Danuta Gabryś-Barker
Adam Wojtaszek   *Editors*

Studying Second Language Acquisition from a Qualitative Perspective

Springer

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Editors

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Editors
Danuta Gabryś-Barker
Adam Wojtaszek
Institute of English
University of Silesia
Sosnowiec, Poland

Preface

This volume focuses on qualitative research projects. The growing interest in qualitative studies brought about the development of qualitative research methodology and fairly new tools at researchers' disposal that make this research more reliable and academically rigorous. At its core are introspective methods such as simultaneous introspection or retrospection in the form of diary writing, surveys, interviews, and biographical narratives. This interest also resulted in constructing more rigorous models of qualitative analysis and promotion of more interdisciplinary approach to research. The present volume contains theoretical, empirical, and methodological papers involving the use of qualitative methods and instruments such as narratives, introspection and retrospection, autobiographical memory data, and learner diaries in studying second and multilingual language acquisition.

The volume consists of three parts. Part I *Introducing qualitative research* traces back the origins and contextualizes qualitative research by going back to the beginnings of this type of research in sociology and education as well as by discussing its appropriacy in researching language teaching and learning. Part II *Qualitative methods in studying second language acquisition* contains a selection of research projects using exclusively qualitative methods and ranging from those investigating cognitively oriented issues of language learning and skills development in the foreign language classroom to the ones that are mainly concerned with teacher reflection and the affective dimension of language learning process. The articles in Part III *Complementary quantitative and qualitative methods in studying second language acquisition* demonstrate that the use of either qualitative or quantitative methods is not mutually exclusive and in fact, these two research approaches can well complement each other. The articles in this part offer a great variety of educational contexts, various themes ranging from pronunciation and speaking to cultural issues in language learning studied, and also focusing on the evaluation of qualitative methods in actual bi- and multilingual projects presented by individual authors.

We hope that the present volume will contribute to this fast growing interest in qualitative methods of research to challenge the dominance of quantitative research paradigm and demonstrate how qualitative methods can inform research in language learning, a trend which is becoming more and more visible in worldwide academic research.

Sosnowiec, Poland   Danuta Gabryś-Barker
Sosnowiec, Poland   Adam Wojtaszek

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Author Bios

Małgorzata Baran-Łucarz received her Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics in 2004, with a thesis entitled *Field independence as a predictor of success in foreign language pronunciation acquisition and learning*. She is Assistant Professor at the University of Wrocław and since 1998 has been working as a teacher at the Teacher Training College in Wrocław. Her main areas of interest are: methodology of FL teaching, SLA (particularly individual learner differences and FL pronunciation acquisition), psycholinguistics, phonetics, and pronunciation pedagogy.

Nina Barłożek is a Ph.D. student at the Opole University, Poland. She's been an active teacher for 10 years teaching English all age groups. Her main area of interest is emotional intelligence and its influence on EFL learner development. She devotes her research energy to expanding knowledge about human brain and its (unused) potential in relation to teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

Halina Chodkiewicz is Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Department of English, Maria Curie-Skłodowska University, Lublin, Poland. She teaches psycholinguistics, second language acquisition, and ELT courses and supervises M.A. and Ph.D. dissertations. Her research interests focus on second/foreign language reading development, vocabulary learning and teaching, and CBI-CLIL approach. Her recent papers published nationally and internationally concern content-based reading and reader's strategy use. She is the author of three books on reading and vocabulary acquisition, and co-editor of three volumes including *Language Skills: Traditions, Transitions and Ways Forward* (with Magdalena Trepczyńska, CSP, 2014).

Ewa Czajka is a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Wrocław, Poland. She is an English teacher and teacher trainer. Her research interests include foreign language pedagogy, with special attention paid to foreign language pronunciation instruction. Currently, she is working on her doctoral dissertation on pronunciation perception and production training at upper secondary school level of education.

Maria Dakowska is Professor of applied linguistics at the Department of English Studies, University of Warsaw. Her research interests range from teaching and learning English as a foreign language in the global society, especially the field's articulation as an academic discipline with specialized levels and pure as well as applied goals, to psycholinguistic processes in second/foreign language learning and teaching. She is also interested in various aspects of foreign language teacher training and task design. Additionally, Prof Dakowska's research focuses on cognitive conceptions of human information processing, verbal communication, and human development.

Marek Derenowski received his Ph.D. in applied linguistics from Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. He is a teacher and a teacher educator working at the English Department of the Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts of Adam Mickiewicz University. He also works at the Institute of Modern Languages of Konin State School of Higher Professional Education. His major interest is in teacher education and professional development, and also in the place of target language culture in the foreign language education.

Danuta Gabryś-Barker is Professor of English at the University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland, where she lectures and supervises M.A. and Ph.D. theses in applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, and especially in second language acquisition. Her main areas of interest are multilingualism and applied psycholinguistics. She has published over a hundred articles nationally as well as internationally, two books and nine edited volumes, among others a volume *Morphosyntactic Issues in Second Language Acquisition* (Multilingual Matters, 2008). She is a Vice-President of the Polish Association for the Study of English and Co-Editor of the *International Journal of Multilingualism* (Taylor & Francis/Routledge).

Hanna Komorowska is full Professor of Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching at the Institute of English, University of Social Sciences and Humanities as well as at Warsaw University. After the fall of communism she was heading the Expert Committee for foreign language teaching and teacher education reform in Poland. Former Vice-President of Warsaw University, the Polish delegate for the Modern Languages Project Group of the Council of Europe, and member of the EU High Level Group on Multilingualism in Brussels, she is now a consultant to the European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz and coauthor of the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages*. She publishes widely in the field of FLT methodology and teacher education.

Beata Malczewska-Webb is Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at Bond University, Gold Coast, Australia. Her main research interests include education (the internationalization of education, diverse classes; blended learning, intercultural teaching and learning) and linguistics (possession as a linguistic phenomenon). She teaches theoretical and practical subjects to on-campus and online students of Master of Arts (TESOL) at Bond University.

Richard Nightingale is a lecturer in English philology at Universitat Jaume I. He is currently working on a Ph.D. project in English Language Applied Linguistics which focuses on multilingual language attitudes in adolescents. His research interests include: sociolinguistics, multilingualism, dynamic systems theory, formulaic language, language attitudes, "out-of-school" factors, young learners, and pragmatic development.

Marta Nowacka teaches descriptive grammar and English phonetics at the University of Rzeszów and Teacher Training College in Rzeszów, Poland. Her doctoral research focused on phonetic attainment of Polish students of English. She is a coauthor of two English pronunciation practice books. Her main interests in applied linguistics are in foreign-accented speech and teaching phonetics to foreigners.

Sabrina Ong is a psychologist with a special clinical and research interest in trauma, and in child trauma in particular. She has also worked as Senior Research Assistant at Bond University, Gold Coast, Australia. She has been involved in various research projects in psychology and education, currently focusing on child trauma and the relationship between cultural diversity and learning.

Patrick Karl Osterkorn studied Romance and German Philology in Salzburg, Paris and Vienna, where he graduated in 2013. He is involved in research projects at the Center for language teaching and learning research of Vienna University. Additionally, he teaches French as well as German as a Foreign Language. His research interests focus on applied linguistics with respect to multilingualism and language teaching and learning.

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Institute of English, Opole University (Poland) teaches EFL methodology and SLA courses. She specializes in the role of affective factors in the foreign language learning process (stress, anxiety, motivation, willingness to communicate in L2, etc.). Her interests also include special educational needs (developmental dyslexia, autism, and ADHD). She has published papers in Poland and abroad, as well as two books (*The importance of being aware: Advantages of explicit grammar study*, Opole: Opole University Press, 2005 and *Language anxiety in secondary grammar school students*, Opole: Opole University Press, 2008*)*.

Maria Stec is an academic teacher, applied linguist, teacher trainer, and researcher in the Centre of Foreign Languages at the University of Silesia in Cieszyn, Poland. She is an ELT author of 20 articles, translator, and evaluator of materials for Polish Ministry of Education. Her main areas of interests involve education of young learners, teacher education, foreign language acquisition, as well as design, implementation, and evaluation of teaching and learning materials.

Magdalena Szyszka is currently pursuing a Ph.D. at Opole University where she also teaches. Being involved in EFL teaching and teacher training for several years, she is interested in second/foreign language acquisition and, in particular, language learning strategies, language anxiety, and English pronunciation. Her recent publications on the self-perceived pronunciation competence and language anxiety as well as on variability in pronunciation learning strategies' use reflect her interests mentioned above.

Agnieszka Turzańska is a Ph.D. student at the University of Silesia, Institute of English. Her major research interests include various aspects of learner development in the process of diary keeping in a foreign language, teaching English to children with hearing impairment, preservice teacher education, learner autonomy, reflection.

Eva Vetter is Professor of language teaching and learning research at Vienna University, She holds a Ph.D. in French and Applied Linguistics. Her research interests focus upon multilingualism with respect to linguistic minorities, historical multilingualism, language policy, and language teaching and learning. From 2006–2010 she elaborated on theories and methods of multilingualism within the EC founded Network of Excellence LINEE (Languages in a Network of European Excellence). Her research also concerns text and discourse analysis, social network, francophonie, and teacher education. She has published three monographs, fifty scientific articles, and four edited volumes. She is currently Secretary of the Austrian Branch of AILA and Treasurer of International Association of Multilingualism and Co-Editor of the *International Journal of Multilingualism*.

Teresa Maria Wlosowicz obtained her Ph.D. in linguistics in 2009 and is currently preparing her postdoctoral "habilitation" entitled *Selected Cognitive and Affective Aspects of Multilingualism*. She teaches at Polonia University in Częstochowa, Poland. Her research interests include psycholinguistics, language acquisition, multilingualism, foreign language teaching methodology, sociolinguistics, and translation studies.

Adam Wojtaszek is Associate Professor and the Deputy Director at the Institute of English, University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland. His major field of interest is linguistic pragmatics, psycholinguistics, and language of persuasion. He has published two books on advertising language as well as a number of articles on the topic. Within the area of psycholinguistics and second language acquisition studies, he has coedited a number of volumes reporting on recent studies and developments, such as *Neurolinguistic and Psycholinguistic Perspectives on SLA* (2010), *The Acquisition of L2 Phonology* (2011a), *Individual Learner Differences in SLA* (2011b) and *Aspects of Culture in Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning* (2011c).

Part I
Introducing Qualitative Research

Sociological and Educational Roots of Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics

Hanna Komorowska

1 Introduction

The aim of the present text is to analyse the beginnings of qualitative research on language teaching. The main reason for undertaking this study is the belief that learner-centredness should not be treated as an excuse to ignore the role of educational institutions and of their staff nor should it form a smoke screen to cover teachers' incompetence springing from the mass scale of today's teacher education. The growing need for an interdisciplinary look at educational issues is also a driving force behind this interest as the beginnings of qualitative research show a close contact of various disciplines in the field of social sciences and humanities and a resulting cross-fertilization, while today the flood of publications induces most of the researchers to concentrate on no more than a selected aspect of the situation and this often results in a tunnel vision of problems.

