELF model and Colpaert's Personal Goal Theory. We also used some other theories (Expectancy Theory, Attribution Theory etc.), but these would lead us to far within the scope of this paper. In the next section, we will describe motivation on three levels: a global level, a local level and an individual level.

4.1 On a global level

The Self-Determination Theory describes motivation on a global level since it discusses three universal innate psychological needs: competence, relatedness and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000) Apart from that it also presents six universal levels of regulation and identification:

- amotivation: no participation
- external regulation: passive participation because of demand, reward or punishment
- introjected regulation: participation to maintain self-esteem
- identified regulation: learner values the goal of the task
- integrated regulation: learner believes in the task
- intrinsic regulation: complete identification with the task ('this is me')

4.2 On a local level

On a local level motivation can be described in terms of personal goals. Personal goals seem to be non-conscious or unconscious volitions related to a specific learning situation. They are not linked to concrete actions, but mostly to states of mind or feelings. Personal goals are not related to life-in-general (like be happy, rich, and healthy), but they mostly spring from attitudes toward the learning situation. They are certainly individual to a large extent, they differ within a group, but it has always been possible to group them or find some kind of common denominator. A few personal goals (such as the desire to be respected) seem to be universal (Colpaert, 2010).

In cases of problematic motivation, too much direct focus or emphasis on pedagogical goals is counterproductive. It is better to first create willingness or acceptance in the learner's mind. In other words, it will prove beneficial to start with focussing on factors which stimulate or hinder the learning process in the learner's mind, before turning to what they have to acquire. These factors are the personal goals. (Colpaert, 2010).

Personal goals are design concepts derived from an abstraction of hidden factors that stimulate or hinder a group (or subgroups, personas) in the learning process. They are not necessarily psychological realities, but rather assumptions about some aspects of the user which have appeared to be of decisive importance for the design process. Personal goals are only 'real' to the extent that they contribute to the efficiency and effectiveness of the design process in a first step, and (more indirectly) contribute to the result in terms of acceptance, learning effect, self-efficacy, interest, and motivation in a second step (Colpaert, 2010).

4.3 On an individual level

On an individual level, motivation is directed by the motivation self-system of L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005). This motivational self-system suggests that a person has three self-images: the present self, the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self. The present self is the person as he/she is as a second language speaker in that moment. The ideal L2 self is a person's imagined ideal future self as a second language speaker. This ideal L2 self can promote motivation by pushing the present self to strive to become the ideal self, which will be done by integrative and internalized motivation in language learning. The ought-to L2 self includes the things a person believes they should do/have in order to meet expectations or avoid negative outcomes, which is associated with extrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 2005).

5. The task design model

As indicated before, TBLT is facing the challenges of (tele)collaboration and psychology/the learners' mental acceptance of the task. Apart from that, although TBLT criteria have been widely accepted to guide teachers through their process of task specification (or shaping), they do not say anything about task design, meaning the process of conceiving a task concept or idea. Tasks keep falling from the sky. With our task design model, we try to close both gaps in the knowledge about TBLT, while facing the challenges of designing tasks for (tele)collaboration.

The task design model itself is an evolving concept which will be tested in the Spring of 2019 in various exchange projects in Europe. The model has already gone through extensive changes based on the feedback of TECOLA partners; 100 students in teacher education at the University of Antwerp (September 2017 - January 2018); 200 participants at conference presentations (CALICO 2017, CALL 2017, DFLL 2017 in Taiwan, PP-TELL 2018 in Taiwan, WorldCALL 2018 in Chile…); 85 participants at Teacher Training events organized at Ghent University, Mons University and Antwerp University in January 2017 ,and the teachers we are coaching in the TeCoLa project.

The task design model right now has the form of a questionnaire which should help teachers in conceptualizing and specifying more activating tasks on the one hand, and in gathering and analyzing data on the other. The questionnaire is divided into four categories: pedagogical approach, activity type, psychology and autonomy. For each category, between four and eight questions are asked to help the task designer work out said category.

5.1 Pedagogical approach

The part about the pedagogical approach poses questions about targeted competences and required knowledge, skills, insight and attitude. An example question from the questionnaire is: "Does the task target more than knowledge and skills?".

5.2 Activity type

The part about the activity type tries to identify which of the following four types of activities are being used:

- Tell: this activity is just communicating without any expected nor observable task outcome. It's just about the activity itself. Present yourself, your school, your country… This task is not necessarily strongly bidirectional.
- Interact: this activity is to do something with words with no tangible, measurable or describable task outcome but with possible (desirable) effect on the other person such as in the case of negotiating, convincing, ... The effect is that the other person is convinced, has made a concession, has come up with a new idea … This kind of tasks is more strongly bidirectional.
- Do: this activity leads to a real outcome in terms of observable phenomena (e.g. typical TBLT tasks such as go and buy something, play a game ...).
- Make: this activity leads to an artefact, mostly non-physical in the case of telecollaboration (exception activities with 3D printer?).

No outcome type is more valuable than the other. All depends on what is needed in a specific context. But our hypothesis is that the more challenging the context (e.g. the lower the motivation), the more reason for choosing "do" and even "make" types.

An example question from the questionnaire is: "Does the task require making something?".

5.3 Psychology fit

The part about the psychology is divided into three qualities and three levels, and helps the task designer to make the task as meaningful as possible. The qualities and levels are the following:

- three qualities:
    - meaningful: a task can be more authentic, acceptable and relevant
    - useful: a task can have an additional result for learner, learning environment or others

    - rewarding [advanced level only]: a task can address universal needs (competence, relatedness, autonomy), personal goals (respect, support, …) or Ideal Self Images
- three levels (based on the research presented in part 4):
    - global or universal: what we know learners worldwide want
    - local or context-dependent: what we know 'our' learners want
    - individual: what we know some learner want

An example question from the questionnaire is: "Does the task represent a real world activity?".

5.4 Autonomy

The last part of the questionnaire, about autonomy, determines the degree of freedom for the learner:

- Fixed task: tasks should be executed as such
- Task with degrees of freedom: learners can/should make some choices
- Negotiated task: learners discuss the task among themselves, with the teacher or with the other class and suggest changes
- Designed task: learners design a task themselves

This axis not only represents degrees of freedom for the learner, but also increasing importance of the pre-task discussion. On the lowest level, learners will probably first vent their reactions before actually starting to execute the task. The higher the level, the more complex and interesting this pre-task execution stage becomes. It is hypothesized that the pre-task discussion will be more interesting than the in-task discussion.

These three axes represent dimensions of task complexity but also potential activating power. Their purpose is not to have all 'levels' combined into one task, nor to prototype tasks on all levels. Within the TeCoLa project, partners and teachers should start with the simple straightforward task-as-is and then gradually evolve towards more complex tasks, in whatever order.

An example question from the questionnaire is: "Will the task description leave some options for the students?".

6. Research-based: transdisciplinarity

As said before, the TeCoLa-project, telecollaboration and our task design model can be located within the scope of Computer-Assisted Language Learning. CALL has a multidisciplinary character; it can be located within multiple disciplines: linguistics, technology, pedagogy, psychology, design and research.

When different people from the CALL field work together, this can be viewed as interdisciplinarity, which involves the combining of two or more academic disciplines into one activity. However, interdisciplinarity only occurs on one side, not on both. The more disciplines are involved, the weaker the model.

Therefore, Colpaert (2018) proposes a better solution than interdisciplinarity in cases like the TeCoLa project, where multiple disciplines come together (e.g. linguistics, language acquisition, technology, psychology and pedagogy). In this new approach, two levels are being distinguished: the activity level and the conceptual level. The activity level is the level where researchers and actors normally work in their own habitat. The conceptual level is the level where they create new knowledge constructs together, hereby transcending the boundaries between them. These constructs can then be instantiated back on the activity level as concrete discipline- or actor-specific notions.

Rather than talking about interdisciplinarity, Colpaert suggests talking about transdisciplinarity, which is an activity that stands for a new way of thinking. The activity consist in the co-construction (conceptualization and specification) of mental artefacts or knowledge constructs on a higher level of abstraction. These constructs can be models, concepts, objects, methods, metaphors, images and even frameworks. The activity consist in crossing boundaries between disciplines (linguistics, pedagogy, psychology, technology, sociology…).

CALL as a discipline should be transdisciplinary in essence: this is the only way to build its own knowledge base, theory, language and identity. It is also the only way to respect and integrate findings from psychology and motivation theory.

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Speaking with Emotion - The Importance of Body and Voice for Prosodic Awareness in Language Teaching and Learning

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Abstract

The work on prosody within the THEMPPO group (THEMatique Prosodie et Production Orale), in the Innovalangues Project at the Université Grenoble Alpes, places a strong emphasis on the emotional and sensory aspects of language, through a focus on the importance of the body and voice. Although prosody has an essential role to play in conveying the emotional content of speech, it has not always received enough attention in the language classroom (Frost and Picavet 2014: 26).

The THEMPPO approach is in part a kinaesthetic one, where the learner and the teacher are taken towards an increased level of self-awareness through an experience of what is taking place in the body, before and during speech. We regard physical awareness as an essential prerequisite to any work on the emotional and sensory aspects of language, leading the learner towards what Damasio (2000) described as 'the feeling of what happens'. It is one of the primary emotions, fear, that may cause kakorrhaphiophobia in learners, inhibiting their access to appropriate prosody. In our ongoing teacher training programme, activities are designed, through placing the accent on background emotions, to restore the neurological pathways for the voice to travel through the body, allowing a connection with the musical properties of speech. Ever since the invention of the printing press, language has become increasingly distanced from the body, on a trajectory which has now reached an extreme with devices such as the smartphone and the tablet. Through our work we seek to restore to the speaker a 'whole body' voice which is more receptive to, and can more easily manage emotion as an aspect of the speaking experience.

Two complementary approaches, or praxes, underpin our pedagogical training programme which constitutes the framework for our research. The Silent Experience focuses on what is happening in the body prior to, and within, oral production. This takes the teacher (and so the learner) from an awareness of physical posture, through breathing, to the role of the organs of articulation. The second approach, the Engaged Body, examines the role of the body in the speaking arena, be it within a classroom, a company presentation, the delivery of a conference paper or other formal speaking situations, as well as in more informal speaking occasions. The place of the imagination plays an important role in this exploration of the speaking arena, and the release of an emotional response, which is considered essential in seeking appropriate prosody, is encouraged.

In parallel with face-to-face work in training workshops we are developing our methods for sharing on a digital platform by means of pedagogical videos. Our action research programme includes gathering and analysing the responses and feedback of teachers to these videos and our training workshops. The first results obtained show a positive, indeed an enthusiastic, response from those who see in our work an innovative way of working on prosody through emotion, and who recognise the relevance of putting this work online.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

The IDEFI-ANR Innovalangues project at the Université Grenoble Alpes (UGA) is concerned with research into innovative pedagogical methods in the field of teaching and learning second languages. This project was a response to the 'discrepancy between the level of language proficiency expected of students in higher education establishments in France, and the levels obtained' (Innovalangues, 2012). One of the axes of research, led by the sub-group THEMPPO (THématique Prosodie et Production Orale) within Innovalangues is to develop new approaches to oral production and more particularly prosody. The starting point for this work is the simple observation that the act of speaking is a physical act; and thus the role of the body and the voice needs to be integrated into language teaching in a more conscious and systematic manner. The emotional and sensory aspects of language have become a focus of attention in our work, which is tested and transmitted principally through ongoing teacher training workshops at UGA, open to teachers and trainee teachers of all levels of education and a wide variety of educational contexts.

The importance of prosody - that is to say the musical properties (stress, rhythm and intonation) of speech - in language learning has, in recent years, started to receive the attention in academic circles which it was so long lacking. However, although this importance in terms of comprehension and intelligibility has been quite widely identified and discussed, as has the need to attribute a greater role to prosody in second language teaching (Frost and Picavet, 2014), it is an aspect of oral production which is still largely neglected in the language classroom (Munoz Garcia and Panissa, 2010). The current enthusiasm for it as a subject of research is restricted to a limited audience, and academic findings often do not reach the classroom (Lenegeris, 2012). Furthermore the ideas which are found in research papers may be presented in such a way that renders their implementation in the teaching curriculum difficult (Lenegeris, 2012). Another, more professionally sensitive aspect, that Lenegeris alludes to is the fact that a large number of language teachers are teaching a language which is not their mother tongue, and nowhere is this more in evidence than in their prosody. Their confidence may be undermined by this awareness and they may even believe that prosody cannot be taught, a belief perhaps also shared by many native language teachers.

Locke (1993:44) cited Dwight Bollinger (1989) who argued that 'intonation cannot be considered a grammatical matter because it is directly linked to emotion'.Locke (1993: 57) stated that, in drawing attention to the emotional content of prosody, 'prosody is not a by-product of sentences', but can have a semantic power in its own right. It was his belief that linguists and psycholinguists gave what he called 'affective vocal communication' too little of their attention, citing amongst other reasons a lack of an appropriate notational system. Since his observation, research into the link between prosody and emotion has gained ground (see for example Mozziconacci, 1995: Sbattella et al, 2014). However, this focus is primarily on the analysis of prosody as indicator of emotions. For example, Kostis et al (2015) provide insight on how emotion is implicitly recognized, distinguished, and processed according to the availability of particular cues in speech. Research has also looked at how prosody which is always there in speech is modulated by the emerging semantic context of speech as it unfolds (Schwartz & Pell, 2012).

The works cited above predicate that the prosody being analysed is an appropriate prosody for the language being used. The fact that the prosody of the second language learner is often perceived as a hindrance to effective communication reveals this not to be case. Prosody is in fact one of the aspects of oral production that can present the most problems in language learning, particularly for French students of English, as the accentuational, rhythmic and intonational aspects of the two languages are significantly different (Frost and Picavet 2014: 235). The action research component of THEMPPO's work within the Innovalangues project aims to develop an innovative pedagogy to address these issues. Our methods fuse the work of teachers, researchers in neurocognitive science and artists of the body and voice to create ongoing teacher training workshops, online video activities and a teacher's manual to promote the cause of prosody in oral communication. The role of emotion and feeling are central to our approach: our hypothesis is that work with emotions and feelings, so often absent in the language classroom, can be used to increase prosodic awareness in the learner.

The effect on prosody of the introduction of emotional content into the English language classroom using theatre techniques has been investigated by Colineau (2012). However, in all research into prosody little, if any, attention is given to the body and voice - that is to say, the postural, respiratory, kinaesthetic and articulatory demands of speaking. It is these physical aspects of speech that for THEMPPO play a very important role in creating the 'ever-changing landscape of [the] body during an

emotion' (Damasio, 2006). The problematic that we thus address is how to bring work on the body and voice into language learning, in order to use emotion as a tool to develop prosodic flexibility.

2. Methodology

THEMPPO workshops are structured around a variety of exercises in posture, breathing, voice and body in motion exercises that have their origins in the domains of theatre and dance. These activities follow two praxes, the Silent Experience and the Engaged Body, which are given a pedagogical focus by a frame of reference designated by the acronym AFEEL-FOR. It is this framework which puts the spotlight on the role of emotion and feeling in prosodic production.