Searching for roots of qualitative research in language education we find an interesting chain of events illustrating a certain domino effect among various branches of humanities.

Chronologically the earliest sources of this approach can be traced back to British social and American cultural anthropology. Yet without the academic boost of German and French philosophy the impact of ethnography would most probably have been insufficient to reach American sociologists. Innovations in the field of sociological approaches soon exerted influence on social psychology and it was this discipline that brought about changes in methodologies used in educational sciences. Education was close enough to language teaching and learning and this is how qualitative approaches found their way into language pedagogy.

H. Komorowska (✉)
University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Warsaw, Poland

Warsaw University, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: hannakomo@data.pl

Let us look at this process a bit more closely, concentrating on the interwar period and the first three decades following World War II.

2 Ethnographic Roots of Qualitative Research

Field research and participant observation was first used in analyses of social institutions conducted before World War I and in the early 1920s by the British anthropologist Alfred Reginald Radcliffe-Brown (1881–1955) and the Polish-born anthropologist Bronisław Malinowski (1884–1942), who first pointed out the role of a researcher's subjectivity (Malinowski 1929/2005; Radcliffe-Brown 1922). Similar approaches and methods were used around the same time by Franz Boas (1858–1942) in contexts where social institutions did not represent e.g. Indian communities (Boas 1911), hence the new name of the discipline first called *ethnography* and later renamed *cultural anthropology*. Famous representatives of this discipline Ruth Benedict (1887–1948) and Margaret Mead (1901–1978), used a similar framework at the turn of the 1920s and 1930s in their research on Samoa and New Zealand (Mead 1928). Implications of the early qualitative approach in cultural anthropology for other disciplines are evident when we think of the never-ending popularity of Benedict's seminal publication entitled *Patterns of Culture* (1934). Participant observation as well as constant analysis of function and intention of human behaviour are a lasting contribution of that work.

3 Philosophical Roots of Qualitative Research: Phenomenology

Philosophical roots of qualitative research can be found in phenomenology as first presented by Edmund Husserl (1859–1938) in the inter-war period as the most important concept of *epoché*—suspension of all assumptions and preconceptions and of consciousness and its intentionality (Husserl 1913/1982). This approach directs the researcher's attention towards the formation and type of subjective views in human behaviour. Facts are interesting only because they shed light on diverse subjective points of view of the participants of the interaction and on their interrelations.

The development of these ideas in the 1940s gave rise to more practical implications for research methods. With his attitude of astonishment Maurice Merleau-Ponty in his *La Phénoménologie de la Perception* opted for description rather than explanation, opposed objectivisation and postulated coming back to body-related experience and to its context (Merleau-Ponty 1945). He also warned against the fear of incoherence and suggested paying attention to what is not necessarily located in the centre of any object or what is likely to be ignored if certain preconceived categories govern our observation. Much later his view of body-related experience was taken up by researchers claiming that embodiment is the root of metaphor so valuable in analysing education (Gibbs 2006). Around the

same time Piaget was publishing his texts on the value of decentring in cognitive development as early egocentrism blocks possibilities to start understanding other people's perspectives (Piaget 1936, 1937). Studies on peripheral vision came soon afterwards. Today implications of this are evident in the work on the development of intercultural competence (Byram 2008).

Social phenomenology as postulated by Alfred Schütz transposes Husserlian concepts onto everyday conversational practices of people basing on shared knowledge which enables intersubjective communication (Schütz 1970). This brings us, however, to the issues of phenomenological sociology and ethnomethodology.

4   Ethnomethodology

The term *ethnomethodology* was coined by Harold Garfinkel to stress similarities with methods used in the analysis of tribal groups with respect to their ways of understanding and ordering their environment (Garfinkel 1968). Investigating those individual perspectives entails the so-called bracketing process which consists in researchers' suspending their assumptions and worldviews rather than treating them as the starting point of their research. The main contribution of ethnomethodology to our understanding of behaviour is the introduction of the notion of intentionality and the analysis of human systems of relevance influencing ways in which people attach meanings to their activities. Objective facts are no longer centre-stage; what constitutes the focus of the researcher's attention is the subjective aspect of human behaviour. As in phenomenological approaches discussed above, observable facts may no more than bring information on subjective aspects of human behaviour as well as enable the researcher to understand points of view of particular interactants.

Today the value of ethnomethodological approaches manifests itself in the emphasis on intentionality in human behaviour (Tomasello 2008) as well as in the work of proponents of critical pedagogy (Trifonas 2000) and postmodern approaches to the concept of truth in social and educational contexts which now meet with both appraisal and critique (Giroux and Purpel 1983; Hill et al. 1999).

5   Sociological Roots of Qualitative Research

In sociology roots of qualitative research can be traced back to the beginnings of the symbolic interactionist approach born in opposition to classical sociological approaches linked to quantitative research methodologies.

The quantitative approach in sociology assumes that social behaviour should be investigated in ways used in the natural sciences. The goal is, therefore, to test a theory, e.g. formulate hypotheses based on what empirically follows from the theory. Hypotheses should relate to what is measurable and therefore variables analysed should be operationalized using indices permitting reliable data collection in order to prove or disprove hypotheses, state facts and describe them statistically.

On this basis relations between variables can be established and both explanations and predictions provided (Bogdan and Biklen 1982; Cohen 1982).

Sociological research thus understood utilized not only quantifiable coding counts, but also valid, reliable tests and was conducted on large, stratified samples to ensure generalizability of the results obtained. It could be described as quantitative, statistical, objective, structuralistic and deductive.

What did this mean in practice?

Conventional sociology was based on concepts of role, status, group, norm, attitude and value, where interaction was analysed in terms of dispositions and expectations, role conflict, conformism, deviation and sanctions. Interaction stability was considered a result of similarities of perceptions leading to similar principles of decision-making, and this implied cognitive consensus achieved in the process of socialization. The meaning of action was therefore based on an internalized, normative model, expressed symbolically through language and acquired through communication. Meanings were thus treated as abstract, independent of the situation and at the same time intersubjective and based on consensus (Hałas 2006).

Unlike quantitative approaches, qualitative ones do not consider products to be more important than the ways leading to them. Processes are here crucial and their nature is analysed through direct, observational studies.

In the interactionist approach meanings are being constructed in the interaction process (Brittain 1973: 25–29; Giddens 1976: 160), it is the situation that determines the meaning, and in consequence the art of interpretation becomes the basis of interaction as roles or norms are also constantly reinterpreted (Hałas 2006).

Roots of this approach can be traced back to the contribution of the Chicago school in the years 1892–1935 with researchers such as George Herbert Mead building foundations for the modern analysis of social structures, Charles Cooley working on primary and secondary groups and on "the looking-glass self" (Cooley 1930), or John Dewey engaging in bringing sociology close to reality and in postulating educational reforms (Dewey 1938). What brought about methodological change was the school's interest in shifts from rural to industrial communities. As researchers of the school believed that qualitative methodologies were best suited for this kind of study, numerous new methods and techniques were introduced in the school's research on the so-called social worlds, e.g. the work on biographies by William Thomas, famous for his collaboration with the eminent Polish sociologist, Florian Znaniecki, on the Polish peasant in America (Thomas and Znaniecki 1918). Later participating observation was introduced as used by Robert Park with his journalistic experience and interest in urban themes. Ethnographic methods were also employed in the work of Ernest Burgess, who was interested in urban ecology (Park et al. 1925), in the research by Louis Wirth, who investigated interactions in the Jewish Ghetto (Wirth 1928), and in that by William Whyte, who investigated the functioning of the Italian community (Whyte 1943). Implications for education came from the research undertaken by George Herbert Mead, e.g. on mutual adaptation in conversation. The seminal work of the period was Mead's *Mind, Self and Society. From the Standpoint of a Social Behaviorist* (1934). Studies on interaction were embedded in research on social structures

perceived as complex networks of dynamic processes, an early predecessor of present day dynamic, ecological models (Herdina and Jessner 2002; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008).

The second Chicago school, functioning in the post-World War II period, continued the work. Research on occupational relations was first undertaken by Everett Hughes (Hughes and Hughes 1952), several years later studies in urban ecology were initiated by Ernest Burgess (Burgess and Bogue 1967). The most famous members of this group were Herbert Blumer, Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss (Glaser and Strauss 1967), though most of the implications for education came from the work of Ervin Goffman (1956, 1969, 1974, 1979). Although all of them still used a number of ideas linked to positivist approaches of conventional sociology, sociologists today believe that their contribution was significant (Angrosino 2007). The most important innovation consisted in the promotion of two basic concepts. The first was that of *ego* as a social construct which develops in the interaction processes. The second was the concept of theory as instrumental rather than autotelic in solving research problems. The interactionist approach was in line with a more general paradigm change from the normative to the interpretive (Wilson 1974) or from the absolutist to the phenomenological paradigm (Douglas 1974: 13–16).

The so-called grounded theory, established in the 1960s by Barney G. Glaser and Arnold L. Strauss (Glaser and Strauss 1967), has proved to be the lasting achievement of the Chicago school. It is now considered the foundation of qualitative research in sociology, a paradigm soon promoted far beyond its maternal discipline within the frames of a more general and lasting paradigm shift.

6   Beginnings of Qualitative Research in Education

New insights coming from the field of sociology found a captive audience in educators in Britain and in the US, where a huge number of quantitative research projects in education left researchers with a growing feeling of insufficiency. The initial procedure of categorising data was based on theory, e.g. within the theory of educational leadership other explanations of teaching behaviours became impossible. Contexts were ignored as broader categories were introduced to encompass all the data collected. Intentions were ignored as only observable behaviour was taken into consideration. As it is usually easier to have a clear view of certain deficiencies in retrospective, researchers of the 1970s and 1980s could see that boundaries set in time-sampling observation blurred continuous processes and, in consequence, meaningful features were lost forever (Delamont and Hamilton 1984). A change of attitude towards quantitative research instruments took place; they started to be treated as "frozen theories," while the new approach postulated "to qualify through the screens of the participant" rather than "to quantify through the screen of the observer," as Sevigny put it (Sevigny 1981: 168).

The first practical attempts to take very different routes in investigating educational issues came in the late 1950s and were made public in the 1960s with two seminal books by John Holt: *How Children Fail*, published in 1964 and based on his observation of school children in the years 1958–1959, and *How Children Learn* published 3 years later (Holt 1964, 1967). Both were based on unstructured participant observation of children in home and school situations and both concentrated on what the author considered critical events—critical at least for the new insight into what he saw. What can serve as an example of the implications of the new approach to educational research is his observation and analysis of a little girl's reaction to praise. When, after she sang a song, her father exclaimed with pride that he had never heard her pronounce the word "crack" properly as formerly she had been pronouncing it as "frack," she became embarrassed, repeated the song pronouncing "frack" again and stopped altogether (Holt 1967: 77–78). This not only allowed the observer a closer look at ways adults interact with children or at the role of praise, but also led him to abandon the sharp division of facts in children's school learning into "unknown" and "known" and introduce the third field of "degrees of uncertainty." In much the same way the author discovered meaning underlying children's strategies of coping with teachers' questions and, in consequence, causes of school failure.

But it was often the immediate stimulus coming from academic contacts with anthropologists with their emergent methodologies that triggered new ways of approaching educational research. Philip Jackson and his seminal work *Life in Classrooms*, first published in 1968, can serve as a good example here. Having attended a 1962 seminar run at the Centre for Advanced Study in the Behavioural Sciences by social anthropologists who investigated the social behaviour of primates and struck by the usefulness of ethnographic methods employed by Schaller in his work on the mountain gorilla (Schaller 1963), Jackson decided to transfer new methodologies to his hitherto quantitative research on teachers' and students' behaviour in elementary classrooms. The results were published in his famous book *Life in Classrooms* (Jackson 1968/1990).

Removing preconceptions, abandoning any plans to formulate hypotheses, taking the stance of a "Martian on Earth" to describe what was happening in the school context and trying to see the unobservable, Jackson came up with the idea of the hidden curriculum best described by three keywords: *crowd*, *praise* and *power* (Jackson 1968/1990: 10). He first looked at learning in schools as learning to live with delays, with constant waiting to "give up desire" as well as "how to wait for its fulfilment" (*ibid*.: 15). He also demonstrated the uselessness of observable attention measures, showing both fake attention and the lack of involvement accompanied by attention signals. This in turn led him to a closer look at teachers' behaviour and its sources then linked with teacher appraisal in which teaching ability depended to a large degree on monitoring learners' attention levels. Focus on teachers' fears of loss of authority signalled by massive inattention was a natural consequence of these interests (*ibid*.: 102). All this showed a move from observable to unobservable, "from surface to depth," as he himself put it (*ibid*.: 97), and attracted attention to the role of interaction (Rheingold 1969).

What is worth pointing out is that it is in this work metaphor was first used in the research on schools and teaching as a way of presenting what the researcher saw and attempted to describe. Criticizing the common educational approach of the time, John Holt coined the often quoted metaphor of a slave: "If we didn't make children do things, they wouldn't do anything. . .," which he explained to mean: "If I weren't made to do things, I wouldn't do anything," and added that it was "the creed of a slave" (Holt 1964: 113). Around the same time Philip Jackson first formulated the statement that ". . .students have something in common with the members of the two other of our social institutions that have involuntary attendance: prisons and mental hospitals. . ." and that ". . .the school child, like the incarcerated adult, is in a sense a prisoner. He too must come to grips with the inevitability of experience" (Jackson 1968/1990: 9). Metaphor has since become a valid, if unpopular, way of e.g. identifying teachers' subjective theories of education, which is an issue I discuss at length in another publication (Komorowska 2013).

Similar developments could be seen in the UK. In British education conclusions from criticism were drawn quite soon, especially as some of the critics, e.g. Sarah Delamont, were actively engaged in research on the inner life of schools (Delamont 1976, 1984). They postulated a thorough analysis of what they called the teacher's and individual learner's perspectives on schools and on education in general and were especially interested in similarities and differences in their ways of attaching meanings to situations in which they found themselves. This called for a closer look at ways pupils and their teachers define their situation as, respectively, students and group leaders or employees in a given school, how they ascribe meanings, redefine them in new situations, negotiate them when conflicts arise, relate to shared knowledge and exchange information.

The first important consequence was the opening of new fields of inquiry calling for collaboration of educators with sociologists and psychologists. Phenomena started surfacing in their research that were difficult to grasp within the framework of quantitative methodologies. Let us look at factors which especially attracted researchers' attention.

One of the new topics dealt with in collaboration with psychologists was discipline, which had never before been tackled in academic investigations. Changes in students' attitudes and behaviour occurring as a consequence of observing teachers' reactions to tardiness started a series of research projects (Kounin and Gump 1958). Teaching behaviours in dealing with school learners were given a lot of attention (Bany and Johnson 1964; Bloom and Wilensky 1967), especially those related to humour (Walker and Goodson 1977; Stebbins 1980), noise (Denscombe 1980; Woods 1980b, c), gender and peer group (Meyenn 1980), but also to difficulties encountered by novice teachers in their probationary year (Hanson and Herrington 1976), teachers' and pupils' strategies (Woods 1980a, b), teachers' first encounter with their students (Ball 1980; Beynon and Atkinson 1984; Furlong 1976; Grace 1978; Gannaway 1976; House and Lapan 1978) and the complex issue of power over communication (Edwards and Furlong 1978; Stubbs 1976). All those issues eventually pointed to the overarching problems of both the hidden

curriculum (Vallance 1983) and evaluation, the latter soon becoming the flag target of critical pedagogy (Giroux and Purpel 1983).

Collaboration with social psychologists could be seen in research on teachers' self-fulfilling prophecies, where behaviour and achievement proved far more important than ability or personality (Woods 1980a, b), in studies on deviance (Hargreaves et al. 1975), research on teachers in classrooms, their individualism and loneliness (Grace 1978; Morrison and Mc Intyre 1972a) and their professionalism (Ginsburg 1976), as well as on learners' expectations vis-á-vis their teachers (Nash 1976; Woods and Hammersley 1977; Woods 1983) and their adaptation to school requirements (Turner 1983).

Collaboration with sociologists was helpful in gaining insight into the teaching profession, teachers' roles and adaptation and leadership styles, as well as in analysing schools as institutions. Publications such as *Schools and Socialization* (Morrison and Mc Intyre 1971), *Sociology and the School. An Interactionist Viewpoint* (Woods 1983), *Fifteen Thousand Hours. Secondary Schools and Their Effect on Children* (Rutter et al. 1980) and *The Challenge for the Comprehensive School* (Hargreaves 1982) serve as good examples here.

Qualitative approaches gained extra impetus at the beginning of the 1970s as a result of the then often quoted book entitled *Social Sciences as Sorcery*, authored by Polish-born Stanislav Andreski (1974). Titles of some of the chapters of the book speak for themselves. In Chap. 6 titled "The smoke screen of jargon" the author gave numerous examples of trivial information, banal statements and useless verbosity behind academic newspeak found in a lot of sociological writings. In Chap. 9, "Hiding behind methodology," he critically analysed "The wide acceptance of the dogma that nothing can be worth knowing that cannot be counted" (1974: 118) and in Chap. 10 titled "Quantification as camouflage" he explicitly states "I fully appreciate the usefulness of quantification...What I am arguing against is the soul-destroying taboo against touching anything that cannot be quantified" (*ibid.*: 145).

Development of qualitative research perspective since the early 1960s is interesting to observe from a methodological point of view (Green and Wallat 1981). New research questions called for new ways of data collection and for new instruments such as journals, logs or memoirs (Biddle and Ellena 1964; Goslin 1969). Leadership styles proved difficult to analyse without the symbolic interactionist interpretation of outside and inside authority (Evans 1966). Case studies proved valuable both in the analysis of individual children, as in the then popular 'Anancy goes to school. A case study of pupils' knowledge of their teachers' (Furlong 1977), and in the analysis of schools as institutions (Ball 1981).

Most of the earlier projects, e.g. the abovementioned research on the ripple effect in discipline (Kounin and Gump 1958), tended to combine quantitative and qualitative aspects applying various approaches to various variables. The wave of research in the 1970s followed this line, as if attempts to reject measurement undertaken by Holt (1964, 1967) and Jackson (1968/1990) were too radical for the field. Two projects served as models for researchers of the late 1960s and early 1970s. The first one was the project conducted by Biddle and Ellena on leadership

styles (1964). Although part of the research is still quantitative, the qualitative aspect concentrates on difficulties in assessing effects of leadership styles which in the authors' opinion result not only from insufficient clarification of educational objectives, but also from the lapse of time between potential causes and probable effects—variables which do not lend themselves to be analysed within the quantitative paradigm. The second one was the project conducted by Evans (1966) on leadership styles which introduced three significant scales of leadership, i.e.: outside/inside leader, outside/inside authority and outside/inside task assignment. Both projects pointed to the need of observation, although often conducted within the behavioural framework as illustrated by the investigation of teaching behaviours in Bany and Johnson (1964) or Bloom and Wilensky (1967), soon followed by the impressive work by Flanders and his interaction category system—FIAC (Flanders 1970). This paradoxically caused retreat to quantitative methodologies applied to variables which call for more qualitative approaches as can be seen in research projects collected in a volume edited by Morrison and Mc Intyre entitled *The Social Psychology of Teaching* (1972b). Measurement came back in research on non-verbal signals (Jackson and Lahaderne 1972), instances of classroom interaction (Bellack and Davitz 1972) and even on teachers' attitudes towards educational objectives (Bennet 1976)—an impressive study on 468 UK teachers.

Yet even quantitative research such as ORACLE, which covered 58 classes over 3 years (Galton, Simon and Croll 1980), or Goodlad's study of 1,000 classes in 38 schools (Goodlad 1984) took antipositivist criticism into consideration. Rosenshine's constructive proposal to differentially consider high and low inference variables was accepted and followed in relation to temporal factors (e.g. time distance between behaviour and registration), and directionality factors (e.g. direct observation, indirect judgement) (Rosenshine 1971). Observation as the fundament of qualitative research in education was by that time well established in academia (Stubbs and Delamont 1976).

7   Conclusions

The blending of quantitative and qualitative methods which took place at the turn of the 1970s and 1980s, as well as the developments of the last three decades with a noticeable pendulum swing towards quantitative research, which now seems to be coming to an end, deserve a separate study.

Whatever the final decision of the researcher in relation to variables and frameworks, valuable contributions of early research can be very clearly seen today. Three aspects which were present in the early stages of qualitative research found a permanent place in applied linguistics and language teaching research: *context* was considered crucial for the understanding of individual perspectives, *dialogue* was stressed as taking place between the researcher and his/her subjects and *critical reflection* started playing an important part at every stage of the research process. All three have proven significant for research methodology in SLA/FLT and

beyond and are today pointed out as fundamental types of research validity labelled contextual, dialogic and self-reflective (Saukko 2005).

What has also become evident is the role of basic topics introduced in early qualitative research. It produced a durable interest in learner and teacher strategies, functions of classroom language and communication, styles of leadership both in lockstep and in group work as well as in interaction patterns. Observation, analysis of critical events, diaries, portfolios, logs and autobiographies gained a firm place in research methodologies (Franklin 2012).

But the most important contribution is the recognition of the value of contact not only between language teaching and psychology, but also between other fields, as cross-fertilisation between seemingly distant disciplines, a characteristic feature of the early qualitative research projects in humanities is, now too often forgotten in the field of Second Language Acquisition and Language Teaching.