The THEMPPO approach to prosody takes the learner towards an increased level of awareness of self and the other through the experience of focusing on what is taking place in the body, before and during speech, while incorporating the contextual environment of speech. Physical awareness is an essential prerequisite to any work on the emotional and sensory aspects of language, leading the learner towards what Damasio (2000) described as 'the feeling of what happens'. It is our intention with THEMPPO to provide teachers with concepts, ideas and activities to help them towards both a) greater awareness of the role of their own bodies and voices in the teaching process, and b) ways of more successfully integrating work on the body, voice and prosody in the language classroom.

2.1 The Silent Experience

'The Silent Experience' is a cognisance in which language is initially absent whilst feeling is prioritised. Exercises used in the exploration of this theme allow the learner to feel and listen to the sensations within the body, to experience the awareness of what is happening. The silence is an active silence which allows the mind and the body to become (re)connected in oral production. The focus is on posture, breathing and articulation (jaw, lips, tongue, soft palate). Exercises on articulation allow the learner to become more aware of what is happening in the shaping of sound, without making sound. These exercises are then extended into silent reading aloud. Silent reading has been identified by neuroscientists as bringing into play different aspects of language including phonology and emotion (Perronne-Bertoletti et al, 2016). They cite Mackay (1992) who suggested that, like speaking aloud, the inner voice (or inner speech) can have a vocal quality, with variations in rhythm and pitch. More recently, neuroimaging with FMRI scans has confirmed the presence of the inner voice during silent reading which can include variations in intonation and rhythm (Loevenbruck, Baciu, Sezgebarth & Abry, 2005). Silent reading aloud is also a good starting point for work on the inherent emotional quality of different phonemes, particular the role of vowels.

The awareness of the self and the other that comes from the Silent Experience is a first step to building confidence. Increasing confidence and reinforcing a background feeling of well-being introduces another aspect of emotion that Frijda (2003) has identified, that of emotion as motivation. Thus such work also brings the bonus of increased learner motivation in the language classroom. This is a facet of our work with emotion that we would like to explore further in the future.

2.2 The Engaged Body

The work of the Silent Experience is further pursued in the second THEMPPO praxis, 'the Engaged Body', our term for work that takes into account the notion of space in the speaking arena. The impact of work on the Engaged Body is significant in terms of the quality of both voice and presence. This 'engagement' has two corporal aspects: the relationship of the body with the space, the environment in which it finds itself - and in which it not only produces but also projects sound; and the relationship of the body with the body, that is to say the speaker with the listener(s). The analysis of ET Hall (1966) in his concept of proxemics and the communication descriptors ('Power Presentation Circles') of the voice coach Patsy Rodenburg (2009) have provided the basis for our Engaged Body approach. The aim is to help language learners to accrue confidence in their oral communication through an understanding of how the body, the source of speech, relates to the speaking environment and how they can impact the very quality - in terms of energy and dynamic - of this relation.

2.3 The AFEEL Frame of Reference (AFEEL FOR)

Those who are the envy of others because of their ability to learn foreign languages are often described as having 'a feel for languages'. Thus THEMPPO'S A FEEL Frame of reference, introduced in 2014, gives an implicit nod to the advanced language learner.

As evidenced by the name of this frame of reference and the inclusion of 'emotion' within it, in the work of THEMPPO the importance of defining clearly what is meant by 'emotion' and 'feeling' has been recognised. The two terms are often treated as being interchangeable, but the importance of voice and theatre-based work for THEMPPO has meant that the group is very receptive to Damasio's description of emotions 'playing out in the theatre of the body' and feelings 'playing out in the theatre of of the mind.' (Damasio, 2003:7). In addition, THEMPPO interprets the word 'feeling' as both emotional effect and physical sensation. For example, with regard to the latter, work on posture directs the learner to feel the weight of the body evenly distributed on both feet and to feel how breathing is affected if this is not the case.

AFEEL-FOR is:

A wareness – Work on awareness begins with Silent Experience exercises in which there is no language. Posture, breathing and articulation take centre stage and allow the learner to reconnect with, to feel, their own body. A very simple, useful awareness exercise is as follows: the learner walks into the space in front of the class/audience as though they are going to speak but does not do so. The learner leaves the space and having done so is asked to describe how they felt in that moment before speaking. The audience is then asked to describe what they observed. The teacher can prompt the class towards examining the criteria of posture, breathing, look and gesture. A follow-up stage involves using a sentence of introduction, with subsequent analysis focused on the vocal quality of the speaker, including volume and rate of speaking. At this point the teacher can explain the difference between self-awareness and self-consciousness: self-awareness can be directed towards a positive background emotion whilst self-consciousness reinforces negative background emotions. Finally, the teacher should always come back to the notion of awareness, which should be present at every stage of communication.

F ocus –The speaker must know to whom he or she is speaking. Being aware of where we are looking will help us to situate ourselves in the space. This may seem a very elementary observation but the failure to focus (on the listener) is very often a cause of diminished vocal power and, consequently, of ineffective communication. This awareness can be developed through activities in which the aim is to establish and keep eye contact with the other: for example, a story-telling exercise between two speakers in which the distance between them is varied in stages, to reinforce the role of focus.

E nergy – Corporal energy has an important effect on how the speaker feels and is perceived, the quality of the voice, and consequently on the dynamic quality of communication. Energy exercises can range from focused breathing to walking around the space (the latter offering the teacher the opportunity to explain the benefits of walking, which increases oxygen to the brain, producing endorphins to help make the brain ready for learning, and stimulates the frontal lobes of the brain, important in the development of language). Corporal and vocal energy then come together in group exercises such as 'Woosh'[9] and 'Zip Zap Zop',[10] involving the passing of sounds between group members at high speed[11].

E motion – The link between energy and emotion is clear when the Latin derivative of emotion, literally meaning 'energy in motion' is taken into account. With emotion, the speaker is seen and heard to identify with what he or she is talking about. Emotion is observed to bring greater variety in prosody. Putting words into context and using imagination are essential here. An example of this is found by taking a simple sentence as might be found in a grammar exercise and giving it a context. For example: 'I am going to the market." Does the speaker want to go to the market? Is it the speaker who always goes to the market, and thinks that just occasionally their partner should go? Has the speaker fallen in

[9] In a circle an invisible object is transferred around the circle, like an imaginary rugby ball, accompanied by saying the word 'woosh'. Anybody can change the direction of the 'woosh' by putting their two hands one on top of the other in front of them and saying the word 'wow'; At that moment the direction of travel of the Woosh must be reversed. A 'woosh' can also be zapped across the circle by saying 'zap' and indicating someone with both arms held out straight and the hands clasped together. To be done at speed with lots of energy.

[10] The three sounds are fired back and forth across the circle with a piston like motion of arms and body respecting the order Zip Zap Zop.

[11] Such activities are often found in theatre workshops or used by professional and amateur actors alike as warm-ups before rehearsals or performance.

love with the fruit seller on the market? Further to such situational contexts, the arrangement of the speaker/speakers' bodies can be varied to show the implications for emotion of different physical positions (lying, crouching, sitting, standing etc.), individual and relative.

Work of particular interest to us is that of the study of Myers-Schulz et al (2013) on the 'inherent emotional quality of human speech sounds'. The data presented in this study using spectrograph testing outlined a formula for constructing words and non-words that implicitly conjure up positive or negative emotions. The study demonstrated that 'certain strings of English phonemes have an inherent, non-arbitrary emotional valence that can be predicted on the basis of dynamic changes in acoustic features.' A finding was that 'nonsense words consisting of front phonemes i.e., phonemes articulated toward the front of the mouth are perceived as smaller, faster, lighter, and more pleasant than nonsense words consisting of back phonemes'. We started using nonsense words in our workshops at the same time that the study of Myers-Schulz was being carried out. Nonsense has always seemed to make sense to us by freeing the learner from the semantic content of words. Too often learners are focused on the content of what they have to say rather than on the form. By using nonsense language to reduce the limiting nature of semantic content on vocal freedom, we are seeking to give space to the emotional content.

L iberation – of the language. The whole content of the THEMPPO training programme is oriented towards putting together Awareness, Focus, Energy and Emotion to achieve greater Liberation in oral production. For us liberation means the learner is able to play and have fun with the prosody of the language and not feel constrained by the fear of making mistakes. Thus he or she is freed from the shackles of kakorrhaphiophobia. This word, meaning the fear of failure, describes a condition often found in learners of a second language, particularly in a teaching system which puts the emphasis on grammar and syntax. As a parenthesis it should be noted that THEMPPO has found kakorrhaphiophobia, with its eight syllables, an excellent word for playing with prosody.

Kristin Linklater, a voice coach who has acknowledged the important influence of Damasio, speaks in her seminal work 'Freeing the natural voice' (2016) of the need to restore 'direct neurophysiological pathways for the voice to travel through the body, arousing physical, sensory, sensual and emotional response' (328). Our work reflects this approach by seeking to restore to the speaker a 'whole body' voice which is more receptive to, and can more easily integrate emotion as an aspect of the speaking experience.

AFEEL functions as a frame of reference by providing a checklist for teachers in the preparation of a language class. Teachers can also link the elements of AFEEL to the nature of mother tongue acquisition, knowledge of which can help learners relate to their second language learning processes. Time spent doing this will facilitate the incorporation of body and voice activities into work in the language class, providing a response to the potentially questioning attitude ('why are we doing this?') of learners when confronted with exercises which seem to be far removed from those of a typical language class.

3. Results

The approach and framework described above is the result of a collaboration that brings together many years of collective experience in a variety of domains relating to teaching, the performing arts and research. It has been diffused through several cycles of ongoing teacher training workshops in a wide variety of pedagogical contexts. As part of the continuing action research component of the project, participant feedback is collected at the end of each session and, where possible, further feedback is elicited after a period of time has elapsed, to learn more about if and how teachers have felt able to adapt and apply the approach to their own teaching contexts and abilities.

In our latest action research cycle a panel of 30 language teachers who followed at least one session of our ongoing THEMPPO teacher training program in the last two years responded to an email questionnaire. It is this data that will be discussed here as an indication of the appropriateness of the THEMPPO approach, and to give potential directions for evolution in the future.

3.1 Emotion

All but one respondent recognized the relevance of work on and with emotion in the language classroom. The reasons that are mentioned can be classified into three areas:

- The content of oral communication: speaking means transmitting not only information but also feelings, through emotions. Emotions are inherent to oral communication, and so must be part of the mastery of efficient oral communication.
- The interaction of emotions and cognitive aspects of teaching: a recognition of the emotional aspects contained within the learning process will help teachers to better control the whole process.
- Embodied cognition: linking target language with emotions will help the learner to feel, live and incorporate that language.

A small proportion of respondents also spontaneously mentioned the importance of the link between emotions and the body.

3.2 Prosody

Although almost all respondents believe that activities in the classroom involving emotions will improve their learners' prosody, more than one in four still do not use such activities in class, generally because they still do not feel at ease with such exercises. Those who do use activities around emotion in the classroom (just under half of respondents) also signaled that they feel the need for more training and feedback.

Improvements in students' prosody are noticed by at least half of the respondents when doing THEMPPO activities in class, but not all of them felt the link between emotion and prosody was obvious in the activities they did.

4. Discussion

The teacher feedback detailed above strongly suggests that while THEMPPO-trained teachers largely appreciate the need for work with emotions within language pedagogy, and many make the link between emotion and prosody, they remain reluctant to bring such activities into the classroom. The question must be asked why these teachers have difficulty incorporating work on body, voice, emotions and prosody into their own practice, despite the fact that the need is clearly present and its importance is recognised. There are a number of possible hypotheses for this:

- The physical nature of THEMPPO activities remains very different to standard language classroom practice, with the potential to push both teachers and learners out of their comfort zones.
- It can be difficult to overcome the physical passivity of students, accustomed to being seated and, for much of the time, unresponsive.
- Teaching areas, often lacking space and oriented to the seated, static learner, are not adapted (or adaptable) to such physical, movemented activity.
- Such activities are difficult to incorporate into assessment, as progress can be subtle and difficult to measure.

These results suggest that whilst the current modalities of diffusion of the THEMPPO approach have so far had significant success in terms of raising teacher awareness regarding the importance of prosody, the links between body, prosody and emotion and their role in language pedagogy, more remains to be done in terms of fully equipping teachers with the confidence and resources they need to integrate this important work into their teaching practice at the classroom level.

5. Conclusion

"Focusing on body, voice, and sound. It now makes sense and I finally want to work that way with my students. Whereas before I would do anything I could to avoid it" (Bélanger, 2017)[12]

The integration of emotion and feeling into work on body and voice can be as elusive as prosody when it comes to work in the language classroom. Yet we have shown that all these things are irrevocably linked, and to bring this relationship to the forefront can have a positive effect on oral production pedagogy. Our results show that THEMPPO-trained teachers understand the value of this work, but still do not always feel fully at ease or fully equipped to integrate such work into their practice. We feel more research is needed to analyse why this is the case and to understand how we can continue to facilitate the integration of this work into the learner classroom.

We envisage further development of our ongoing teacher training workshops to take into account the results of this study. Work is also continuing on methods of providing additional support to teachers beyond the face-to-face workshops: this includes a series of activity videos, to be made available online as additional explanation and reminders for trainees, and a written manual for teachers. In the future we also intend to draw upon research taking place in embodied and situated cognition, with which our work has been identified.

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[12] Sophie Bélanger (participant in a THEMPPO teacher training workshop, 2017). "*Travailler plutôt le corps, la voix, le son. Tout d'un coup ça prend du sens et j'ai enfin envie de travailler ça avec mes étudiants - alors qu'avant je faisais tout pour ne pas le faire.*" (Author translation.)

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Finding the 'perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning' in bilingual education in the social sciences: the role of the L1

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Abstract

My paper presents first findings of my "design-based action research" (Nijhawan, 2017) in a 10th grade Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classroom in Politics & Economics (L1: German, *mostly* the mother tongue; L2: English, foreign language). The research was directed towards, *inter alia,* facilitating the development of a **'perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning'** through the benefits from code-switching languages. A new competence model defining '**global discourse competence'** as central constituted the theoretical framework**.** It encompasses the newest insights from the theory of CLIL teaching, including a recommended paradigm shift towards a *systematic and functional L1 integration into CLIL* (e.g. Butzkamm, 2003, 2011; Cook, 2001; Diehr, 2016; Lasagabaster, 2013; Lo, 2014).

Evidence from short-term experiments in psychology suggests that thinking in a foreign-language involves deeper cognitive processing and thus ends in more rational judgments, whereas in turn deliberation in the mother tongue is claimed to be more emotional (Keysar, Hayakawa, & An, 2012). Such line of thought has been applied even before during long-term therapy with bilingual patients, which requires both emotional and rational sequencing (Martinovic & Altarriba, 2013). I argue that a similar approach can be useful as a 'therapy for global justice' in CLIL classes in Politics & Economics. A bilingual approach, as I will show, enables 'the global and the local' not only to peacefully coexist, but make *glocalization* (Robertson, 1995) a realistic and living concept.

On the one side, emotions are seen as prerequisite for empathy (Davis, 2006). On the other side, rationalism is an important cornerstone for any appropriate judgment. Following the recent *emotional turn* and "boom in emotions" (Dustdar, 2008, p. 33) in science, the instrumental role emotions play during learning is gradually being welcomed. However, emotions need to be controlled, because in their pure form they could render any judgment to be neither legitimate nor efficient – even unworldly. On the flipside, a pure rational judgment as a result of a cost-benefit analysis does often exclude the human dimension, and along any feelings – and thus is unworldly as well. Therefore, both need to be kept in a 'perfect equilibrium'. Hence, CLIL education along the lines of code-switching languages within "trans-*foreign*-languaging spaces" I suggest in accordance with García and Li (2014), serves as an apt means to control this interplay. It highlights the influence of languages and emotions on the literacy of judgment during controversial debates.

Against this background, I designed CLIL lessons gravitating around the topic of climate change with the L1 occupying an integral part. Observations, feedback rounds and interviews, surveys, learner products including formal assessment, serve as the main body of data. First results from observations indicate that code-switching languages influences the affective domain. The majority of students however denies any effect of the language on their decisions, believing that the content alone, and not the language, matters (e.g. *"the language does not make me a different person"*). Hence, an ongoing in-dept content-analysis of learner products to be presented will reveal whether or not the assumptions withstand reality.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

My paper investigates whether a bilingual approach to classes in the social sciences can engender a *perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning* with the objective of promoting *rational altruism.* Preliminary results indicate that bi- and multilingual education along the lines of promoting global discourse competence can be a panacea for a more inclusive and humanist approach towards cosmopolitan education and thus global justice and solidarity.

The article will be structured as follows. At first the *emotional turn*, welcoming the presence and function of emotions, will receive due attention. Thereafter, we will look at *bilingualism and emotions*. These two parts will be integrated into a new competence model for *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) classes in Politics & Economics. We will learn that – as a 'positive side-effect' – CLIL lets us target emotional and rational learning, respectively, with a judicious and principled use of the L1 (here: mostly the mother tongue), juxtaposed with its natural focus on the L2 (here: a foreign language).

The theoretical pillars of the competence model defined the roadmap for a *'design-based action research'* in a 10th grade (German: L1; and English: L2). We were able to note a significantly different degree of affectivity depending on the language used, although students' self-perception largely deviates from our observations. However, the results are still in the process of validation, and evidence at present is rather modest. Hence, we also hope to motivate further research initiatives to address this question.[13]

2. Theoretial and historical background

2.1. About global challenges – and opportunities

We should start with a short excursus to depict the merits of the so-called emotional turn. At the very latest, the summer of 2018 unveiled – finally also to a wider audience – the utmost urgency to place a serious global challenge on the top of the political agenda without further delay: climate change. Latest with the findings of the *Club of Rome* in 1968, questions revolving around the conservation of our habitat are being debated among and between scientists and politicians, and have also pervaded society. The effects of climate change are tough-mindedly felt in the daily life of the world population. There is almost a universal consensus that the *"business-as-usual scenario"* imposes a serious threat to the sustainable future of the world. Climate change illustrates how the global and the local constitute a unified phenomenon, also called "*gLocalization*" (Robertson, 1995; my emphasis and capitalization). In other words, it is a challenge affecting *us*, but at the same time also concerns all *others*, often more than 10,000 kilometers away. Debates happen, *inter alia,* at a local level in the surrounding language as well as at a global level, mostly in the *lingua franca* English.

2.2. The emotional turn[14]

The reference to climate change was meant to exemplify that political action needs to consider positions beyond personal and national interests.[15] Our times require to not only to "think global and act local", as the famous slogan says, but think and act globally and locally at the same time (Karliner, 2000). It is necessary to know how others are feeling. Hence, the challenge to deconstruct the well-known *we and they* distinction becomes urgent.

From theory and research on the sociology of emotions, we know that empathy cannot sprout without emotions (Davis, 2006). Empathy again comes as harbinger and starting point of global justice and solidarity (Korte, 2015, or the edited volume of Flam & King, 2005). Against this background the impact of the *emotional turn* from the 1970s offers the opportunity to open the "*black box*" and provide insights to how humans *really* think and feel (Stets & Turner, 2006, p. 1). Research over the last decades has taught us that emotions as a matter of fact do not preexist as innate character traits. Rather, they

[13] As the research took place in a German classroom, parts of the debates will be tailored to the setting in Germany, which does not mean that the insights don't have any relevance for other contexts as well.
[14] This short section is a rewritten extract in accordance with a forthcoming publication of Engartner and Nijhawan (2018).
[15] Apart from climate change, typical global challenges, *inter alia*, include poverty & inequality, multiculturalism, domestic and transnational power relations, demography, resource (mis)management and human rights.

are a learnable social constructs (Weber, 2016), rendering the emotional turn particularly attractive for education (Barbalet, 2002).

On the flipside, we know that emotions in their lone and uncontrolled form can also cause illegitimate outcomes. *"Trumpism"* serves as a perspicuous example about the detrimental effects of uncontrolled emotions on politics and society. It has become quotidian that his tweets are followed by opposing echoes demanding the return to rationality – the face of intellect and reason in the modern history of science (Detjen, 2017; Nida-Rümelin, 1992). However, rational choice in its pure form defies *homo economicus* as an ideal type of an actor, negating any emotional foundation of judgment and human action. But emotions and rationality, often wrongly classified as having a diametrically opposite existence, are in reality closely juxtaposed. Instead, *„[e]very cognitive frame implies emotional framing"* (Flam, 2005, p. 24). Here, the merits of affect control theory by Heise (1979) become applicable. Emotions are seen as the stimulus for human action, but can – and need to be – internally controlled.[16]

To promote global discourse competence with global justice and solidarity as essential features, I thus argue for the genesis of a perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning. The question how to control emotions, or, in turn, fill rationality with feelings, leads us to consider the functions of language and bilingualism.

2.3. Bilingualism and emotion

CLIL is the umbrella term in the European Union (EU) for *"all types of provision in which a second language (a foreign, regional or minority language and/or another official state language) is used to teach certain subjects in the curriculum other than the language lessons themselves".* (European Commission, 2006, p. 8). Although there is no unique CLIL pedagogy applied in teaching programs across the member states, one similarity can be discerned. *De facto* a strong bias towards regarding upon CLIL as a modern approach towards foreign language learning in the form of *"additive late partial immersion"* (Breidbach & Viebrock, 2012, p. 6) prevails. The absence of educational standards hitherto is a missed opportunity to define a roadmap how the full potential of CLIL – with its undisputed worldwide success – can be emerged. In many cases, the L1 is used for translation and vocabulary work only at most – if at all.[17]

As we could learn, the affective domain of decision-making and human action is central to education in the social sciences and deserves deeper diligence. A pivotal assumption for reasoning a judicious and profound integration of the L1 as a main pillar for CLIL classes in the social sciences can be constructed in line with evidence from experimental psychology. After a row of game theoretical experiments, Keysar, Hayakawa, and An (2012) claim that humans are biased towards more emotional decisions in their L1, while decisions taken in an L2 show more rational features involving deeper cognitive processing. A similar train of thought has been adopted in therapy and counselling for decades. Drawing on the experience of specialists, Martinovic and Altarriba (2013) assign the language employed with bilingual patients an instrumental role. They argue that *code-switching* languages, for extracting emotions in their L1, is central and desired during any session. Emotions, in their pure and lone form again counterproductive, can be rationally controlled while systematically employing the L2. Rationality is as central to therapy as well – but again, never in its pure essence.

We can anticipate that switching languages within a CLIL arrangement can as well have a significant impact on learning outcomes in the social sciences, as *'therapy for global justice and solidarity'*. The theoretical thoughts of this and the preceding section have resulted in constructing a competence model for CLIL classes in the social sciences.

[16] Goleman (1995) takes the same line with his bestseller *Emotional Intelligence*. His theory postulates, *inter alia,* empathy, self-awareness and self-regulation as cornerstones of an effective emotional management.

[17] E.g. in Germany, *The Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs* (KMK, 2013, p. 8), recommends any reference to the L1 solely for mediating terminology and vocabulary.

3. Uniting emotional and rational learning: global discourse competence

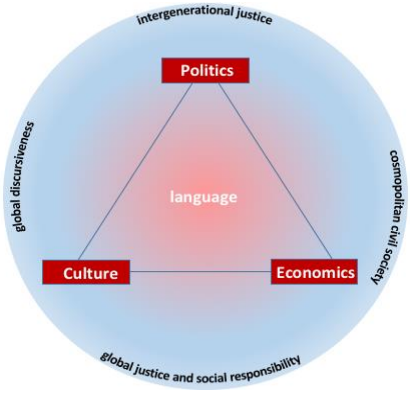

Figure 1: The triangle of Politics, Economics & Culture (Elsner, Engartner, Nijhawan, & Rodmann, 2018, p. 5).

Due to the absence of educational standards in CLIL, a full-fledged conceptual framework has been developed by the *PolECulE*-project (Elsner et al., 2018).[18] Language is not only seen as a mere vehicle but as central for the achievement of subject knowledge *(Figure 1).*

Global discursiveness defines the fulcrum of the model. This train of thought has been translated into defining global discourse competence as the main interdisciplinary bilingual competence for CLIL classes in *Politics & Economics,* with an integration of culture. The combination of six competence fields *in Figure 2* includes at first all the four main competences from the subject *Politics & Economics*. The two remaining competences round the competence model out and define the L1 use as instrumental for bilingual classes.

Inter- and transcultural literacy mainly envisages the understanding of alternative perspectives, along with the ability to feel unity, togetherness, and develop empathy. Altruism should be considered as alternative to mere self-interest. Realizing the merits from intercultural language didactics, *foreign language and communicative competence* includes the ability of an equipollent L1 and L2 proficiency. Foreign language and communicative competence requires students to code-switch languages at certain sequences. As already argued, the mixed language use could possibly lead to the envisaged perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning.

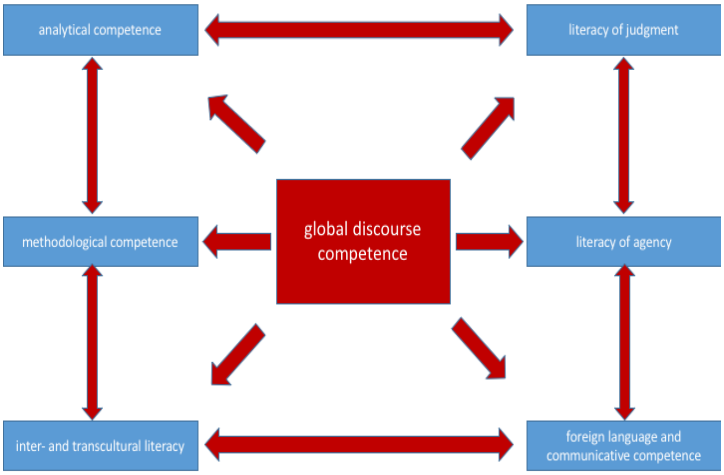

Figure 2: The competence model with the global discourse competence at the center (Elsner et al., 2018, p. 19; PolECule, 2017).

3.1. Defining an ideal human type: rational altruists

To develop a more nuanced model of the ideal type of decision making, not only the distinction between emotions and rational choice is important, but also the opposite between self-interest and altruism. These two extremes are again closely correlated with rationality and emotions, respectively, and help in more clearly distinguishing how global discourse competence should be achieved. In accordance with criteria for political judgment[19] for a multilayered judgment, the argument is brought forward that *rational altruism* – altruism out of reason, intellect and logic – is the only solution to transform global challenges into global opportunities. *Table 1* exemplifies this train of thought at the example of climate change policies. In other words, rational altruism serves as a masterplan for the aforementioned "therapy for global justice and solidarity".

[18] More about the *PolECulE*-project – an acronym for Politics, Economics & Culture in English – can be retrieved at: http://www.polecule.com. The author of this article is one of the founding members of the interdepartmental research initiative.

[19] The four criteria efficiency (rationality), legitimacy (normative and moral questions), self-interest and perspective changes belong to the main criteria for political judgments, according to Massing (2003), one of the most prominent representative in German political education. In this context, Sander (2007) distinguishes between factual-based rational judgments and moral-based value judgments.

Example: Position towards climate change policies	
pure emotional self-interest The learner is (for or) against a harder measures to combat climate change out of pure self-interest. S/he may have loved (or hated) the hot summer of 2018. Global justice and international solidarity are out of reach. *„Trumpism"*	**pure emotional altriusm** The learner is for (or against) harder measures to combat climate change, because in her or his eyes, quests for emphatic global climate justice are either supported or jeopardized. *references to the empathy altruism hypothesis (Batson, Duncan, Ackerman, Buckley, & Birch, 1981)*
pure rational self-interest The learner is (for or) against harder measures to combat climate change after a jejune cost-benefit analysis, without considering other perspectives. S/he may have benefited (or suffered) from the hot summer of 2018. Any quest for global justice is jeopardized. *„homo economicus"*	**pure rational altruism** The learner is for (or against) harder measures to combat climate change after a jejune cost-benefit analysis, because s/he realizes that sustainability benefits or disadvantages by global climate justice for everyone as a result. *references to social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) and effective altruism (Singer, 2015)*

Table 1. Categories of forming an opinion on global challenges and opportunities at the example of economic globalization

4. Classroom research

4.1. Measuring emotions and altruistic behavior

Approaching any classification and measurement of emotions is a highly controversial undertaking (Thamm, 2006). Mauss & Robinson (2009) provide a critical review of different measures of emotions and group them into four main categories, two of them requiring complicated neuroscientific laboratory utilities and settings. As we will learn, the research was set to take place in a completely natural learning environment. Hence the following procedure, relying on the subjective experience of the students and their observed behavior, was adopted.

4.1.1 Rating system: self-assessment as starting point

After a comprehensive and controversial lesson row on *homo economicus*, along with a number of different tasks, relating the concepts directly to the students and their living environment, the students were asked to range their average personality on a scale of 0 – 10. The extreme points indicate their belief to be completely rational (0), or completely emotional (10) persons. The exact middle (5) means the students see themselves in perfect equilibrium (50% rational; 50% emotional). The system was meant to help students monitoring their inner-self during the working processes. Moreover, these self-reporting values will be used at a later point during the content-analysis in a mathematical model.

The same system was applied to the question of self-interest (0) and altruism (10), with the exact middle (5) again indicating an equal proportion of each extreme value.

4.1.2 Student's perception

With the introductory survey, the students would be requested to state their opinion on questions related to the research. Similar questions were asked with surveys during and after the undertaking. Furthermore, certain tasks required to apply the abovementioned quantitative rating system to their answers, and evaluate same in terms of their rational/emotional *(RAEM)* content as well as to the categories self-interest or altruism *(SIAL)*. The students' rating thus always consisted of a two-numbered pair from 0-10 [RAEM(0-10);SIAL(0-10)].

4.1.3 Observations

The researcher as well as the team members were set to observe each one group of students. A handout defining emotional categories (e.g. facial expressions, vocabulary, rhetoric, voice characteristics etc.) provided a guideline to classify the students' behavior.

4.1.4 Content analysis

Bilingual assessment was scheduled for the end of the research, making the written L1 and L2 use of the students comparable. The qualitative content analysis with categories defining rational and emotional as well as self-interest and altruistic arguments is at present ongoing. Results will be computed together with the results of the rating system, and available by end of the year.