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Are the Only Things That Count the Things That Can Be Counted? On Modeling as a Cognitive Tool in the Field of Foreign Language Learning and Teaching

Maria Dakowska

1 Introduction

Modeling has become an established part of scholarly research in cognitive psychology and literature on this subject is growing (e.g. Gentner and Stevens 2009; Johnson-Laird 1983, 2005; Nersessian 2002, 2008; Norman 2009; Rumelhart and Norman 1987). In my article I regard model construction as an integral part of the cognitive conception of science, a relevant source of insights on our mental processes involved in scientific research. My purpose is to decompose model construction into elementary mental operations in order to identify various steps, junctures and options in the process and recognize profound consequences of our choices for the status of the resulting representation. In the case of the field of foreign language learning and teaching, these choices may lead to such diverse entities as sequences of language forms abstracted from the human being on the one hand and episodes of language use by the human subject on the other. Needless to say, these choices define the "genetic" core of FLLT, a young discipline with a still fairly brittle sense of identity.

2 Why Is Modeling Inevitable in Language Sciences?

It is clear to language researchers now more than ever that "language" is a deceptively simple term for a most heterogeneous and polymorphic phenomenon, which displays its multiaspectuality along a host of parameters. Language may be regarded from different perspectives, represented at various levels of generality, e.g. as human language in general or specific ethnic languages, along various

M. Dakowska (✉)
University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
e-mail: m.b.dakowska@uw.edu.pl

dimensions, for example space (i.e. language families, regional dialects), time (synchronic/diachronic linguistics), either phylogenetic or ontogenetic, life-span dimensions, as well as purposes of use (languages for general or specialized purposes), from the point of view of norm as well as pathology, used by monolingual and multilingual speakers, with focus on language system or language use, as well as neurolinguistic, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and cultural levels. To complicate the matters further, we have a host of linguistic traditions and schools of thought, which select their special angle, be it taxonomic, structural, stratificational, generative, universal, or cognitive, not to mention the highly abstract focus characteristic of the philosophy of language, which ponders the miracles of human language in a most universal sense. Naturally, language may be of interest from a pure as well as an applied point of view: one can aim at language description and explanation, as well as first, second, third, foreign language education, language revitalization, policy and planning. Additionally, these pure and applied concerns have always been determined by the prevalent conception of the criteria and goals of science at the time. On the basis of the prevalent understanding of the notion of a mental model (Johnson-Laird 1983, 2005; Giere 2006; Norman 2009), each of these perspectives of language may serve as a useful model generating meaningful research questions of a certain kind, whereas different purposes may require different models of the same facet of language.

Language has no rival in its potential for affording diverse perspectives and intricate interpretations, the sentiment also expressed by Cook and Seidlhofer (1995, and quoted in Atkinson 2011:1). Since it is not available to the researcher in a ready finite form, it must first be carved out conceptually, either explicitly or implicitly. It is my strong conviction, therefore, that because of this protean nature of language, deliberate modeling of its aspect relevant for the language discipline in question is a fundamental concern. The better the match between the constraints of the model and the priorities of the discipline in question, the greater its chances of being effective in the academic and educational world. These observations, resulting from my study of a rather stormy relationship of FLLT with linguistics [for a detailed presentation see Dakowska (1987, 1996)], fully justify a closer investigation of modeling as a reasoning operation (cf Johnson-Laird 2006). It remains to be seen whether model construction should be qualified as a method of qualitative research, a method of theoretical research, or just a cognitive tool.

3 Basic Tenets of the Cognitive Conception of Science

At this point let me outline key tenets of the cognitive conception of science which bring to bear on the issue at hand; a more extensive treatment of this topic can be found in my other publications (e.g. Dakowska 2013, 2014). This framework has quite a strong group of advocates (see Carruthers et al. 2002; Giere 1988, 1992, 1999, 2006; Gopnik and Melzoff 1996; Holyoak and Morrison eds. 2005; Johnson-Laird 2006; Klahr 2000; Lindzey and Aronson eds. 1985; Nersessian 2008;

Velmans 2000), who regard science as a natural and cultural phenomenon and look up to cognitive psychology in search of insights on the nature of scientific reasoning. Their motto is taken from Einstein: *the whole science is nothing more than a refinement of everyday thinking* (Nersessian 2008: 61). I entirely agree with Gopnik and Melzoff (1996:15), who state that there is in fact no alternative view, while pointing out that the idea is derived from the 'naturalistic epistemology' of Quine and others:

> Science is cognitive almost by definition, insofar as cognition is about how minds arrive at veridical conceptions of the world. In some sense, scientists *must* be using some cognitive abilities to produce new scientific theories and to recognize their truth when they are produced by others. Scientists have the same brains as other human beings and they use those brains, however assisted by culture, to develop knowledge about the world.

According to these researchers, science is a special cultural practice which makes use of the individual cognitive processes operating on our mental representations of the world together with information that comes from other people via communication. Communication enables people to negotiate the meaning of such information. Mental representation as well as representations of representations, also called secondary representations (Miller 1987), belong to the fundamental concepts of the cognitive framework (Baars 1997, 2007; Barsalou 2009; Eysenck 2006; Eysenck and Keane 2010; Koch 2004, 2012; Littlejohn 1999; Thagard 2005a, b). Characteristically, these scholars admit that human representations of the world can be veridical, the point I share entirely. As evidenced by the development of our civilization, human ability to deal with the empirical reality is not bad at all. This view is quite different from relativism [for a critical discussion see e.g. Jordan (2004) and Long (2007), as well as Giere (2006)].

Velmans (2000) expresses a fundamental tenet of cognitivism that the brain constructs a 'representation' or a 'mental model'—based on environmental stimuli, expectations, and previous knowledge—in formats determined by the sensory modality employed. After all, there is a difference between empirical and virtual reality: in virtual reality we interact with a virtual world outside our body although there is no actual, corresponding world there (see also Giere 2006; Gopnik and Melzoff 1996). While the world we experience is a representation which depends for its existence on human perceptual processing, the reality so represented does not. However, there is no knowledge without a knower, the subject whose mind represents it. Knowledge can exist only in the mind of the knowing subject or agent, not in the book. There may be different ways of representing a given entity or event depending on the perspective, distance, level of abstraction or selected properties, but, at the same time, representations for a given purpose may differ in their accuracy and utility.

Scientific theories refer to models, which are constructs pitched at a certain level of generality. Models represent these phenomena whereas theories attempt to explain them. Unfortunately, the dividing line is very slim. Velmans (2000) is not alone in stressing the observer-relative nature of observations, i.e. the idea that our knowledge is filtered through, and conditioned by the sensory, perceptual and cognitive system as well as the conjectural status of any given scientific theory.

Mental phenomena are a subjective reflection of objective reality, but their status is subject to social negotiation and modification to be represented as similar in different minds. This position is consistent with the realist theory of science (Bhaskar 1975; Collier 1994), according to which "perception gives us access to things and experimental activity access to structures that exist independently of us" (Bhaskar 1975: 9). Phenomena are different from illusions or hallucinations. Science is public in the sense of being based on similar individual experiences, not to mention the fact that it is impossible without group effort. It is intersubjective, i.e. socially communicated, negotiated, agreed upon and shared, similarly represented in other minds, rather than objective. In addition to shared experience, one needs shared language, shared cognitive structures, a shared world-view or scientific paradigm, shared training and expertise and so on, to form part of the database of a communal science (Carruthers et al. 2002). Science is a natural—universal—human fact as well as part of human culture in that it displays group and temporal differences (Giere 2002).

In cases of difficulty, i.e. dealing with research objects that are too big or too small, too rare or too distant for normal perception, science makes use of cognitive prostheses, such as the telescope, the microscope, or statistics. Reasoning operations, such as explanation, prediction, causal attribution, theory formation and testing, are considered to be a natural part of our cognitive equipment rather than a late cultural invention (Holyoak and Morrison eds. 2005). Although theory change grows out of culture and society (socialization), it also has important links with natural learning mechanisms, especially the differentiation early in human development between practical activities, aimed at our survival and adaptation, and exploratory operations, which are aimed at understanding the world (Carruthers 2002; McGregor 2007). Cognitive scientists (see e.g. Giere 1992; Gopnik and Melzoff 1996; Nersessian 2008) stress that theories are instances of general cognitive structures, such as schemata, metaphors, nets and production systems. Theorizing devices are designed for rapid, powerful and flexible learning and exploring logical regularities for this purpose. Theory is understood as a condensed form of understanding (Dubin 1969). 'If you want to get ahead, get a theory', as the title of Karmiloff-Smith and Inhelder's article from 1974 succinctly points out. The table below provides my systematization of essential properties of science derived from three domains, culture, human cognitive activities and communication (Table 1).

4 The Nature of Model Construction

Nersessian (2008: 93) provides a representative definition of the term of interest here: "A mental model is a structural, behavioural, or functional analog representation of a real-world or imaginary situation, event or process. It is analog in that it preserves constraints inherent in what is represented." In the second sentence of Nersessian's definition, the term "analog" is to be interpreted in a broad sense rather than technically, in connection with "analogical" as in the "analogical/digital"

Table 1 Properties of science in the cognitive conception

Science as a cultural phenomenon	Science as specialization of our cognitive processes	Science as a form of (expert) communication
(a) Science as a cultural phenomenon is aimed at satisfying human needs, especially cognitive needs to understand and make sense;	(a) The goal of scientific research processes is to understand the world, i.e. grasp the coherence of the phenomena of interest;	(a) The goal of communication in science is not only to spread scientific information, but first and foremost, to negotiate meanings and interpretations of the phenomena/issues of interest;
(b) scientific values in search of understanding are a special case of human cultural values;	(b) scientific explorations make use of the available reasoning processes, especially their more complex varieties: categorizing, comparison, contrast, definition, analogy, induction, deduction, chronological ordering, modeling, problem solving, formulating principles, regularities and rules, cause and effect reasoning, looking for anomalies, etc. (Johnson-Laird 2005);	(b) such a function is suitably carried out by polemics, critiques, opinions, reviews, controversies, and discussions in journals and conferences;
(c) like other forms of human cultural activity, scientific research is focused on human beings in their environment and their use of resources for adaptation;	(c) the nature of research operations are determined by the nature of the subject matter under investigation; reasoning about inanimate matter is qualitatively different from reasoning about humans;	(c) as in other cases, scientific communication makes use of communicative conventions, shared background knowledge and expertise, cognitive schemata, terminology, norms, expectations, presuppositions, discourse genres, and rules of communication;
(d) it is mandatory to recognize the synergetic bond between human beings and their sociocultural environment and habitat;	(d) cognitive processes of scientific research are a form of interaction with the domain under investigation; the quality of this interaction is determined by the precision of the cognitive tools used in defining its subject matter;	(d) the fact of accepting the above structures and norms, i.e. the language of scientific communication responsible for group coherence, means group membership, i.e. it makes a person a member of the given research community.
(e) as in other types of culture, specialization of science results from the specificity of its substance and domain; at the same time it by far exceeds basic necessities;	(e) because of its values, scientific research seeks to overcome the inevitable human subjectivity and cognitive individualism with its cognitive prostheses and statistics.	
(f) in science, the use of conventions, characteristic of culture in general, leads to group differences and the formation of scientific communities.		

distinction. In the case of FLLT, we are dealing with conceptual models and in such models the relevant phenomena are submitted to our mental categorization. Mental categorization is a case of feature coding, i.e. it involves grouping target phenomena on the basis of their selected relevant properties. Therefore, unlike in physical

models, in which analogy is natural, the "analog" property of a conceptual model can be appreciated at the level of conceptual and propositional meanings conveyed by the concepts and sentences rather than at the level of the model's verisimilitude with, or resemblance to, the represented phenomenon in the perceptual sense.

A model reflects our understanding of the system inherent in the target phenomenon and provides us with the ability to anticipate occurrences in the environment. Models are built to selectively represent target phenomena and to satisfy constraints drawn from the target domain (Norman 2009). Model-based reasoning makes use of both highly specific domain knowledge and knowledge of general principles of how to make proper abstractions (Nersessian 2002, 2008). The model must be of the same kind as the salient dimensions of the target phenomenon to allow mental operations, such as manipulations, analogies, thought experiments, etc., leading to innovation and conceptual restructuring. "Conceptual innovation is a representational problem—how to represent the known information so as to enable satisfactory inferences that go beyond the target information at hand and lead to novel hypotheses for further investigation" (Nersessian 2008: XII).

Model construction is an instance of human problem solving and it is recognized as pervasive in human thought and action. People engage in modeling all the time. They construct mental images of entities, situations, processes, events that can be manipulated mentally. Mental models play an important role in all cases of understanding, especially in discourse comprehension (Johnson-Laird 1983, 2005; Kintsch 1998). Nersessian (2008) regards model construction as a signature practice of the sciences. Models are *representations,* primarily mental representations of nature, but they can be representations of something other than nature, as well. Essentially, representation involves a mental link between two entities, whereby one stands for the other, e.g. A stands for B. If A represents B, they are in a symbolic relationship in that A symbolizes B. Representation/symbolization is a distinctly human feat which facilitates thought and action on all kinds of objects, be it mental, environmental, natural or social, which would be infeasible without this complex ability of establishing the representational association between entities. These associations may be *analogical*, i.e. natural, based on verisimilitude, or *arbitrary*, i.e. without any resemblance, conventional. Models may be expressed in concepts, logical or mathematical symbols, or in a graphic or physical form. Constructing and manipulating models provides us with the basis for genuine, even creative, reasoning. Nersessian (2008) points out that models are primary; they come first and they are more significant and basic as units in the sciences than axiomatic systems or propositional networks of theories.

Since model construction is a form of problem solving, it is a central issue here how the modeling problem is represented, because this defines all the feasible strategies which can be developed as solution paths commensurate with the model. In the context of our cognitive processes, but also in social activities, *construction* in general consists of two elementary operations:

1. a selection of an entity from among the options available at a given juncture in our problem space and
2. integration of the resulting elements into a coherent whole, e.g. system.

However, although construction processes are indispensable in modeling, especially when it comes to conceptual models, model construction is highly involved and specialized and can be decomposed into the following building blocks (the list below is by no means intended to be understood as a serial order of separate operations, but as highly interactive top-down and bottom-driven strategic steps):

(a) identifying relevant *constraints*, be it external, internal, natural, formal, or all of the above, to secure the fit of the intended model with the represented domain and to adjust the model to the needs and goals of the cognizing subject; in the case of an empirical discipline these constraints are derived from the natural constraints of the empirical phenomenon under investigation and from the formal constraints of empirical as opposed to formal disciplines;

(b) implementing these constraints into initial commitments as for the nature of the target domain to be represented as a model; these *commitments* may be explicit or implicit but they define the most general category of the model and have profound consequences for its utility; at this primary level, choices may refer to such fundamental options as modeling language as an empirical phenomenon in the real world or modeling language as a formal system, abstracted from space and time and the human being it is living in;

(c) confining the resulting *representation within its boundaries* on the basis of its distinctive feature(s) enables us to regard it an integral whole, i.e. a unified *system,* and to assign structure to this focus of investigation, rather than as a sum of its parts, e.g. as a sum of research foci of related disciplines; the boundaries support the model's cohesiveness as well as "motility" in the sense of suitability for various cognitive operations, such as manipulations, adjustments and modifications;

(d) selecting the relevant entities within these boundaries while, at the same time, eliminating the irrelevant ones; in conceptual models, this step is performed by way of subsuming relevant aspects of the phenomenon under appropriate conceptual categories; conceptualizing allows the researcher to disregard, i.e. factor out or abstract from, the irrelevant features of the phenomenon;

(e) *integrating the selected entities functionally* to restore their coherence and cohesion; this step is inseparable from various commitments regarding the sources of dynamics in the phenomenon and the resulting model made at an earlier stage (see point a); in the case of empirical models of language use by people, the source of dynamics is imbedded in the human instinct to communicate, i.e. to construct and transmit meanings to other human beings in the context of human communicative networks;

(f) *integrating these entities hierarchically* to determine the model's acuity of focus, i.e. its degree of the fidelity of representation; hierarchy is understood as an arrangement in which some entities are not only coordinated, but also subordinated to other, more influential entities; in hierarchies, we have symbolic representations of lower-level entities by entities at higher levels.

A model serves its cognitive purpose by reducing the degree of uncertainty in the researcher's mind, i.e. reducing the degree of complexity of the target phenomenon to be dealt with mentally. By selecting only some entities/factors and postulating their relationships the researcher can turn the underlying understanding of the target phenomenon into the empirical system representing the subject matter of a given discipline in space and time. As a result of these operations, the model can facilitate our understanding by providing a cognitively compact, i.e. easier to handle, representation of the target phenomenon with entities and relationships more salient than in the target. Compression has one fundamental advantage: it makes the model more tangible and flexible to the cognizing subjects, mediating all kinds of cognitive interactions of the researcher with the target phenomenon. This is precisely how models function as our cognitive tools which facilitate our cognitive processes. Models provide us with analogies of the real phenomena which can be manipulated, adjusted and evaluated; they can be dynamic, animated in time and we can communicate about them leading to novel scientific representations. Conceptual innovation comes from attempts to solve specific problems using the resources available in the sociocultural context in which they are created. Imagery, analogy or conceptual categories imbedded in model representations often lead to conceptual restructuring, i.e. innovation. Nersessian (2008: 157) reiterates:

> Selectively constructing the models so as to satisfy constraints deemed germane enables the reasoner to bracket irrelevant (or potentially irrelevant) features and serves to fix attention on those features relevant to the problem-solving context. *A satisfactory model is one that exemplifies features relevant to the epistemic goals of the problem-solver* (Nersessian's emphasis). Through the models the reasoner is able to grasp insights and gain understanding, and is warranted in pursuing where the inferential outcomes deriving from the model might lead with regard to the target phenomena.

It seems clear by now that the field of FLLT needs models with special constraints incorporated early on in the processes of modeling because, unlike various linguistic disciplines which construct models and theories of various facets of language solely to characterize and explain them, the applied concerns of FLLT require not only that its mental models be used for the above purposes, but also that they afford our interaction with the empirical phenomenon represented by these models in the sense of its cultivation, melioration and reconstruction in the educational system. This brings me to the conclusion that:

(a) model construction is especially significant in this particular field because modeling determines the remaining levels and options of the discipline, and
(b) this profound significance of the initial choices justifies premeditated selection and integration of relevant constraints involved in model construction, leading to novel representation.

5   External and Internal Constraints for the Domain of Investigation

My emphasis on the role of model representations is justified by the fact that each model outlines a unique problem space which affords its own type of exploration, i.e. sets of questions, data gathering, interpretations and predictions, and, by the same token, its own type of understanding. Constraints in the program of a 'normal' academic discipline provide a welcome source of orientation and can be grouped as external and internal to the field.

(a) The external constraints result from the relationship of the discipline with the society at large, e.g. its responsibility to provide knowledge applicable in language teaching, as well as survival in the academic world, e.g. the need to protect its distinctiveness among other fields in the humanities, especially language and language learning disciplines. The most significant external constraint comes from the genesis of the discipline of foreign language learning and teaching. The field has been founded to rationalize—not so much to optimize, but to rationalize—foreign language teaching, in other words, to satisfy the social demand for practically useful knowledge, i.e. knowledge specific enough to be used in the foreign language classroom. Therefore, arguments that scientific research is justified solely by satisfying our cognitive curiosity, i.e. it does not have to produce applications, are not sufficient in this particular case. In the event of failure to come up with practically useful knowledge, the discipline in question must redefine and restructure itself to approach it anew. Following the program of a 'normal' academic discipline as an orienting agenda is helpful in that it affords coordination of research efforts and the field's full articulation with all the requisite levels and research goals and choosing the empirical as opposed to the formal science format to guarantee that its tools and structure be targeted at, and sensitive to, the information input (data and evidence) from the empirical reality.

(b) The internal constraints reflect the type of discipline selected—empirical rather than formal—with its functionally specialized, yet interacting levels. This choice determines the source and nature of the model of language learning and its subsequent function inside the discipline. As a result, we have the following coordinates (Table 2).

6   Modeling in the Context of FLLT as an Autonomous Empirical Discipline

Because the field of foreign language learning and teaching is expected to develop applications, it must turn to language use and learning as a phenomenon in the real world, especially in order to define its unique perspective. The framework of a 'normal' empirical discipline can make this focus comprehensive and specific

Table 2 Constraints on the model of language use in the field of FLLT

The purpose for which the model is constructed	to represent the relevant aspect of the empirical domain, i.e. verbal communication, as the field's subject matter, a coherent empirical system of factors in space and time; this task does not impinge on other specialized levels of the academic discipline;
The source and point of reference of the model	the targeted phenomenon in the empirical reality, i.e. human beings involved in language use for the natural and sociocultural purpose of verbal communication; language learning is derived from our understanding of language use;
The focus of representation and its context	the focus of representation is our cognitive functioning addressed at others in the sociocultural networks which must, at the same time, be language-specific, i.e. targeting psycholinguistic processes and operations performed by language users who produce and comprehend humanly feasible messages, i.e. discourse, to be sent out in various sociocultural situations;
The function of the model in the discipline at the pure and applied levels	to define the problem under investigation as a category of a conceptual system; to provide a map of research questions and hypothesis of a certain kind; to provide the context for interpreting evidence and deriving applications.

enough so that the field can zero in on its own territory with the relevant aspect of the phenomenon represented as its subject matter to justify its academic identity and status as an empirical, essentially autonomous discipline. Such a program can enhance the field's internal articulation, especially the awareness of its levels of generality and methods of research, with prospects for social coordination of research activities, not to mention the field's autonomy necessary in its healthy relationships with other fields. Its advantages include the following:

1. Since the field accepts its obligations to the society at large, the program enables the discipline to provide useful knowledge, i.e. knowledge specific enough to be implemented in the classroom. The program of a 'normal' academic discipline can be seen as a promising option in contrast to various divergent ideas on how to go about foreign language teaching. This qualitative change can eliminate the unproductive power play with other fields in order to focus on the field-internal considerations.
2. The field's autonomy is treated as the cognitive right to determine its own perspective of language as language use and learning. Since cognitive processes are inevitably constructive, this angle must be determined by the purpose at hand, deliberately selected with the use of relevant criteria. As a result, the program of a 'normal' academic discipline targeted at the phenomenon in question shows the route to its own identity, derived from the properties of the subject matter which make it stand out among other fields, in a way that is conducive to pure and applied research.