4.2. Research design and methods – general information

The preceding theoretical framework provided the guideline for a single case study in a 10th grade (N=22) of a German High School in 2017. All students at the public school have one year of CLIL lessons in the social sciences for four hours a week, making it a regular and not an elective course within their school curriculum. In the study group, the L2 is a foreign language of all students, while L1 constitutes the mother tongue for almost everyone, or at least a second language comparable to fluent German speakers. All students voluntarily expressed their informed consent to take part in the research. All surveys were taken completely anonymously to protect the identity of the participants.

The research project was initiated to meet the oftentimes demanded development of teaching methods for the judicious and principled integration of the L1 into CLIL classes (e.g. Frisch, 2016; Gierlinger, 2015). This means that at certain times, the students had to work in their L1, at other times in their L2, in accordance with the teaching models investigated.[20] The researcher at the same time is their regular teacher who also initiated the research in the manner of action research in a natural learning environment. As democratic stakeholder participation – this includes students as well as the teacher-researcher – defines the cornerstone of the research, the outline is pragmatic in its setting. The teacher researcher holds the position of a research associate abreast at *PolECulE*. Hence, apart from a team structure he had established at university, a similar structure was installed at school, to plan, design, test, and redesign the classes. Putting action and design-based research together into one single framework prompts it to be 'design-based action research (DBAR)' (Nijhawan, 2017). Such an explorative approach suggests mixed methods to be employed for triangulation purposes.

To limit the scope of this paper to its title, the following part will only focus on the research related to the possible emergence of a perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning as a 'side-effect' while testing the bilingual teaching methods.[21] This is mirrored in the following research question:
RQ: Does an L1 integration into CLIL classes in the social sciences lead to a perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning?

4.3 Data

In line with the given concept on measuring emotions within a natural learning environment, the body of data would be assembled as follows:

- self-assessment with the rating system;
- surveys: the students were requested to answer QUANQUAL surveys before, during and after the research;
- observation data, reconstructed as "Thick Description" (Geertz, 1973): the teacher researcher as well as the observers met for debriefing sessions and shared their observations and impressions;
- analysis of learner products: learner products, including the *written bilingual exam*, will be analyzed;

[20] These included, *inter alia*, (a) a phase-based model with all students working either in the L1 or the L2, and (b) a role-based model, with half of the students working in the L1, and the remainder of the students simultaneously working the L2.
[21] The results of the full research project will be published in a full monography in near future. The *PolECulE*-project distinguishes itself through its close partnership with selected schools. The practical component of the ongoing project aims at bridging the gap between theoretical research and its practical implementation, with the ambition to define a best practice example.

- instant classroom feedback and individual as well as group interviews: in line with the DBAR, instant feedback necessary to plan the lessons during the research period; same proved to be an instrumental data source for this research question.

5. Preliminary results

The data analysis is in an ongoing state. Full results will be available later this year. First results, however, that help to appraise the research and further refine the necessary steps to be taken can already be reported.

5.1 Survey responses

In the introductory survey, the students were asked to respond whether they see a difference in their decisions in accordance with the language they speak. The same question was asked after seven weeks of research in the final survey after the research was concluded. They also had the opportunity to comment on their responses.

Comparing your decisions in English or German: do you see any significant difference in terms emotionality or rationality in the respective language you use (L1/L2)? (N=19)		
Answer	I do not see any significant difference	I see a significant difference
introductory survey (N=19)	16 (84%) *"I have the same opinion in both languages. I am not another person in the other language!"*	3 (16%) *"For me it's more complicated to express my feelings in English. That's why I rather have to refer to facts, whereby in German it is easier for me to express my feelings."*
final survey (N=16)	11 (69%) *"I don't think anything changed while switching languages. Possibly because I always think in German and then translate."*	5 (31%) *"I think that my emotions are way more important for me when taking decisions in german. Depending on the situation it sometimes feels a bit like a game where I decide completely out of emotion in english. [sic!]"*

Table 2. Comparing decisions in English and German (each one qualitative item that best represents the other written answers is given as an example).

Table 2 highlights that a clear majority of students not only negated any effect of the language on decisions, but some even expressed surprise about this question at all. Only a small number of students had an affirmative response. It seems like a lot of awareness and reflexibility is needed to self-monitor any change. The students were thus explicitly requested during the research to pay due diligence to their nature of decision making in both languages, also with assistance of the rating system. Moreover, we had regular group discussions on this issue (see below).

The final survey does not show any groundbreaking change. Although responses are slightly different, these results do not seem to be significant, and could have also been caused by random effects in relation to the small population surveyed.

5.2 Group discussions

During the research period, we took up the issue several times. The responses of the students mirror the results of the survey. Most students reacted with surprise to the recurring question whether they discerned any difference in their decisions in relation to the language they spoke. The language does not affect their personality and opinions, it echoed. The minority of students with a different opinion only modestly expressed their view, if at all.

5.3 Observations by the researcher and the team

The observations, however, delivered a completely different picture. Affective responses and arousal were without any doubt stronger when students communicated with each other in the L1 (L1, translated: *"This is not true!"*). In turn, communication within the L2 lead to a more rationalized picture (*"You just*

said that… […] I disagree with you…"), because students needed more time to express their thoughts and opinions, looking for the appropriate language and terminology, thwarting the first affective seconds after the stimulus received. During a mixed arrangement as *"translanguaging space"* (Wei, 2011), with each two L1 and L2 speakers in a group negotiating a controversial topic with each other, L1 speakers proved to be less acrimonious and impulsive, and thus more considerate with their group members. They expressed emotional words but made sure those students working in the L2 could participate equally. The setting was almost comparable to speaking with a smaller sibling. Students tended to show more patience and consideration with their input (L1, translated: *"But you need to consider that…")*. Reactions in the L2 usually took more time than in the L1.

Especially mixed language arrangements indicated a stronger control of emotions and transformed the group discussions into a more rational form, with the requirement to invest cognitive resources for the benefit to be able to discuss under these more challenging conditions. In other words, to all observers it appeared that deliberation and the use of cognitive resources was deeper even as compared to monolingual arrangements, no matter whether in the L2 or – as it typically happens – in the L1. But the use of the L1 enabled students to express more feelings, which were comparatively absent during discussions in only the L2. Discussions were mostly open, to the subject and controversial, with a comparable good participation of all group members.

6. Discussion and steps for final validation

The observation data indicates that a perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning could possibly develop during CLIL classes with a judicious and principled L1 integration, as opposed to the monolingual practice. The students' point of view on this is in clear opposition, as the surveys and group discussion show. This underlines the requirement for further investigation, as any evidence is too thin to make a clear statement at this point.

The qualitative content analysis of a bilingual exam, making the L1 and L2 use of the students in terms of the emotional content comparable, is currently ongoing. The results will be computed with the rating system the students had completed earlier. In that context, also the question whether students' arguments are more from a self-interest or altruistic perspective will be analyzed, to see whether CLIL lessons and a promotion of multilingualism in translanguaging spaces can possibly lead to rational altruism. As hard evidence is not available yet, and probably requires larger research, it is too early to come to a final conclusion.

7. Outlook

As the short discussion indicated, it is yet too early to conclude in how far CLIL provides as a framework for affect control, towards promoting rational altruism in the environment of a perfect equilibrium of emotional and rational learning. The ongoing content analysis will be a significant step to answer this research question – or can at least define a masterplan for a larger research undertaking.

Furthermore, after completing this part of the larger study, larger data samples, more sophisticated methods and a team comprising experts from neighboring sciences will be needed to validate the findings. In this context, videography of the group negotiations becomes a necessary alternative, to more closely monitor the genesis of emotions at certain sequences with targeted treatments, in line with the language used. Of course, during videography the learning environment is less natural, because students will most likely adapt their behavior more with the cameras at the back of their mind. This could distort the outcome. At this point it however can already be noted that the assumption expressed in this paper is everything but farfetched.

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Capturing Learners' Emotional Responses to Computer-Mediated Peer-Feedback in English Proficiency

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Abstract

Group massification and blended learning methods are forcing language practitioners to revisit the issue of student independent learning. Peer-feedback, aka peer review/editing/assessment (Yu & Lee, 2016: 461), is widely implemented in today's educational landscape. It aims to develop crucial competencies in text revision and editing. Next to traditional pen-and-paper forms of peer-feedback, computer-mediated peer-feedback (Yu & Lee, 2016: 469) is now steadily gaining ground. Yet, little is known to-date about the range of emotions that are induced by this type of feedback. The current paper addresses this issue and aims to measure English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' emotional attitudes towards online peer-feedback carried out via the D-PAC tool (*Digital Platform for Assessment of Competences*[22]) which was jointly developed by the Universities of Antwerp and Gent (Belgium). To capture EFL learners' responses to online peer-feedback, we developed a questionnaire which aimed to tap into learners' emotional responses to computer-mediated peer-feedback. The informants were 64 second-year students from the University of Antwerp taking part in the English Proficiency 4 course. The data indicate a rather mixed picture when it comes to student attitudes to (online) peer-feedback. A wide spectrum of emotions seems to be generated by computer-mediated peer-feedback, including for instance 'delight', 'curiosity', 'frustration', 'anxiety', 'boredom', etc. On a scale of 1 to 5, students mostly rated computer-mediated feedback as being a 4 (rather useful) or a 3 (neither useful nor useless), with a minority ranking it as a 2 (somewhat useless). In the discussion we will, among others, address how these results relate to students' level of proficiency level, motivation for the program and the course, and the quality of social interaction in the group.

[22] D-PAC official webpage: https://www.d-pac.be/

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

Although traditional forms of pen and paper peer feedback have been extensively studied (Freeman, 1995; Strachan & Wilcox, 1996), "research regarding the emotional response of learners in online peer assessment activities is relatively scarce" (Cheng, Hou & Wu, 2014:272). We aim to contribute to this strand of research by capturing the emotional reactions of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners to peer assessment carried out in a computer-mediated context.

The first section of this paper briefly reviews some of the main findings presented in the literature about (online) peer feedback. Section two presents the set-up of the current study. It describes the Digital Platform for the Assessment of Competences (henceforth D-PAC) which was used to implement online peer assessment, the online peer feedback activities which the EFL learners were asked to engage in, as well as the data which were collected to capture their emotional responses to these tasks. Section three zooms in on the results of our survey regarding the types of emotional responses generated by online peer feedback. The paper ends with a number of suggestions regarding ways in which to encourage positive emotional responses to online peer feedback.

2. Literature review

Liu & Hansen (2002: 1) define peer feedback as "the use of learners as sources of information and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher, tutor, or editor in commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing". Despite the reservations expressed by a number of language education professionals, peer feedback has become a widely implemented pedagogical method.

In theory, the peer feedback method pursues a number of pedagogical objectives which in an ideal world would benefit both language learners and their teachers (Yu & Lee, 2016). From a learner perspective, peer feedback aims, among others, to foster cognitive skills (e.g., noticing, comparing, negotiating meaning, self- & peer-editing, commenting, assessing) and lead to long-term improvement in language writing skills (structure, argumentation, accuracy, complexity). For students wishing to become language teachers, the above are some of the most crucial skills that need to be acquired. From the teacher's perspective, peer feedback is intended to foster learner autonomy and collaboration among students, as well as provide the students with more versatile types of feedback.

In reality however, research results into the benefits of peer feedback are generally inconclusive and rather mixed (Ho & Savignon, 2007; Yu & Lee, 2016), with some studies reporting positive effects of peer reviewing on cognitive and language skills (Liu & Tsai, 2005), while others found that learners responded rather negatively to the peer feedback experience, be it in the traditional or online mode (Wen & Tsai, 2006). Findings worth mentioning concern the anonymous nature of online peer reviewing which was found to create an uninhibiting type of environment where learners are free to express their 'real' thoughts about their peers' work without them losing face. Importantly, Cheng (2009) found that online peer feedback increased students' learning time outside the classroom but that it did not have an impact on learner motivation, engagement and autonomy. In general, the literature reports mixed student attitudes towards online peer feedback with students mainly expressing reservations towards the quality of the feedback provided by their peers. It is thus safe to say that, to this day, (online) peer feedback is met with a certain amount of scepticism by students, a finding which also emerges from the present study (see Section 3 below).

Given the contradictory results reported in the literature about the effectiveness of (online) peer feedback, we believe it is impossible to claim whether peer feedback is, in and of itself, a 'universally' pedagogically valuable method. Rather, the way in which learners respond to peer feedback is likely to be the result of an interaction between the context in which the peer feedback method is implemented (tasks, tools, proficiency of students, group dynamics, teacher guidance, etc.) and each student's individual emotional response to this environment (levels of anxiety, motivation, perceived aptitude, etc.). In other words, the effectiveness of the online peer feedback experience is likely to strongly depend on "what goes on inside" (Muñoz & Ortega-Martín, 2005: 42). It is precisely "what went on inside" during the online peer reviewing activities which the current study has attempted to capture.

3. Participants, data, methods

3.1 The D-PAC tool

The present study reports on the emotional responses of Dutch-speaking EFL learners to the online peer feedback activities which were implemented in the context of an advanced English Proficiency course (Engels: Taalbeheersing 4) in the Department of Literature and Linguistics at the University of Antwerp, Belgium. To actively perform online peer assessment the students were required to use the D-PAC[23] tool, an online platform developed jointly by the University of Antwerp, the University of Ghent and imec.

Concretely, D-PAC is an innovative tool for assessing a wide range of competences, based on the method of Comparative Judgement. As the D-PAC developers explain, Comparative Judgement is based on Thurstone's Law of Comparative Judgement which "stipulates that people are better and more reliable when comparing two things than in assigning an absolute score to (only) one thing" (d-pac.be). In the context of online peer assessment, students were thus asked to holistically compare two of their randomly selected peers' texts and decide which one was the "better" text (see Figure 1). Each text was assessed by multiple peers, which heightens the reliability of the holistic student judgements.

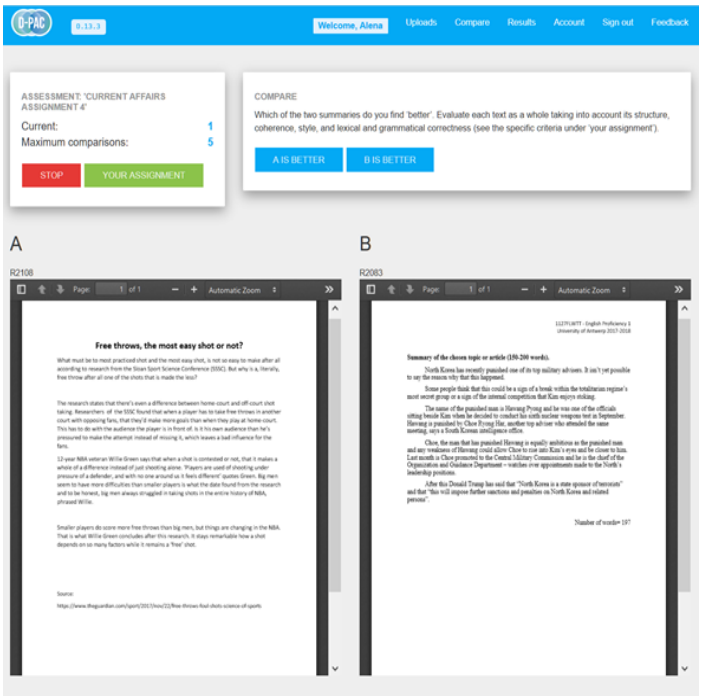

Figure 1: D-PAC window for comparative judgement

Following the holistic judgement, students were subsequently presented with two separate boxes (one for each text) in which they were asked to provide their feedback on matters pertaining to overall impact, text structure, quality of content and argumentation, style and register, language mechanics (accuracy) (see Figure 2 below).