Table 3 Specialized levels of FLLT defining the position and function of model construction

1. Empirical domain	*a phenomenon in the empirical reality* selected by the discipline, i.e. observable events or occurrences in space and time involving language use by people, i.e. verbal communication; natural constraints include the nature of verbal communication, especially the nature of its code, language;
2. Subject matter	an *interface* between the real world and *a mental model representing the empirical phenomenon in the target domain*; its entities are senders and addresses using (non-primary) language for comprehension and production in speech and writing; human subjects provide grounds for cross-disciplinary compatibility of FLLT;
3. Empirical research	deals with specific questions within the subject matter in search of *evidence for the relationships postulated in the model*; results of the studies can be hierarchically integrated in the context of the model; research methods, determined by the caliber of the question, may be quantitative as much as qualitative, considering the human subjects;
4. Theoretical research	*theory construction to explain the functioning of the phenomenon in question*; theories link concepts and propositions in the model of the subject matter with correlations, mutual causal or teleological relationships in the sense of action connections so that we can choose certain actions to reach certain goals and make sense of our lives (Littlejohn 2007);
5. Meta-reflection	*general policy questions* on the goals of the discipline, its models, theories and methods, especially its *applicative power*, on the ontological and epistemic commitments and various points of contention;
6. Paradigm	*the most general framework shared with related disciplines*, in this account, it is the cognitive paradigm in the humanities because human learning is cognitive by definition; *cognitivism* emphasizes the centrality of meaning, the constructive nature of human cognition; distributed yet hierarchical dynamic human networks communicating via information exchanges.

3. The program of a 'normal' academic discipline directs the field's focus onto its own niche in the real world to make sense of it, i.e. to explain it, achieved by way of its cognitive interaction with the empirical phenomenon, including hypothesis testing as well as other empirical and theoretical procedures. It also carries various constraints, not available otherwise, helpful in targeting language learning as inseparable from the language learner, who is the locus of the relevant processes and the agent of the requisite operations and interactions in a typical human environment, social and cultural, so that the ensuing knowledge about language learning can be translated into language teaching. In a broad sense, foreign language teaching may be understood as a way of recreating language learning in exactly the same type of language learning agent as the one who has been the source of exploration and applicable knowledge to begin with (Table 3).

7 Natural Constraints from the Properties of the Human Subjects Constituting the Domain of Investigation in FLLT

Except for analytical purposes, language and the human being are inseparable. In the real world, language is an inalienable human property: human beings cannot exist without language and language does not exist without human beings. Language use is a constitutive feature of human beings as living organisms, who, in contrast to inanimate matter, depend on their environment for their life and growth. Inanimate objects do not need outside contacts to sustain their existence. Living organisms, on the other hand, conduct energy exchanges with their environment and, within the limits of their genetic type and specialized receptors, are sensitive to certain specialized environmental stimuli, which they interpret as (meaningful) clues. A living organism develops along its life span, it derives energy from external sources, uses, generates, and expends it; it is predisposed to act and it must demonstrate certain adaptability to the environment, essential to its survival.

Language use and learning as an empirical phenomenon can only be represented as located in the human being as a living organism. If a discipline is to investigate relevant processes in a living organism, this organism's interaction with the environment cannot be regarded as a matter of ideological debate or a compromise between two extreme positions, but rather as synergy. Synergy is the action of two or more elements which bring about an effect that each element is incapable of individually. The biological life-sustaining exchanges make use of organic substances as well as air and water, while cognition is fed by information. These features of the living organism must be reflected in the model under consideration: the model must be conceived as an open dynamic system referring to an agent with a locus of control interacting with his/her environment, i.e. conducting exchanges and reciprocal influences by means of information and energy.

Next, in constructing a model, it is necessary to retain features which distinguish human beings from other living organisms (at least in their intensity), such as intentionality, intelligence, rationality as well as emotionality, specifically human social nature and the ability of making choices, abstract thought, symbolic processes, and creativity, and of generating species-specific meaning and culture. The next step would be to distinguish between the synchronic and the diachronic dimension of the model, i.e. to represent language use and learning by humans both cross-sectionally, as an act, and longitudinally, along the life span, to depict the natural stages of social, emotional and cognitive development as well as the individual history of the organism with the manifest role of individual differences after the initial period of uniform development. Cognitive processes in a life-span perspective can take various forms, ranging from play and incidental, even rote learning, to intentional learning, or study in the sense of intellectual reflection and creativity. With these observations in mind, it is possible to model language learning according to the more specific constraints derived from the empirical domain.

In empirical disciplines phenomena are represented by constructs at a fairly low level of generality and in a sufficiently inclusive scope to produce a rather high-resolution, or fine-grain picture which captures its relevant aspects. In this way, the discipline can have a sufficiently specific, yet comprehensive view of the phenomenon. As has been said, in order to conceptualize language learning as a phenomenon in space and time, with its distinct specificity, it is essential to recognize its episodic structure and see it as operations performed by people, i.e. as language use in verbal communication in the social context, constrained by our information processing mechanism, especially attentional limitations. Operations are deliberate acts performed by conscious individuals with their cognitive resources.

Each episode of language use produces its memory trace and this qualifies as learning. Therefore, we can treat language use as an elementary episode of language learning and derive language teaching strategies from our conception of language learning by the human subject. In this way, language learning can be represented as an empirical occurrence, a spatiotemporal system. Language learners make use of the same cognitive equipment and processes as other language users, first and foremost, verbal communication and reasoning, i.e. reflection on verbal communication. Reasoning is a specialized form of human cognitive activity which involves all kinds of thought processes aimed at systematizing and otherwise making sense of the world, including verbal communication as part of the learner's experience. Therefore, language regarded through the lens of verbal communication must be categorized as (a) the tool/code of communication, the tool of doing things with words, as well as (b) the focus of all kinds of reasoning processes available to the learner, i.e. the subject of thought.

In order to outline the subject matter of FLLT, we must single out the distinct specificity of language as the tool of communication used for the purpose of coding meaning into words and words into meaning among other systems of information processed by our cognitive architecture. It is especially important at this point to stress double articulation, arbitrary symbolic nature and segmental organization of language as opposed to analogical systems of representation and other symbolic but non-lingual systems. The specificity of foreign language learning resides in its status as non-primary language which interacts with the previously learned languages producing variable effects along the life span. The goal of the discipline of foreign language learning and teaching is to come to terms with language use and learning at such a level of specificity that this understanding be converted into our expertise as to how to institute, cultivate and sustain non-primary/foreign language learning in educational, i.e. cultural, as opposed to natural circumstances. The boundaries of the model are delineated on the basis of the specificity of language forms among the paralingual and non-lingual systems which cooperate with language in conveying meaning, but are devoid of the distinctive features of double articulation, arbitrary symbolic segmental nature of language forms. Because of their joint function of communicating meaning, these systems have fuzzy rather than clear-cut borders with considerable seepage between language-specific information and its para-lingual and non-lingual context.

Language use and learning in our sociocultural environment is a process of constant change; it must, of necessity, be represented as an open, dynamic, complex system because it involves informational exchanges between individuals who form relationships (Courtright 2007). The cognitive paradigm is relevant to the extent to which it depicts the individual with his or her cognitive resources as designated and geared for interaction with other human beings in the social and natural environment, i.e. in his or her relationships within the family and social groups, and in the context of human networks, including mass, if not global, communication and culture.

Courtright (2007: 314) stresses an important idea about human networks:

> All living organisms are open systems. They must take in nutrients, water, and oxygen from the environment, and in turn they must expel waste products. ….. All human communication systems are also open, although the commodity of exchange is information, not energy. All normal people belong to various open systems – family, class at school, friends, work group, and so forth…. Even when people are not interacting in a system, they gain information by reading, watching television, or personally experiencing non-social aspects of the environment.

It is essential to locate this open system in its appropriate context, one that is wide enough to single out its distinct specificity among a broader category of phenomena. As has been stressed in the introduction, since FLLT defines itself as an empirical discipline it must inevitably direct its concepts and tools at the empirical reality rather than at other disciplines, especially by focusing on its domain and designated territory in the real world. The model in a 'normal' empirical discipline represents the phenomenon as an empirical system, a system which retains the dimensions of space and time. Such a model assigns the status of a hierarchy of factors to variables, which helps us to make sense of foreign language learning and to draw logical inferences about the nature of foreign language teaching. The field's distinctiveness resides in the fact that language happens to be:

(a) a non-primary (subsequent) language which interacts with the previously learned languages;
(b) acquired at different points in time along the learner's life span; this makes a difference in the processes of language learning and reasoning about it;
(c) acquired in different conditions and circumstances, which create variable opportunities for learning as well as variable outcomes;
(d) learned by variably-talented individuals, i.e. learners with individual characteristics, which do not make a drastic difference early in life but certainly do later, especially around and after puberty.

The above factors are responsible for the evident diffraction of the initially uniform development of language learning later along the life span, which may provide exciting feedback to various other related language learning disciplines in which the processes of interest show much greater uniformity and may therefore be less salient/marked to researchers.

8 Conclusions

The main internal constraint related to modeling language learning for the purposes of the discipline in question is anchoring the model in space and time, i.e. targeting the human subject as the locus of cognitive processes and operations underlying verbal communication in a non-primary target language, supported by the reasoning processes available to the learner for the task. The model thus represents the phenomenon as a network of factors, justifying a unitary conception of language learning. The model is a map for research primarily to facilitate understanding of the phenomenon rather than generate methods of teaching. At the applied level, understanding phenomenon can rationalize instantiating, cultivating and sustaining foreign language learning in the educational context. Since our choices at the stage of model construction may turn the discipline of FLLT either into a formal or an empirical one, model construction should not be underestimated and regarded with due respect as a cognitive tool which can be regulated and used deliberately.

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Part II
Qualitative Methods in Studying Second Language Acquisition

Pronunciation Learning Strategy Chains: A Qualitative Approach

Magdalena Szyszka

1 Introduction

Research on language learning strategies, stemming from Rubin's (1975) and Stern's (1975) observations of good language learners, flourished in 1990s (O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990). It later evolved towards investigating strategies deployed for language skills and sub-skills, such as listening, reading, communication, writing, vocabulary, and grammar strategies (cf. Cohen and Macaro 2007). However, little attention has been paid to the strategies second and foreign language (L2) learners employ when learning target language pronunciation. Indeed, there have only been a limited number of studies exploring pronunciation learning strategies (PLS). In particular, there has been a paucity of empirical research into PLS that is qualitative in nature (Bukowski 2004; Pawlak 2011; Peterson 2000; Osburne 2003; Samalieva 2000; Wrembel 2011). This area therefore undoubtedly calls for further exploration into how L2 learners deploy strategies while learning L2 sounds and prosody.