[23] https://www.d-pac.be/

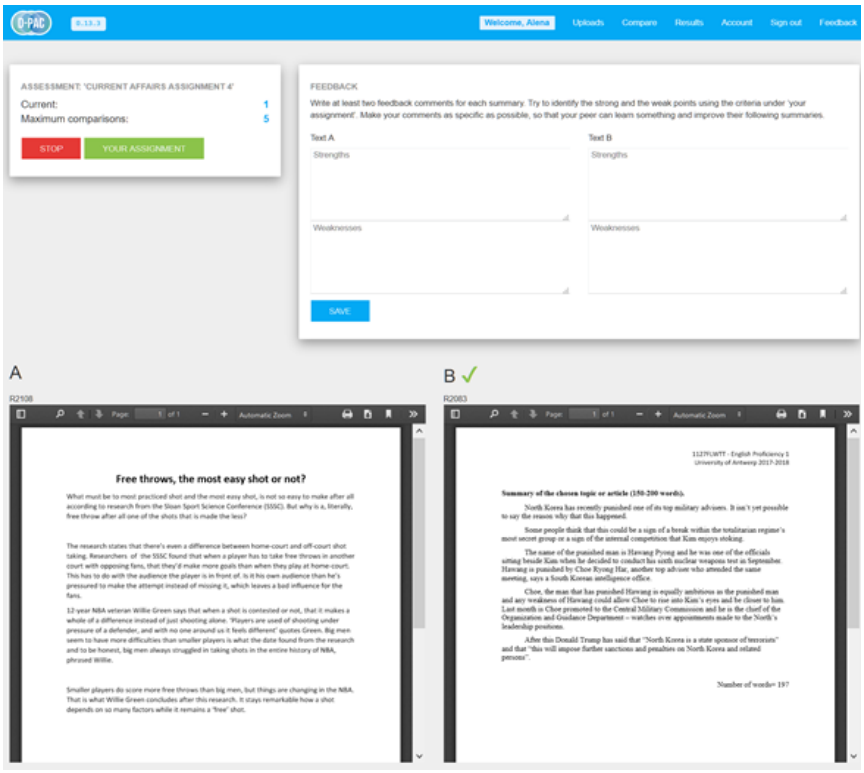

Figure 2: Providing peer feedback on D-PAC

A specific characteristic of D-PAC is that it automatically generates a ranking of student texts based on the results of the multiple holistic comparisons (see Figure 3), thereby allowing students to see how they have fared compared to their peers.

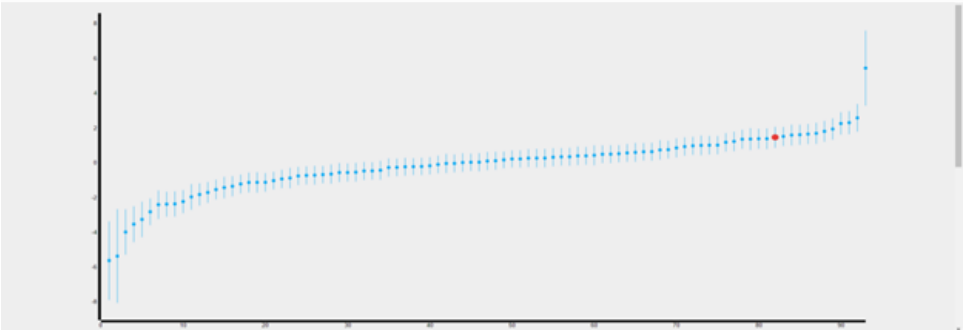

Figure 3: Ranking in D-PAC

3.2 D-PAC module in EP4

In the context of the English Proficiency 4 (henceforth EP4) course specifically, online peer feedback tasks were designed to build on students' writing and editing skills developed in two compulsory semester-long courses in academic writing. Students were instructed to carry out three peer feedback tasks on D-PAC throughout the term. They were required to write an assignment on the three following topics: voting among the younger generation, the dangers of "overthinking" and the issues raised by "overparenting". These assignments were anonymised and uploaded on D-PAC so as to be submitted to the peer review process where students were asked to rate and comment on five pairs of texts each time. The module was preceded by an introduction session which dealt with the technical aspects of using the tool, the principles of comparative judgement and specific criteria for peer feedback and assessment. Students were also instructed to use the feedback they received to revise one of the

assignments and submit it for teacher assessment. After the first two iterations students had an extensive feedback session which addressed the typical mistakes, the quality of the peer feedback and assessment and student emotional response to the tasks.

Online peer assessment constituted the continuous assessment module for this course. Students were assessed based on whether they had participated in the peer reviewing and not on the quality of their peer comments or the ranking of their texts.

3.3 The questionnaire

To tap into the emotions generated by online peer assessment, a detailed pen and paper questionnaire was developed and submitted to 64 EP4 students. In keeping with the topic of the conference, the questionnaire specifically targeted a number of emotions, namely:

- student motivation for the English program in general and for online peer feedback in particular
- self-perceived aptitude in English overall and in English writing
- anxiety/confidence when speaking and writing in English
- student dynamics within the EP4 group
- perception of peer feedback as a legitimate type of feedback
- feelings generated by the quality of the peer feedback received through the online medium.

Questions required both quantitative answers, e.g. o*n a scale of 1 (not useful at all) to 5 (very useful), how useful did you find the feedback you received on D-PAC from your peers,* and qualitative comments, e.g. *name three emotions that you associate with working on D-PAC*. The questionnaire included a number of open questions where students could write a short comment, e.g. *What did you find particularly frustrating in terms of quality of the feedback you were given?* The data were collected into a dataset and standardized for spelling. Comments provided to open questions were recoded to identify the key responses that could be analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results provided below are necessarily selective and will present some of the major results to stand out from the questionnaire.

3.4 Results: learner emotions towards online peer reviewing

At first glance, the survey reveals many negative emotions in relation to online peer feedback (see Figure 4). When asked to spontaneously name three emotions they associate with this procedure, the students provided a total of 67 different emotions[24], with “frustrated” and “bored” topping the list (reported by 21 and 18 students respectively). Other negative emotions pertaining to inner feelings such as “nervous”, “anxious”, insecure”, “overwhelmed” were also given, along with emotions related to the task itself, e.g. “a lot of work”, “time consuming”, “repetitive”. A number of positive emotions were expressed although they constituted a minority, e.g. “curious”, “motivated”, “excited”, “relieved”.

[24] Names of emotions were standardised to adjective forms for a more homogeneous analysis.



Figure 4: EP4 student emotions towards online peer assessment

These negative results need to be attenuated, however. Implementing online peer feedback was not all "doom and gloom" and did in fact generate a number of encouraging pedagogical findings. For instance, when asked to identify areas where they feel their writing had improved as a result of peer reviewing, the students were able to provide concrete answers, e.g. "I need to use more sources when writing", "my arguments lack clarity", "I was told to let my own opinion shine through more, which is something I struggled with and have now gotten better at." They also overwhelmingly agreed that online peer reviewing encourages learner autonomy (see Figure 5) and many acknowledged that the feedback they had received from their peers was indeed sometimes useful.

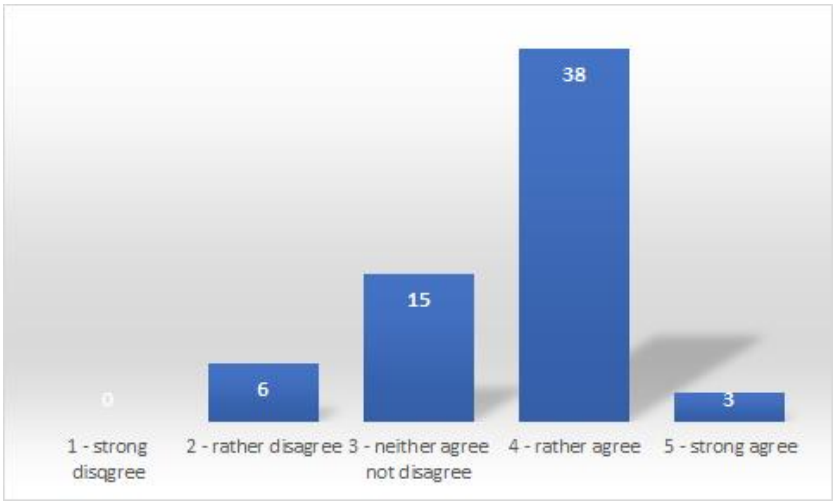

Figure 5: Online peer feedback encourages learner autonomy

When asked whether they preferred pen&paper peer feedback over online peer feedback, c. 60% of the students responded in favour of peer feedback in a computer-mediated context.

In what follows we provide further insights into the results generated by the questionnaire so as to shed some light on the possible reasons for the scepticism surrounding online peer assessment. Importantly, the negative emotions were *not* induced by the D-PAC tool itself as all students bar one rated it as a very to rather easy and user-friendly tool to use. The negative emotions can therefore not

be attributed to tool usability. Scepticism is not due either to student familiarity with peer feedback as a pedagogical method as all students reported having done peer reviewing in other courses as well as in informal contexts (i.e. asking friends and family to review their work). The students also readily recognised feedback from their peers as a "legitimate" type of feedback.

One of the possible reasons why online peer feedback generated lukewarm emotional responses relates to the quality of the peer comments. Figure 6 shows that a total of 29 students (46%) found the feedback given by their peers to be "rather useful" or "very useful". However, 34 of their counterparts (54%) rated the feedback they received as "not useful at all", "somewhat useless" or "neither useful nor useless". "Neither useful nor useless" is in fact the second most populated category in Figure 6 and might be interpreted as a type of indifference towards peer feedback. This appears to go against the claim by Cheng et al. (2014: 272) according to which "be it positive or negative, the feedback received from peers may well evoke an emotional response". Figure 6 thus reveals some mixed feelings towards the quality of the online student comments.

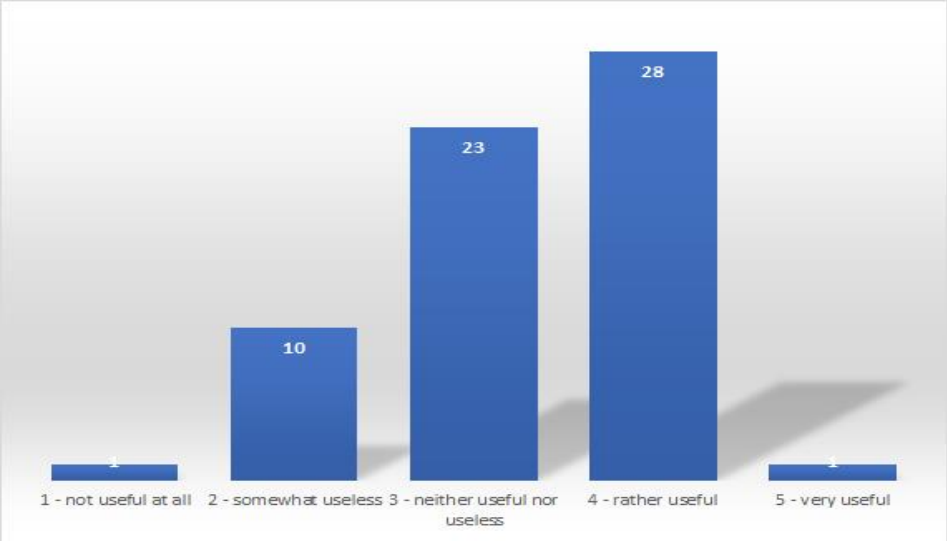

Figure 6: How useful did you find the feedback from your peers?

When invited to comment on the reasons for their answers, students qualified the feedback of their peers with a variety of adjectives (see Figure 7). Interestingly, "useful" was the most frequently used adjective. However, we note that it was sometimes used as a downtoner to reduce the impact of the criticism which followed, e.g. "every once in a while a peer would say something useful, but overall the feedback lacked depth". Criticism concerned, among others, the "vagueness" of the peer comments which were also sometimes considered to be downright "wrong". The repetitive nature of the comments received by the multiple peers who looked at the same text was sometimes lamented, with only one student intelligently pointing out that if a point was repetitively commented on, it must indeed represent an issue that needs to be worked on. Students also mentioned that they sometimes felt like their peers had carried out the peer reviewing in haste (i.e. were "disengaged" from the task) and "did not bother" to put any time or effort into the activities. This could indeed be the case for some as, when asked how long they had spent doing the online peer reviewing work, answers ranged from as little as 20 minutes to as long as 3 hours (average time was calculated as a little over one hour).

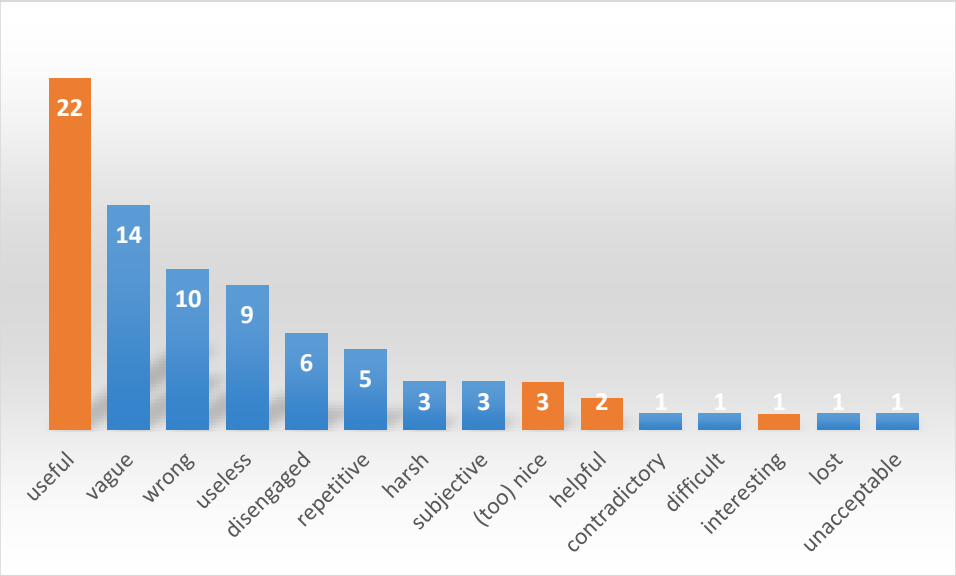

Figure 7: Comment on the quality of the peer feedback received

Figure 7 further points out that students sometimes felt their peers to be particularly harsh in their comments. This observation was also raised elsewhere in the questionnaire and might be related to group dynamics. Yu and Lee (2016) distinguish between collaborative, expert/novice, dominant/dominant, and dominant/passive group dynamic patterns, all of which will induce different emotional responses to the feedback provided. According to the authors, the collaborative pattern of interaction with a moderate to high degree of equality and mutuality is more conductive to L2 learning and writing development than other patterns. It appears from our results and the sometimes bluntness of the comments that some students may have taken on an "expert/novice" role where a more positive collaborative relationship would perhaps have been desirable. However, it might also be the case that certain students took some of the comments too personally and felt them to be harsh where this was not the peer's intention.

The factor of the student's proficiency level may also partly explain the students' mixed views towards online peer feedback. We analysed the results of how students rated the quality of the feedback provided by their peers (Figure 6) against the exam score each student obtained for the EP4 course at the end of the academic year. The results presented in Figure 8 interestingly reveal that students who responded 2 (the feedback was "rather useless") tended to have higher scores on the exam while students who responded 4 (the feedback was "rather useful") tended to have a lower exam score.

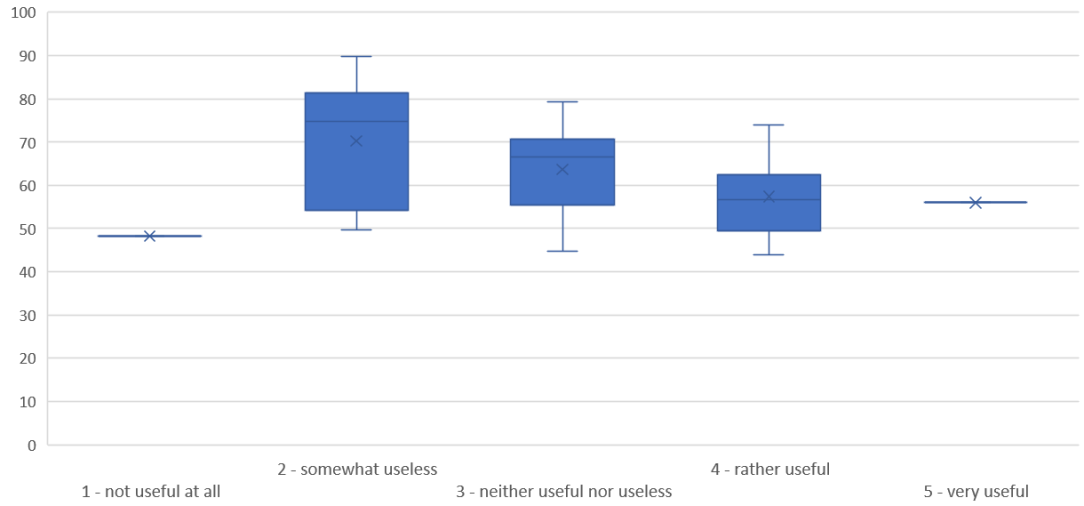

Figure 8: Relationship between perceived quality of peer feedback and EP4 exam scores

Perhaps this betrays a possible feeling of 'arrogance' on the part of the higher achieving students who less readily accept that their immediate counterparts may be able to constructively comment on their writing. The issue of the proficiency level (which is still very much under-researched in the online peer assessment literature) may be key in the success of online peer reviewing: perhaps it is the case that higher-proficiency level learners should provide feedback to their lower-proficiency counterparts in different years of study. This may, in certain cases, lower the level of scepticism when it comes to acceptance of peer feedback from learners within the same EFL group who may feel it is a case of "the blind leading the blind".

4. Conclusion

The reactions generated by online peer reviewing within the EP4 group represented a complex mix of emotions ranging from the very negative (frustration, boredom) to more positive acknowledgement that peer feedback may nevertheless encourage learner autonomy and that it is a legitimate type of feedback. It is fair to say that students did not necessarily consider the bigger pedagogical picture and did not immediately appreciate the pedagogical values of peer reviewing which were obvious to the teachers. This may have to do with student personality (some level of immaturity, anxiety and perhaps even arrogance) and the fact that students may perhaps have been more concerned with where their work ranked in the general ranking than with the possible pedagogical benefits of peer reviewing. This paper has highlighted a number of factors that need to be considered when implementing peer feedback activities (e.g. quality of the feedback provided, proficiency level issues, group dynamics, underlying feelings of indifference, etc.). Although teachers do not have direct access to "what goes on inside", it is crucial that they be aware of students' emotional reactions to the peer feedback experience so as to "offer suitable guidance through an emotional response analysis" (Cheng et al., 2014: 282).

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Learning Outcomes of Exploratory Talk in Collaborative Activities

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Abstract

The concept of 'exploratory talk for learning' in education, as described an defined by British educationalists and researchers more than twenty years ago, has long been uncharted territory in Flanders, the Flemish part of Belgium. A 2018 PhD study on learning outcomes of exploratory talk in five Flemish primary schools has changed this. During this interventional study target groups were taught the ground rules of exploratory talk and made to put these into practice for eight consecutive weeks. Pre and post tests included measurement of reasoning and problem solving skills. The results confirm earlier research: pupils improved their reasoning and problem solving skills at group level significantly, the latter also at individual level. Simultaneously, the occurrence of – more emotion induced – disputational talk diminished. Further analyses at the individual level demonstrate that pupils with strong mathematics skills make significantly more process in the use of key words in context, one of the indicators of exploratory talk.

Conference Paper

1. Context and rationale

Inspiring constructivist theory, the Russian educational psychologist Vygotsky (1978) has highlighted the importance of language and interaction for learning in a very clear way. Language is not just a knowledge transfer vehicle, it is a means for learning. However, international research shows that in practice pupils have little opportunity to use language for learning (Hoetker, 1968 Flanders, 1970; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Burns & Myhill, 2004; English et al. 2002; Eke & Lee, 2008). In the classroom, language use is highly centralized and teacher-controlled, and non-adapted language use by teachers may even cause additional learning problems for pupils. Over the years, Dutch and Flemish research has come to similar conclusions (Van der Aalsvoort & Van der Leeuw, 1992; Geudens & Rymenans, 1992, Van Gelderen, 1994; Bossaert & Lutjeharms, 2009; Van Gorp, 2010).

Considering interaction is a key element in learning, collaborative activities like group work provide opportunities for teachers to pursue both curriculum goals and language goals. According to Mercer and Littleton (2007), however, the quality of talk in group work does little to promote learning: group work talk among pupils is rather disputational (each pupil wants to be in his or her own right) and/or cumulative (the pupils do not discuss matters with a critical mind and choose the easy way to get things done). Even among adult learners such low quality talk is far from exceptional. Therefore, teachers need to organise group work in such a way that pupils use exploratory talk for learning (Mercer & Littleton, 2007).

Exploratory talk is “the kind of talk in which partners engage critically but constructively with each other's ideas. Statements and suggestions are offered for joint consideration. These may be challenged and counter-challenged, but challenges are justified and alternative hypotheses are offered. Compared with the other two types, in exploratory talk knowledge is made more publicly accountable and reasoning is more visible in the talk” (Wegerif & Mercer, 1997:53). Exploratory talk has typical linguistic features: what- and why-questions, positive feedback such as ‘that’s a good suggestion’ or ‘you are right’, utterances like ‘I agree/disagree because’, ‘I think’, ‘I wonder why’ and consensus seeking statements such as ‘So, can we agree on the fact that …’ etc. Exploratory talk allows pupils to formulate their thoughts and arguments, which also improves their problem solving skills. As it stimulates pupils to approach subject matters more rationally, ratio rather than emotional impulse takes the upper hand in conversations. But pupils are not born with exploratory talking skills, nor do they learn them at home. They need to learn them at school (Mercer, 2010).

In Flanders, the Dutch speaking community of Belgium, exploratory talk has been uncharted territory for decades. Similarly, there has been a lack of interest in the study of speaking and listening skills, as is illustrated by Hoogeveen and Bonset (1998), Bonset and Braaksma (2008) and Bonset and Hoogeveen (2011) who found only a handful of studies on speaking and listening skills between 1969 and 1997, and as good as none between 1997 and 2008. Flemish curricula, school books and publications, as well as teacher educators, do promote collaborative activities in the classroom, but as far as group work is concerned, most focus on organisation and structure, on the allocation of duties and on ideas for assignments. Conversational nature, needs and requirements are either neglected or not dealt with systematically, let alone based on a scientifically sound frame of reference. Hence, Flemish or Dutch publications which focus on exploratory talk for learning at school are hardly to be found (T'Sas, 2013). Filling this gap was one of the main reasons for the current study;

In order to measure learning effects of exploratory talk in pupil-pupil conversations, Wegerif and Mercer (1997), Rupert Wegerif, Mercer, and Dawes (1999), Rojas-Drummond and Mercer (2003), Rojas-Drummond and Zapata (2004), Rojas-Drummond, Mazon, Fernandez, and Wegerif (2006) and other researchers set up various empirical experiments in which target groups were first taught the basic principles (ground rules) of exploratory talk via basic lessons, while control groups did regular group work without the exploratory dimension. After the basic lessons followed a usually extended period of regular and systematic collaborative activities (group work) during which feedback and feed forward reflection stimulated pupils to master exploratory talk and apply it to different school subjects, mostly science and mathematics. Pre- and post-testing was organised to determine learning effects, often including measurements of the development of problem solving skills.

As no such research had ever been done in the Flemish education context, an extended replicator research was performed in order to widen insights and to generalize the effects of exploratory talk. Therefore, the following research questions were answered:

RQ 1. What is exploratory talk, how is it measured and which effects does it have?
RQ 2. To what extent do pupils of the third level (primary school) use exploratory talk in group assignments?
RQ 3. To what extent do pupils use exploratory talk after a 12 week training?
RQ 4. What effects does the use of exploratory talk have on pupils' problem solving skills at group and at an individual level?

2. Methodology

In order to answer the first research question an extensive literature study was performed, the results of which we will not discuss into detail, as they fall mostly beyond the scope of this congress. Based on this literature study and on Mercer's (1999) original study, a quasi-experiment was executed with pre- and post-testing in primary schools, followed by qualitative and quantitative discourse analysis. For data analysis we also added parameters of a Rojas-Drummond et al. (2004) study.

The quasi-experiment involved five Antwerp primary schools, totaling 11 classes, 11 teachers and 163 unique pupils. A pilot study (one class) preceded the main study (ten classes) for which five control and five target groups of 5th and 6th form (11- and 12-year old) pupils were defined. In each class the experiment took 14 weeks, including two weeks for pre- and post-testing. In the target groups the five basic lessons took four weeks and were followed by eight weeks of group work. In the control groups the experiment took 14 weeks as well: two weeks for pre- and post-testing and 12 weeks for regular group work.

During the experiment pupils of all classes were divided into triads by the teachers. In each class three triads were closely examined, totaling 15 in the control group and 15 in the target group: of every group work at least ten minutes were devoted to conversation, with minimal interruption by the teacher. These conversations were video and audio recorded, and transcribed. All pupils took part in all classroom activities, including pre- and post-testing.

As in Mercer's (1999) study, control groups were not taught exploratory talk but immediately started doing group work, at least twice a week. Target groups first learnt the ground rules of exploratory talk via five basic lessons. These lessons were given by the teachers who had previously been introduced to the matter and trained for classroom practice. The lessons were adaptations of those described in Mercer and Littleton (2007). Every lesson consisted of practical assignments for which pupils had to work together in groups, of whole-class moments, and of feedback and feed forward reflections. After these basic lessons the children worked in triads at least twice a week, including reflective activities about their progress in handling the ground rules.

Pre- and post-testing was organised in two ways: one was a group discussion about a non-curricular topic. The other was a problem solving test (Raven's Progressive Matrices, Standard and Adapted Coloured version; (Raven, 2003) which was taken both in groups and individually. Each test was divided into two parts of equal difficulty (30 puzzles), one for pre-testing, the other for post-testing.

Conversations were transcribed verbatim and stored for qualitative and quantitative analysis. All pre- and post-test conversations at group level were analysed, i.e. the non-curricular discussion and the problem solving test. Analysis comprised four indicators of exploratory talk: the use of key words in context, turn-taking, long utterances and the number and quality of arguments. We hypothesised that pupils would significantly use more key words in context in the post-test. Also, turn-taking would be more democratic, utterances would be longer as pupils would elaborate more on claims they made and the quantity and quality of arguments would augment. This would mean exploratory talk is both 'teachable' and 'learnable'. As an additional learning effect both the group and individual scores on Raven's would be significantly higher after the intervention, which means they would have increased their problem solving skills. Finally, we investigated the influence of certain independent variables on the use of key words in context at an individual level. Literature and previous research suggest possible influences of gender, socioeconomic status (referred to as GOK in this study) and mathematics skills. To this we added language skills, though due to a lack of background information this had to be restricted to only one aspect, i.e. spelling skills.

For the analysis of our data we employed the sociocultural approach (Mercer, 1997), which combines quantitative and qualitative methods. We used concordancer software to count all key words for exploratory talk that appeared in the conversations. These are words and word groups like 'I think', 'agreed', 'Why?', Because…', 'Would you…', etc, which were categorised based on their primary use in

the ground rules, for which we used the framework presented by Rojas-Drummond and Zapata (2004). Because a rude count of these key words is not sufficient (pupils use them outside an exploratory context as well), qualitative analysis was done to determine whether these key words were used in the proper – exploratory – context, hence 'key words in context'. Key words that were not used in context were marked and left out of statistical analysis. Qualitative analysis also revealed the use of key words we had not anticipated on, e.g. 'Wait' to express a thinking process. These key words were, in turn, quantitatively analysed on their occurrence.

In order to collect information about turn-taking and long utterances, all relevant conversations were processed in a spreadsheet programme which was also used to determine and count the use of key words in context at an individual level. Information about the number and quality of arguments was obtained by analysing each conversation qualitatively. This was done separately by two researchers who discussed the quality of arguments in order to reach agreement. All results were processed with a spreadsheet programme.

Finally, statistical analyses were performed to generate frequency tables, find significant correlations and causal relationships, and to determine the influence of the independent variables on the use of key words in context.

3. Results

Literature shows that measuring exploratory talk is a quite complex matter and due to a lack of benchmarks it is not easy to answer the question to what extent a conversation as a whole is exploratory or not. We did not find any study which puts out marks on a continuum before or after which a conversation can be labelled exploratory, cumulative or disputational, based on one criterion or the other. Nevertheless, it is plausible to assume that conversations which contain a lot of key words in context will be more exploratory than conversations which contain few or none (Mercer, 1995; Wegerif & Mercer, 1997; Mercer et al., 1999; etc), and – a fortiori – when conditions regarding the three other indicators are fulfilled as well.

We will now discuss each indicator in more detail and include points of view found in our literature study.

3.1 Key words in context

On average, especially in the problem solving discussions, the triads of the target groups used significantly more key words in the required exploratory context than before the intervention, while the control groups made little or no progress. The difference is also significant when comparing the number of key words in context of the target group with those of the control group. This is comparable to the findings of Wegerif et al. (1999) who saw all key features of exploratory talk increase significantly after their intervention in the target group.

3.2 Turn-taking

Turn-taking became more democratic during the non-curricular discussion in the target group, though not for all triads. Interactive dominance/recession did not change either, though it involved only few triads. No changes were seen in the control group. In the problem solving discussion the target group showed more quantitative symmetry after the intervention, and again there was no change in the control group. It appears that the intervention has caused some positive effects. As Mercer and Littleton (2007) stipulate, without a training in exploratory talk pupils tend to use disputational and/or cumulative talk. Characteristics of disputational talk are that pupils do not really listen to one another and interrupt each other, which results in more quantitative asymmetry. Our data confirm this postulate only partially, but then perhaps the margin we used to determine symmetry was too small.