The supportive role language learning strategies play in the process of L2 learning is indisputable. They facilitate language learning and allow learners to become more autonomous (MacIntyre and Noels 1996; Oxford 1990). Moreover, as Chamot (2001, cited in Thu 2009) points out, LLS research sheds more light on the cognitive, social, and affective processes of L2 learning; and strategic training may help learners become more efficient. In a similar vein, research into how PLS are deployed may be conducive to a better understanding of L2 phonological acquisition, and may contribute to designing a PLS training programme directed towards learners' individualised and autonomous approaches to L2 pronunciation learning inside and outside the classroom.

M. Szyszka (✉)
Opole University, Opole, Poland
e-mail: mszyszka@uni.opole.pl

Pronunciation learning strategies are perceived as steps or consciously taken actions and thoughts, which are "employed, often in a logical sequence, for learning and gaining greater control over the use of various aspects of pronunciation" (Pawlak 2010: 191). This definition stems from a broader concept of language learning strategies (LLS), which might be viewed from two different perspectives: the psychological and sociocultural (Oxford and Schramm 2007).

The former, also called cognitive, emphasises LLS' facilitative power in accelerating internalisation, storage, retrieval, and use of L2, thereby increasing L2 learner autonomy (Nyikos and Oxford 1993). Following this line, the individual chooses a strategy in order to improve his or her learning. This conscious step is an act of taking responsibility for L2 learning processes that result in linguistic improvement. What determines the choice of LLS and their use is related, partially, to the individual's "internal cognitive requirements of information processing" (Nyikos and Oxford 1993: 20).

The latter perspective defines LLS as "a learner's socially mediated plan[s] or action[s] to meet a goal, which is related directly or indirectly to L2 learning" (Oxford and Schramm 2007: 48). Here, social and cultural factors, such as learning in a particular context with a particular group of learners and teacher, who may share their strategies, determine the choice and use of LLS. This study follows the proposed sociocultural perspective. Therefore, PLS are viewed here as context-related conscious actions and thoughts used either separately or in logical sequences in order to directly or indirectly improve, learn, and control both segmental and suprasegmental aspects of L2 pronunciation.

Effective deployment of LLS, including PLS, is hypothesized to be well orchestrated in the process of learning for specific tasks (Grenfell and Macaro 2007). Therefore, learners aiming at their pronunciation improvement may select not one but a combination of PLS. These pronunciation learning strategy chains or clusters are defined as consciously chosen and logically sequenced sets of strategies used while performing tasks for pronunciation learning. Their value has been observed in the course of target language (TL) learning process, as "effective learning of any TL skill or subsystem should involve relating strategies to one another and deploying them in series of logical steps" (Pawlak 2008: 317). Oxford (2003) notes that a strategy is effective and helpful when used in accordance with the learning style of an L2 learner working on a task, and when it is related to other relevant strategies.

2   An Overview of Qualitative Research into PLS

The empirical research into PLS as deployed by L2 learners follows both quantitative (e.g. Berkil 2008; Całka 2011; Eckstein 2007; Pawlak 2008) and qualitative designs. Since the former are beyond the scope of this study, more space will be devoted to the latter. The qualitative instruments measuring PLS comprise interviews (e.g. Peterson 2000; Samalieva 2000), oral protocols (e.g. Osburne 2003; Wrembel 2011), and written diaries (e.g. Bukowski 2004; Pawlak 2011).

The advantages of using them are multifold. Firstly, they may provide valuable data that confirms and supplements the closed items used in questionnaires. Secondly, other learning strategies, not discovered earlier, may be noted—especially when it comes to PLS, which are still an under-researched area with a repertoire that is still an open question. Thirdly, they may shed light on learning processes connected to the application of either one strategy or a set of strategies, also known as a cluster or a chain, i.e. "a set of interlocking, related, and mutually supportive strategies" (Oxford 2003: 281) used by L2 learners in a specific context. Additionally, qualitative research design allows the participants to reflect upon their internal and external processes of learning pronunciation.

Interviews have been utilized by Peterson (2000) and Samalieva (2000) in order to investigate types of strategies deployed by L2 pronunciation learners. Adult learners of Spanish are the subjects in Peterson's (2000) pioneering empirical research, which gathers PLS at three proficiency levels: beginner, intermediate and advanced. Through diaries and interviews, she elicited 22 old and 21 new pronunciation learning tactics never before documented. These 43 tactics are grouped into 12 PLS, embedded within the frame of Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of LLS.

Apart from determining the types and frequency of PLS use, interviews may also disclose learners' difficulties while learning English pronunciation, as reported by Samalieva (2000), who conducted interviews among 21 EFL students at an upper intermediate level. Interviewees underlined pronunciation learning problems concerning the pronunciation of long, unfamiliar words and specialised terms, the pronunciation of separate sounds, and rhythm and intonation.

Moreover, the data analysis in Samalieva's study revealed 29 PLS classified as cognitive, metacognitive, and social, deployed at very different frequencies. For example, the strategy of increasing input via listening to the radio or TV, interacting with native speakers, and practice through repetition, were among the most frequently used PLS. Transcription and oral self-correction were the least frequently used PLS. Interestingly, the strategies preferred by students belonged to the cognitive group and comprised strategies of practice and interaction.

Oral protocols were used in research on pronunciation monitoring and the improvement strategies of advanced learners (Osburne 2003), and on strategies of conscious control over foreign language pronunciation (Wrembel 2011). This research tool, focused on the immediate verbalised reactions and thoughts of learners performing a task (Brown and Rogers 2002), may largely contribute to revealing learners' mental processes while learning L2 pronunciation. The analysis of the recorded data of Osburne's (2003) qualitative study led to the establishment of eight PLS categories, which were later used by raters to specify the frequency of PLS use. The largest number of learners reported that while monitoring their pronunciation they attempted to mimic the interlocutors and resorted to paralanguage, described by Osburne (2003: 136) as "communicative matters generally considered outside the realm of language structure per se: speed, volume, and clarity." Rarely did they pay attention to clusters of sounds and individual syllables.

Learners participating in Wrembel's (2011) empirical research monitored their oral production, among other things, with the help of peers and teachers. As well, they used a slower rate of speech and spoke aloud to themselves. Unlike Osburne's participants, Wrembel's learners focused considerable attention on the quality of vowels, diphthongs, and word stress while monitoring their pronunciation. Moreover, they pledged to regularly use the following pronunciation modification strategies: self-monitoring, self-evaluation, selected/guided attention, interactions with peers, peer correction, practical pronunciation exercises, and referring to pronunciation dictionaries.

Bukowski's (2004) and Pawlak's (2011) diary studies provided some interesting insights into PLS research. The former concentrated on the effects of indirect PLS training in a group of EFL students in Poland. The researcher observed changes in the participants' ways of L2 pronunciation learning with reference to several areas, such as "increased independence in learning, taking deliberate actions which aim at improving their pronunciation; applying phonetic terminology in group discussions, teaching and learning from one another; adopting a positive attitude towards learning pronunciation" (Bukowski 2004: 25), to mention a few. The outcomes of the study underlined the role of indirect PLS.

The latter study provided insights into the ways advanced L2 learners approach pronunciation learning, identifying the problems they face while mastering the phonetic aspects of L2 speech, and how they deal with these. The researcher applied a qualitative approach, inviting 60 English department students to keep a diary in which records of steps and procedures undertaken to improve L2 pronunciation were noted over the course of 3 months. The participants were given prompts and were allowed to choose the language in which the comments were written. The results show that the most frequently used PLS are cognitive, for example, repetition, transcription, and dictionary consulting. Interestingly, the researcher observed the "resorting to more varied and innovative strategic devices" (Pawlak 2011: 174) among some learners. These devices included paying attention, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation in an array of metacognitive strategies, as well as the highlighting and perception of contrasts in cognitive strategies. Of particular interest is that some of the participants recorded several logically sequenced strategies applied to learning for a specific task. This was highly positive, because:

> [A] seemingly ineffective [strategy] may aid the process of learning if it is skilfully incorporated into a logical sequence of strategic devices suitable for the learning challenge (e.g. repeating a word when watching a movie as part of a preplanned strategy chain). (Pawlak 2011: 175)

Apart from the issues concerning deployment of the PLS, the research findings shed more light on the value of reflectivity in the process of pronunciation learning, and led the author to suggesting several didactic proposals. For example, he encouraged teachers to introduce a more varied contextualised and naturalistic approach to pronunciation practice, to incorporate phonetic training into other L2 classes, and to pay more attention to affective factors that determine success and failure.

As shown above, empirical qualitative investigations into PLS have rarely tackled PLS chains (Pawlak 2011), although appropriate strategy chains may affect the effectiveness of the process of learning—making it faster, more autonomous, and enjoyable (Oxford 1990). For example, Politzer and McGroaty (1985, in Ellis 2008) conclude that different clusters of language learning strategies are correlated with the learning outcomes of different achievement tests. Success in listening comprehension and communicative ability works in tandem with a strategy cluster like asking teacher about an expression, or asking for confirmation of correctness; whereas linguistic competence test results are linked to two vocabulary learning strategies: keeping track of new vocabulary and trying to use new words. Therefore, "strategies need to be considered in groups rather than in isolation" (Ellis 2008: 714). The empirical investigation presented below follows this line of enquiry, and its aim is to identify PLS chains deployed for specific tasks in the process of pronunciation learning.

3 Method

The present study investigates the use of PLS chains among a group of teacher trainees. These EFL learners consciously employed PLS in order to improve their intelligibility. Following the qualitative paradigm, two qualitative approaches were adopted to collect the data: semi-structured interviews and learner diaries. The former focused on contextualised use of PLS elicited while giving oral presentations on ways of pronunciation learning, followed by a semi-structured interview. The latter concentrated on records of individual pronunciation learning processes extended in time. Although analysis of the outcomes distinguished interesting tendencies that reveal students' independent and individualised ways of learning foreign language pronunciation, repetitive patterns in applying PLS chains for specific tasks were also observed.

3.1 Participants

There were 20 teacher trainees taking part in recorded, semi-structured interviews. 28 participants submitted diaries. They were all first year EFL teacher-training college students participating in a 60-h pronunciation course. The group that agreed to the recorded sessions consisted of 16 female and 4 male interviewees. Most of them, i.e. 17 out of 20, also submitted diaries. The group reporting their PLS in written form consisted of 24 females and 4 males.