3.3 Long utterances

The intervention had a positive effect on the target groups, especially during the problem solving discussion. Progress was less outspoken in the non-curricular discussions, but still positive. Simultaneously, there was no progress in the control groups. We conclude that target pupils have learnt to elaborate more while control pupils have not.

3.4 Arguments

Similar positive results show for the non-curricular discussion. Nothing much changed in the control groups, but in the target groups the average number of arguments increased. All triads of the target groups made progress, though not to the same extent. In the problem solving discussion the average number of arguments was considerably higher than in the non-curricular discussion. This was found in both tests. This not illogical, as the number of issues to discuss and solve in Raven's was much larger than the number of discussion topics in the non-curricular discussion.

As we hypothesised, the quality of arguments during the non-curricular discussion did not augment in the control groups, while it did in the target groups. Results are in line with the scores for the quantity of arguments, but again not all triads started and evolved at the same rate and pace. Like in the pilot study we noticed that the quality of arguments was higher during the non-curricular discussion than during the problem solving discussion: while explicit and semi-explicit arguments were more dominant in the non-curricular discussions, rudimentary and implicit arguments dominated the problem solving discussions. Again the explanation is to be found in the presence respectively the absence of lesson materials. Whenever materials are used, like in the problem solving discussion, pupils' arguments show more signaling words and deixis, generating more implicit language. Nevertheless, our figures show that even then, the target group triads raised not only the quantity but also the quality of their arguments while doing Raven's, whereas the control group did not.

3.5 Problem solving skills

As mentioned before, we used Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices to measure the pupils' problem solving skills at group level. The target group increased its score after the intervention significantly. The control groups score also improved but the difference with the pre-test scores was not significant. Progress of individual pupils was also significant in the target group, which proves the Vygotsky-based hypothesis that social learning induces individual learning. In the control group nearly similar progress was found, but this turned out not to be significant. Further analysis revealed strong differences between schools.

4. Conclusions

The results of our study made clear that exploratory talk can be taught/learned and if pupils make use of it consistently, they use language in such a way that they learn more from one another and improve group reasoning. Direct observed effects are that pupils increase their argumentation skills, work better together as they master the ground rules and increase their problem solving ability at group and individual level. Simultaneously problem solving skills improved at group ànd at individual level, which confirms Vygotsky's claim that social learning precedes individual learning. This way, exploratory talk indeed reflects an educationally effective intellectual activity, a social mode of thinking (Mercer, 1996, 2004). The findings of our empirical study are confirmed by earlier research (Mercer, 1996; Wegerif, 1996; Wegerif & Mercer, 1997; Mercer et al., 1999; Rojas-Drummond & Zapata, 2004; Mercer & Sams, 2006 etc.).

5. Some thoughts about emotions

This congress focuses on language and emotion. The focus of our study was language and learning, and did not include analyses of emotion. This made us wonder to what extent emotion is studied in research on exploratory talk. For that purpose we re-analysed some of our data. Our research included an analysis of 115 articles on exploratory talk for learning. We used a coding scheme including nodes like 'ground rules', 'transfer', 'role of the teacher' etc. For the purpose of this congress, we added 'emotion', 'feeling', 'attitude' and 'affect' to the coding scheme. The results were rather poor. A few exceptions notwithstanding (e.g. Polo et al., 2015), most studies on exploratory talk do not discuss emotion to a great extent either. But this does not mean that nothing can be said about emotion when studying the language pupils use during collaborative activities.

We know that the types of group talk we discussed – cumulative, disputational and exploratory talk – each imply specific politeness rules or face-preservation systems (Polo et al., 2017), which determine the way group members experience and form their identity.

In cumulative talk critical thinking as invoked by why-questions, challenges and counterarguments, is utterly avoided in order to preserve a positive group atmosphere and maintain individual "face preservation through agreement" (Polo et al., 2017:313). The underlying attitude is that there can be no room for emotions like fear (for being criticised), shame (for suggesting an idea which might be considered stupid), anxiety (for not being able to make one's point) etc. Trust, respect, social recognition etc. are to guarantee individual face preservation. This is one of the reasons why this type of talk often lacks (elaborated) argument-building and linguistic markers like 'Why?', 'but…', 'I don't agree…', 'Wouldn't we better…' etc. And thus, because the focus on unquestioned individual identity and face preservation is so strong, cumulative group talk often results in low quality output.

In disputational talk, which is usually marked by strong disagreement, group members want to 'win the conversation' and will rather employ more aggressive strategies to preserve their face: group members interrupt one another, try to dominate the discussion and go through a lot of trouble to impose their personal opinions while closing the door for any counterarguments. Talk is all but consensus-driven and, like cumulative talk, leads to low quality output. Correlated emotions are anxiety and anger (e.g. feeling offended by criticism), jealousy and envy (e.g. because one of the other group members is getting the upper hand), the zest for personal triumph etc. Linguistic markers like 'no', 'You're wrong', 'but', 'I don't agree' are typical for this type of conversation, as are short sentences and non-democratic turn-taking.

The emotions related to both cumulative and disputation are liable to threaten group achievement. Especially, "negative emotions affect motivation and self or group efficacy" (Polo et al. 2017: 306). In exploratory talk, however, ground rules even the path for more rational discussion and for a shift from individual identity to group identity (Wegerif & Mercer, 1997). Talk becomes task- or issue-driven instead of ego-driven. Actually, pupils are taught that changing ones mind of asking why-questions is a justified means to jointly come to deeper understanding or solving problems. In the footings of our study, as the experiment proceeded, we saw pupils gradually calm down and show more respect for each other's ideas. There was less anxiety, less anger, less envy and it appeared that they all felt more safe. At the same time, as mentioned before, transcripts showed more indicators of exploratory talk, i.e. more critical thinking and more argument-building.

We argue that the pupils first considered the ground rules as a kind of external authority which allowed them to be critical, vulnerable, doubtful … In other words, the ground rules helped them preserve their face. In the transcripts of our study, for instance, especially those of the first weeks of our experiment, we regularly found expressions like 'No wait, first we all have to agree on this, before moving on to the next question' or 'It is X's turn to speak now' or even 'Why can X not disagree with what you said?' Later, after the pupils had internalised the ground rules, such self-regulating interventions seemed less necessary, as explorative talk became an automated group strategy, marked by positive emotions like trust, respect, openness etc. We found confirmation of this emotional shift in other studies on exploratory talk for learning (Topping and Trickey (2014), Rupert Wegerif, Littleton, and Jones (1997), Luby (Luby, 2014; Mannion & Mercer, 2016; Murphy, 2015).

Based on all this, it would be tempting to conclude that exploratory talk reduces (negative) emotions in talk. "Emotions are resources that people use to argue, and seek to understand how they are employed in the construction of arguments" (Polo et al., 2017:304). Moreover, shifts to disputational or cumulative talk, including their emotional characteristics, may even be necessary to get 'the exploratory train' going again (Tin, 2003). Group discussions are almost inevitably characterized by social and emotional tensions when disagreement sets in. Exploratory talk does not take away these tensions but helps to channel them and turn them into constructive thinking. The role of emotion lay beyond the scope of our study, but as learning has an important affective component, we believe it would be very useful to include it in future research on exploratory talk. Cognition is not emotionless.

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Bio data

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Gamification and the Affective Aspects EFL Students: Effects on Anxiety and Motivation

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Abstract

EU's education policies favour adult education and lifelong learning to ensure employability and social integration in all stages of life. The particularities associated to adult learning make it necessary to use methodologies that support both cognitive and affective aspects in the teaching and learning process, especially in FLT (Espiñeira, 2006).

Gamification has gained relevance in the educational field as an enhancer of motivation and as a facilitator of educational experiences that promote instruction (Lee & Hammer, 2011). It makes use of typical components of games such as competition, leaderboards or challenges and integrates them in contexts that are not necessarily gameful (Werbach & Hunter, 2012). An effective gamified design include facilitating engagement techniques that may encourage learner's autonomy, competence and relation to others thus increasing intrinsic motivation (Koster, 2005; Çakıroğlu et al., 2017) and fostering engagement (Hamari, Koivisto & Sarsa, 2014).

In this communication I present the preliminary findings of a research work developed with four groups of adult EFL students. It examines the effects of a one-semester gamified didactic experience aimed at facilitating vocabulary acquisition. I designed a game-like experience in which students, organised in teams, competed against each other and worked to win positions in a race-like route around UK. This experience was developed in two one-semester iterative cycles of the academic years 2016-2017 and 2017-2018.

Information was collected on the perception of students who on the perceived benefits of using games for EFL learning by means of pre- and post-experience questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The first type of (pre and post) included 27 likert questions (1-4) measuring the levels of engagement in students. The second type (only post) included 37 likert questions (1-4) and it collected information about the participant's opinion on different elements of the gamified system as well as on affective aspects of the process, such as the incidence of cooperation and collaboration, attitude and participation. The interviews included 30 open questions that helped to delve into these aspects. The information collected helped to answer the research question: what is the influence of gamification on the affective aspects of adult students of EFL?

The preliminary results shed light on two specific areas of adult education. On the one hand, gamification fosters active participation thanks to the creation of positive group dynamics and a lowering effect on concerns and frustration when using the foreign language. Given the fact that these negative emotions may constitute an impeding factor of effective learning in this type of student, gamification points as a tool to consider when designing effective academic programs. Additionally, gamification appears to help to reduce anxiety, enhance perceived competence and benefit positive relationships in a way that fulfils the need for autonomy, competence and relatedness necessary for the emergence of intrinsic motivation, a precursor of academic engagement.

Further discussion would necessarily involve applying gamification to different levels and contexts and analysing its effects on specific aspects of the learning process.

Conference Paper

1. Introduction

The factors associated to the psychological and affective dimension in teaching and learning processes have acquired relevance when explaining student performance and results. This fact has given increasing relevance to aspects such as student motivation, feelings and relationships during teaching and learning processes, and they are now considered fundamental components of educational psychology studies (Pintrich, 2003).

Gamification has become a popular practice in recent years as a technique to foster motivation and engagement and improve the results of the teaching practice. Studies have shown that gamifying the learning process may constitute a key factor to increase learners' motivation, reduce anxiety and provide relaxing learning environments, thus increasing engagement and participation (Domínguez, Sanz-de-Navarette, De-Marcos, Fernández-Sanz, Pagés, Martinez-Herráiz, 2013).

In this paper we analyse the incidence of a gamified didactic experience (GDE) on the positive emotions experienced in the classroom as a result of applying this new didactic approach, we also examine its effects on the participants' intrinsic motivation.

2. Gamification

The most commonly accepted definition of gamification is "the use of game elements or game design techniques in non-gaming context" (Werbach & Hunter, 2012). Gamification aims at turning an ordinary or routine task into a game, so that participants may have incentives that invite them to take part and encourage them to work. This is so, because introducing game elements can affect the psychological predisposition to remain active, pay attention and invest more effort in an activity (Zichermann & Cunningham, 2011).

To do so, gamification proposes to take some of the elements traditionally found in the world of games (such as competition, challenges or punctuations) and apply them to real-world environments, where we would not expect to find this type of elements. We distinguish three types of components in a gamified system: dynamics, mechanics and components (Werbach & Hunter, 2015). Dynamics account for the highest level of abstraction and include narrative, restrictions, progression and social relations among others. Mechanics are the basic processes that boost action and ensure progress and include challenges, feedback, competition or cooperation. Finally, components are the most specific and tangible elements of the game. Among the most representative components we find points, badges and leaderboards also known as the triad (PBL).

3. Affective dimension in adult EFL teaching and learning

Arnold justifies the importance of the affective dimension in EFL teaching and learning in adults when she says "the most innovative technique and the most attractive materials may prove inadequate, if not useless, due to negative reactions that may be found during the learning process" (Arnold, 2011). Mercer & MacIntyre (Mercer & MacIntyre, 2014) claim that it is crucial to build positive emotions, foster greater engagement, and boost the appreciation of meaning in life and its activities and Fredrickson (2001) highlights that the effects of positive emotion go beyond pleasant feelings: they enhance learners' ability to notice things in the classroom and strengthen their awareness of language input. This, in turn, allows them to absorb the FL. Positive emotions foster attention, willingness to explore and to acquire new learning, promote resilience, build social bonds and facilitate using personal resources (Arnold, 2011). Espiñeira (2006) agrees and points at originality and ludic elements as essential tools to boost these positive emotions.

It is advisable, thus, to create a good atmosphere and develop positive dynamics, especially in the EFL classroom given that this is a particularly menacing environment for learners' self-image (Arnold, 1999). This implies:

- Create group dynamics based on cooperation and fellowship.
- Favour respect and the creation of non-threatening learning environments.
- Promote using the foreign language and experimenting without fear of mistakes or criticism.

Additionally, Guthrie et al. (2012) indicate that: (1) to improve levels of academic success we need to increase engagement; (2) to increase engagement, we must increase motivation; and (3) to increase motivation, we must ensure appropriate educational practices for this purpose.

4. Objectives of the study

Introducing gamification techniques in the foreign language classroom can produce positive benefits since "camouflaging" learning as a game may create a more relaxing environment that facilitates achieving learning objectives since, in games, there is no fear of making mistakes (Foncubierta & Rodriguez, 2014). The desire to determine to what extent this assertion is true and to what extent gamification can really improve the affective dimension of EFL in adult students led us to raise this objective: to analyse the effects of a gamified didactic experience in adult EFL classroom in order to answer the following questions:
P1. What is the incidence of gamification on the affective aspects of EFL learning in adult students?
P2. How does the GDE influence the appearance or preservation of intrinsic motivation?

5. Development of the study

This paper is subsidiary to larger study (Phd dissertation) analysing the impact of gamification on the affective aspects of learning (including anxiety, motivation and engagement). The results presented here are the preliminary results of this study, which is organised into two iterative cycles comprising the academic years 2016-2017 and 2017-2018.

We designed and applied a three-month long gamified didactic experience with four groups of A2-level adult students of EFL in Barcelona. 85 students (52 women and 33 men) took part in the experience; the minimum age was 16 and the maximum 54 (mode=30). They belonged to different sociocultural environment and include students, and qualified and no-qualified workers in different areas. They all had resumed their studies after having tried to learn English, unsuccessfully, in the past.

The GDE consisted of a competition in which students, divided into teams, had to complete a route around UK divided into a number of stages, all of them linked by a narrative. In each stage they had to complete a number of challenges and activities to earn points, as the final objective was to end up the route having the maximum number of points to win the competition. It included different dynamics combining individual and group activities, cooperation in teams and competition between teams.

A representative sample (24 women and 15 men, 16 to 54 years old, mode=30) of the total population was chosen to be administered the following tools in order to collect data for the analysis.

The first type of questionnaire (pre and post) included 27 likert questions (1-4) measuring the levels of engagement in students. The second type (only post) included 50 likert questions (1-4). In the first section (13 questions with a scale 1 to 10) they assessed different elements of the GDE (narrative, design, dynamics, etc.). In the second section (37 Likert-type questions with 4 options) we collected information on the impact of gamification on the participants' levels of motivation and on its effects on the relationships in the group and on the participation in the proposed activities. These questionnaires were administered to the group of students collectively in the classroom and collected for analysis.

The main tool was a set of semi-structured interviews that allowed us to deepen in the opinions expressed in the questionnaires, and increased the information on the attitudes and emotions experienced during the activity. These interviews were conducted personally with each student and audio-recorded to facilitate further analysis.

6. Results

We found that gamification triggered the appearance of positive emotions in participants in a variety of aspects. Thus the data collected allowed us to answer the research questions.

6.1 P1. What is the incidence of gamification on the affective aspects of EFL learning in adult students?

The highest scores in questionnaires correspond to being comfortable in the group. Participants valued specially having support and being accepted and integrated in the group. 66,70% completely agreed that the gamified activity had helped them connect with their classmates and 89, 70% agreed they had had better relationship than in previous years thanks to applying an activity of this type in the classroom.

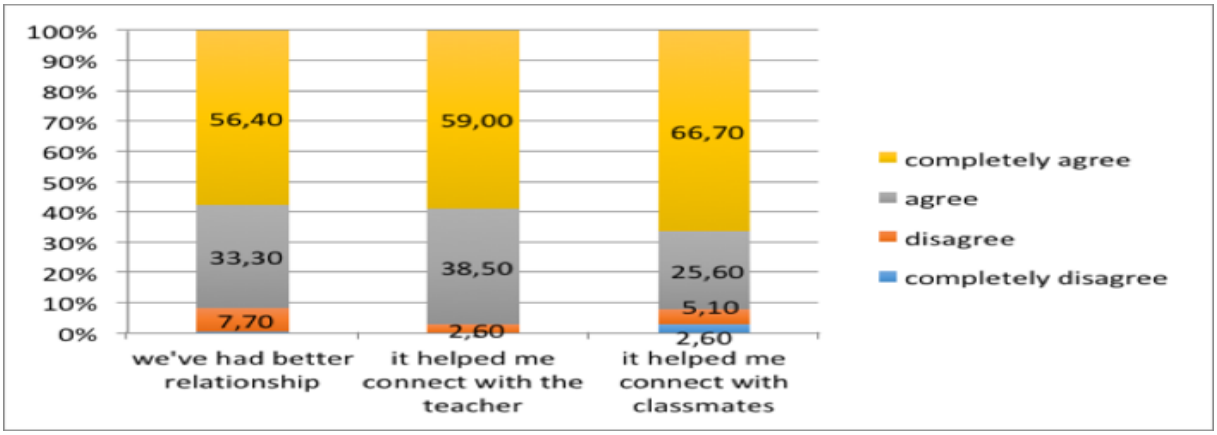

Figure 1.

The interviews reflected the importance students gave to having a good relationship with other members of the group and how this influenced how they felt in the classroom. When asked what the best aspect of the activity had been, the most common answer referred to the good atmosphere and to how the EDG had helped them to establish good relationships, as reflected in the interviews.

> *(D., 18) this is the year I've had more relationship with my classmates. In the past, I finished the course and I hadn't talked to anyone…. But now I greet everyone when I get into the classroom, and that makes me feel good.*
> *(M., 25) this activity has made the group come together like never before*

Support received from other students and from the teacher is another highly valued aspect of the GDE, as reflected by both questionnaires and interviews. Students express how feeling they had support from other students and from the teacher influenced their work because it made them feel other people would help them if any problem or difficulty related to learning arose.

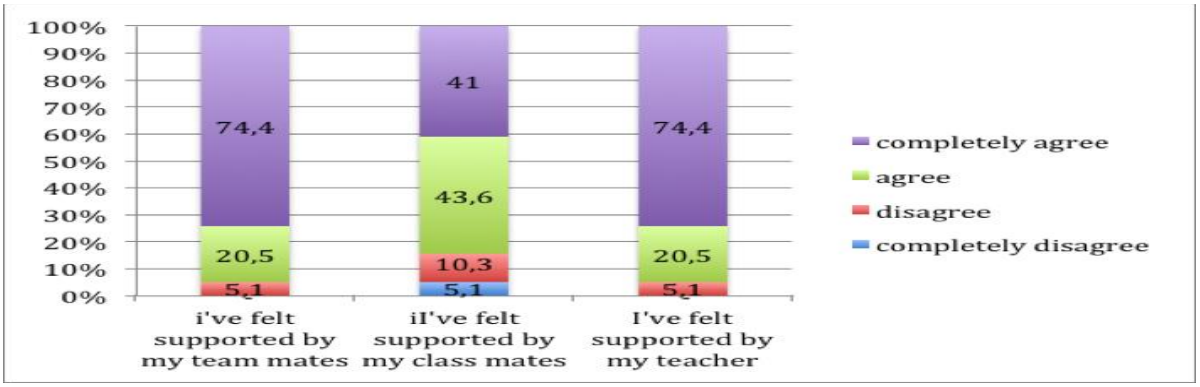

Figure 2.

M., 31) I've felt part of the group and….that makes you feel good…and that influences you when you are learning.
(S., 16) you're always more at ease and you want to go to class more if you have a good relationship with the others.

Part of this support comes from working in small groups. This created mutual support and provided a safe net for students, who then felt more relaxed to work. Interviews reflect how students' participation benefits from class dynamics that ensure cooperation and fellowship, being part of the group encourages regular attendance and participation in activities. This type of collaborative work also springs the desire to contribute to the success of the team and also imposes the desire not to fail the other teammates. This is so because the dynamics proposed by the GDE favoured common rewards, as a result of the participation of all team members. 69.2% say that working in teams encouraged them not to give up so as not to harm others, and 56.4% say that they had worked harder to earn points for their team. They also recognise the benefits of working with others who can contribute their own learning and prefer to work with peers from whom they can learn.

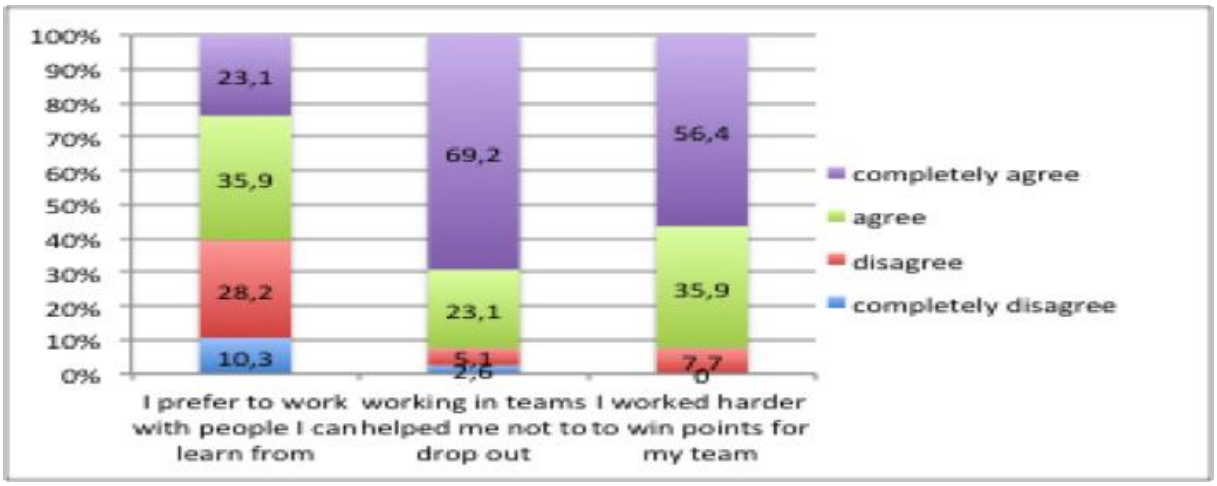

Figure 3.

Cooperation and collaborative dynamics positively influence students' self-image, giving them the chance to build a positive role within the group. They feel accepted, relaxed and among friends. Working in a safe environment thus lowers the anxiety adult students usually feel when using the foreign language in the classroom, as it was reflected in the interviews. Even those students who declared being particularly shy or reluctant to speaking in the classroom expressed that the good atmosphere in the group encouraged them to participate without fear of other people's judgment.

(M., 49) I asked several questions…and I was surprised I did it, because I'd never have done it before.
(M. 48) I was more disinhibited because it was a game.
(C., 30) It helps you feel less self-conscious, less afraid… and then you don't care if you are corrected…it helps you learn.

Having no fear to judgment by the teacher and by the rest of the students diminished self-consciousness and the anxiety that fear to mistakes produce in learners, as it was expressed in interviews. Gamification contributes to lowering anxiety by including most of the elements recommended by Oxford (2000):

- It encourages students with fun and laughter, thanks to its ludic components.
- Game objectives, missions and levels establish clear, attainable and measurable goals.
- It includes a variety of mechanics and activities to cater for different learning styles.
- Rewards in the form of points and badges offer immediate and significant feedback on students' performance.

- It creates a relaxed atmosphere in which mistakes and failure are allowed and accepted as part of the game.

> *(S., 16) we became friends and then… I was more relaxed…and then… if I think I have to say "had"..then..I said it…and if it was wrong… they corrected me and next time I'll say it right.*
> *(P., 30) If there aren't good vibes you don't speak, because you think…if I say something wrong…you'll see…but with this activity it's not like that…it was the opposite, you wanted to participate*

A safe and collaborative environment that reduces anxiety, together with positive relationships within the group, influenced the amount of work done and the regularity and resilience in performing assigned tasks. In an atmosphere without fear of criticism, students take an active role, which translates into more effort and the appearance of positive expectations towards other members of the team. 94,8 % of participants agree that they have worked harder than they expected thanks to the GDE and 59% of them declared feeling engaged in the activity.

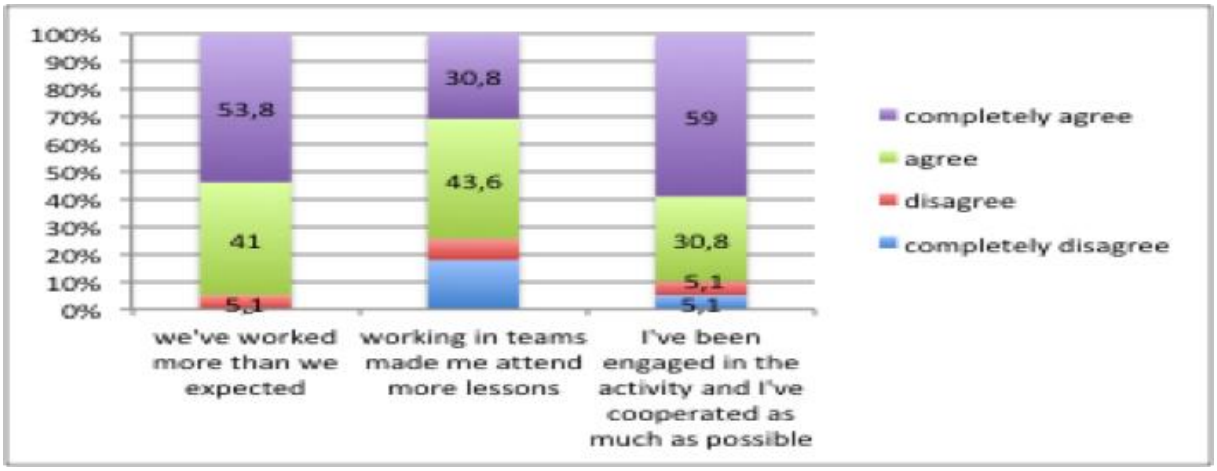

Figure 4.

Additionally, gamification offers continuous and immediate feedback on performance (on the form of points, badges, challenges accomplished, etc.). Higher levels of participation, followed by feedback that rewards effort and offers a sense of control on performance, boost feelings of competence. This, in turn, enhances self-confidence, as they perceive they possess the resources and aptitude that allows them to pursue their learning objectives. Knowing that you gave a correct answer activates dopamine production, even if no rewards are involved (Tricomi, Delgado, McCandliss, McClelland & Fiez, 2006).

> *M., 35) you don't realised you're learning and then one day…wow…you see. Wow, I know this.*
> *(Y., 65) the other members of the team asked me questions and I felt…if not important, at least necessarv.*

Finally, it must be pointed out that Dewalae maintains that language lessons are too often predictable, emotionless and lacking interest and this induces routine and loss of motivation. He demands teachers that can introduce unexpected, thought-provoking, entertaining and challenging activities. "Teachers need the liberty to do unexpected, challenging and funny things. Routine is a killer in the classroom." (Dewaele, 2015). In our study, novelty and fun are two factors that appear to have a positive effect on motivation, work and continuous attendance. 59,45 % claimed to have attended more regularly despite fatigue or other responsibilities. The interviews revealed that, on the one hand, the novelty factor defeated negative expectatives created on the basis of previous EFL learning experiences while, on the other hand, fun stimulated feelings of enjoyment and excitement that contributed to regular attendance.

(I., 48) I thought I wouldn't be able to learn all that but it helped me a lot and when you start and you see you can…it motivates me a lot for next year.
(D., 18) I though it was something different I hadn't done before and I liked doing something different.
(A., 32) …and we came to class with some excitement…I was looking forward to coming to class, and I hate English…well, I hated it, I hated it.

6.2 P2. How does the GDE influence the appearance or preservation of intrinsic motivation?

Our analysis reveals that gamification can contribute to maintaining levels of intrinsic motivation by including elements that favour autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Providing a variety of experiences as they progress and holding students accountable for their performance in the game satisfies the need for autonomy. The dynamics proposed by the GDE favoured common rewards, achieved as a consequence of the participation of all group members. This also gave participants then chance to contribute according to their own interests and capabilities.

(I., 46) I *liked having extra material in moodle to work at my own pace.*
(C., 30) *You work more because you see how YOU can help your team.*

Helping others, as well as points, badges, punctuations and classifications that mark progress satisfy the need for competence.

(M. 30) *Badges…you know… they are silly little tokens but somehow it's nice to have them, to win them because you did it well, it makes you feel you are learning.*

Social interactions during the activity satisfy the need for relatedness.

(M., 30) *If you feel well in the group, it motivates you a lot.*

In some cases, we have perceived a state similar to Flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) in which participants were so engaged in the activity that they lost track of the passing of time.

(M., 47) sometimes it was time to go home and I hadn't realised it was already nine o'clock.
(R., 53), with the activity time flies,… the two hours just fly...it doesn't seem like a lesson.

7. Conclusion

The participants in our GDE specially appreciate interpersonal relationships, established as a result of cooperation within the game. They also highlight that a friendly atmosphere facilitates participation in the classroom, as it creates a safe environment that diminishes the fear of being exposed for making mistakes when using the language. At the same time, social pressure and the desire to collaborate with the group foster motivation and encourage learners to fulfill their learning objectives.

Feeling enjoyment and fun motivate students to contribute to learning activities and attend lesson regularly in spite of the difficulties inherent to adult education such as fatigue or the existence of other professional or family obligations.

In addition, gamification has shown to reduce anxiety, enhance perceived competence and favour the establishment of positive relationships in such a way as to guarantee the need for autonomy, competence and relationship necessary for the emergence of intrinsic motivation, the precursor of academic engagement.

Being fully aware of the limitations of this study, we can conclude that these data confirm our perception of gamification as an effective teaching technique to build positive emotions that may help to develop and maintain motivation, perseverance and resilience. Our future work must, therefore, include

further research on gamification and the design and application of gamified didactic experiences in different EFL environments.

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Bio data

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