3.2 Procedure

In order to collect the largest possible number of PLS chains used while learning pronunciation, both semi-structured interviews and diary writing procedures were applied. Both of them were preceded by the introduction of a PLS project. The participants were invited to take part in the project, whose aim was to prepare for and give a presentation on how they learn English pronunciation. When performing the speech, their pronunciation would be evaluated—not the steps to perfecting it. To achieve this aim, they were to take several actions, among others, writing a phonetic diary in which they noted down their ways and strategies of learning English pronunciation, as well as their observations and reflections concerning their and others' pronunciation. The participants were provided with a list of sample PLS in order to clarify the notion of a pronunciation learning strategy. Additionally, the choice of the language for writing the diary was left up to the participants.

The project was introduced towards the end of March and lasted until May, covering approximately 6 weeks. During that time the participants were encouraged to write their diaries outside the classroom and discuss their observations and problems with diary writing entries at their pronunciation classes once a week. They were not informed of the possibility of grouping PLS into logically sequenced clusters. Their diaries were collected after their presentations and did not influence the participants' pronunciation evaluation.

Moreover, the author introduced the students to the idea of recording their presentations, and following them by an interview for the purposes of the research. Only 20 teacher trainees expressed consent. The recorded samples consisted of two parts: presentation and a semi-structured interview. The former was given in English, in which the participants described ways and strategies of learning English pronunciation in different situations. The second part was conducted in Polish. It attempted to elicit PLS used before and while giving the presentation, and clarify any doubts resulting from the first part. The recordings were later transcribed, and transcripts of the interviews and diaries were analysed for PLS chains. For the purposes of the study, Berkil's (2008) classification of PLS based on Oxford's (1990) LLS' taxonomy was used, dividing PLS into direct (memory, cognitive, and compensation PLS) and indirect (metacognitive, affective and social PLS) strategies.

4 Results

While analysing both the transcripts of the recordings and diaries from the perspective of what PLS were used, it was observed that when deploying logically sequenced strategies the participants concentrated on a specific pronunciation learning action or a task. Those tasks constitute an outline for PLS chains analysis in the present study. Further investigation revealed 21 PLS chains reported in the

diaries and 15 mentioned in the interviews. All of them referred to the following five types of pronunciation learning tasks: preparation for presentation, learning pronunciation of a new word, learning pronunciation while watching TV or films, listening to music/audiobooks/recordings, and reading texts.

There were six noted instances of PLS chains concerning pronunciation learning in the process of presentation preparation, for instance: *I checked the pronunciation of the words I was not sure of and noted down the phonemic script next to the text; I checked the transcription, then I tried to link the words using rules of connected speech, and finally I repeated my speech;* and *I wrote what I was supposed to say [using] phonetic symbols. I tried to read it as many times as I could.* Most of these steps reflect very conscious and organised approaches to pronunciation learning, and the strategies used belong mostly to cognitive (e.g. practising through repetition) and memory categories (e.g. creating mental linkages through transcription). One of the respondents presented a precise description of logical steps undertaken in the process of pronunciation learning while preparing the presentation: *In my preparation for the presentation I used the following steps. The first one was to underline the words [. . .], which I found difficult for me. [. . .] I underlined the words that [. . .] I didn't know how to pronounce [. . .]. And the second step was to listen to them again. And I wrote the transcription over the spelling of the word [. . .]. And the third step was to write these words in my notebook [. . .]. The fourth step was to repeat all the words.* Hence the process of learning pronunciation while preparing for presentation might be viewed as an application of a cognitive strategy chain of creating structure for input through highlighting followed by other strategies of practising through listening, transcribing and repeating (Oxford 1990).

A number of PLS chains referring to learning word pronunciation follow a similar pattern. First, the participants check the pronunciation of a word in paper or electronic dictionaries. Then they note down its transcription, and finally repeat to memorise its pronunciation, for example, *When I don't know how to pronounce a word, I look it up in a dictionary, and then [I] write this word and its phonetic transcription in my notebook. When I have free time, I learn that word by heart;* and *when I don't know how to pronounce a word, I check its transcription in a dictionary, and I try to learn it by heart. I usually use an electronic dictionary to listen to pronunciation as well, and then I repeat it after the recording.* However, there are instances of less frequent PLS chains used while learning word pronunciation. For example, the learner first attempts to make intelligent guesses about pronunciation, and then confers the outcome with an authorised source: *I try to write the transcription of a word, and then I check it using a dictionary.* Another case of the infrequent application of a PLS chain for the above task pertains to social interaction in the process of pronunciation learning: *I practised with a friend, for example, she pronounced a word and I transcribed it; then we swapped roles.*

While learning pronunciation by watching TV or films, the participants of the study reported 11 PLS chains. The strategies used here relate to using or avoiding the use of subtitles, noticing the movement of the native speakers' speech organs, or their intonation, stress placement, and pauses. This constituted copying as well as memorizing their pronunciation. However, analysis of these PLS chains reveals that

the steps are taken in a much individualised way. There are learners whose approach towards the application of subtitles is precise, for example, *I watch a lot of American movies and TV series, first without subtitles and then if I don't understand some words, I watch it again with subtitles and thanks to it I know how to pronounce particular words. Besides that, sometimes I even try to repeat dialogues from the movies*; and *my first step was to turn off all the subtitles in the movie because I watch a lot of films [...]. And I'm trying to follow the speaker's mouth when I watch the films, not just listening, but repeating again and again the words*. Other learners opt for noticing and repetition, *When I'm listening to music or watching a movie, I'm trying to focus on their [speakers'] way of pronouncing sounds and then [I] copy and memorise it; I observe the actors' lip movements, how they pronounce words, their accent, and sometimes I try to repeat some words in my mind (after them). Thanks to that I can remember a lot*; and *watching videos, I try to follow a speaker's mouth, repeating again and again. It helps me a lot*. One diary entry emphasises the positive attitude towards actresses, which may affect pronunciation learning, *It was very important for me to receive some experience, how to speak, from watching films [...] I loved listening [to] actresses, like Keira Knightley or Hellen Mirren—it's always very exciting. I tried to copy their speaking [...] with proper intonation, pauses, and stress placement.*

In a similar vein, PLS used while learning pronunciation through listening to music, audiobooks, etc. relate frequently to noticing and repetition, for example, *When I'm listening to music or watching a movie, I'm trying to focus on their (speakers') way of pronouncing sounds, and then copy and memorize them*. Additionally, several participants emphasise their focus on listening along with reading the script, *I listened to [music and] I additionally read the lyrics at the same time, While listening to songs I read the lyrics at the same time to check pronunciation*. There are also some more individualised instances of PLS chains, *I try not to look at the lyrics of a song I am listening to in order to hear the words by myself. Then I note the words down and check the lyrics*, and *I try to memorise part of the recordings, and then say them from memory, imitating the native speaker.*

In this study only two instances of PLS chains are identified while learning pronunciation through reading, *When I do my homework, I try to read [a] text loud and I pay attention to some difficult words, and first I read them slowly but next I try to read faster and faster*, and *When I read a text in English, I try to pay attention to proper pronunciation. So, I first read slowly and then faster and faster*. Both of these PLS chains contain strategies of reading aloud applied together with noticing correct pronunciation and practising at different rates of speed.

5   Discussion

As mentioned previously, the participants were not instructed to focus on any particular activity when reporting their ways of learning pronunciation. However, they intuitively described their pronunciation learning strategies embedded in task-

Table 1 Selected pronunciation learning strategy chains

Task type	Examples	PLS chains	PLS' description
Preparing a presentation	*I checked the pronunciation of the words I was not sure;*	Cognitive	Checking pronunciation
	I noted down the phonemic script of them next to the text;	Memory	Noting down pronunciation
	I talked to my friend [and] asked her how to pronounce a particular item.	Social	Checking pronunciation with a partner
Learning pronunciation of a new word	*When I don't know how to pronounce a word, I look it up in a dictionary;*	Cognitive	Checking pronunciation
	then [I] write this word and its phonetic transcription in my notebook.	Memory	Memorizing pronunciation by creating mental linkages through transcription
	When I have free time, I learn that word by heart	Memory	Memorizing pronunciation by repetition
Learning pronunciation through watching TV, a film, etc.	*When I'm watching a movie, I'm trying to focus on their [speakers'] way of pronouncing sounds*	Cognitive	Focus on listening
	and I try to pronounce them in the same way the speaker pronounced them	Cognitive	Practising by imitation
Learning pronunciation through listening	*While listening to songs,*	Cognitive	Focus on listening
	I read the lyrics at the same time to check pronunciation.	Cognitive	Associating pronunciation with spelling
Learning pronunciation through reading	*I try to read [a] text loud,*	Cognitive	Practicing through reading aloud
	I pay attention to some difficult words,	Cognitive	Focus on words difficult to pronounce
	and first I read them slowly but next I try to read faster and faster.	Cognitive	Practicing through repetition at different rates of speed

related contexts. The analysis of the scripts and diary entries reveal five different activities the learners refer to when deploying PLS chains: presentation preparation, word pronunciation learning, pronunciation learning while watching authentic video recordings, listening to audio recordings, as well as pronunciation learning while reading. Therefore, the study results confirm that logically sequenced PLS are deployed for a specific task, as can be seen in Table 1.

Although the study revealed a number of individually and autonomously used sequences of PLS, there were certain regularities in the application of PLS for a particular task. In the case of learning pronunciation before giving a presentation, two patterns of PLS chains were observed. The first one comprises cognitive strategy (checking pronunciation in dictionaries) used before memory strategies (noting down pronunciation and memorizing it through repetition), which are sometimes followed by social strategies (checking pronunciation with a partner), for example, *I check the pronunciation of words in a multimedia dictionary. I write the pronunciation on small pieces of paper. I talk to my friend [and] ask her how to pronounce a particular item. I told her [the speech] and she checked if everything was fine*. The second sequence of PLS also starts with cognitive strategies (checking pronunciation), which are then supplemented with metacognitive strategies (applying phonological rules) and subsequently with cognitive strategies feeding memorisation (practising), for example, *I checked transcription, then I tried to link the words using rules of connected speech and, finally, I repeated my speech*.

Similarly, repetitive PLS chains occur in learning word pronunciation. Here a cognitive strategy of checking pronunciation in reliable sources frequently precedes memory PLS, for example, *when I don't know how to pronounce a word, I check its transcription in a dictionary, and I try to learn it by heart*. Additionally, the respondents frequently try to memorise pronunciation of a vocabulary item by creating mental linkages with the use of transcription. Therefore, the PLS chain for this task often begins with a cognitive strategy followed by memory strategies.

The PLS chains repeated by independent respondents while learning pronunciation through watching TV or a film, as well as listening to music, entails mostly cognitive strategies. However, these cognitive PLS chains differ when applied to different tasks. Working on pronunciation while watching, the respondents first focus on the target pronunciation area (*When I watch a movie, I try to focus on [the speakers'] way of pronouncing sounds*) before applying other cognitive strategies, such as practising by imitation (*I try to pronounce them in the same way the speaker pronounced them*). Whereas in case of learning pronunciation while listening to music, two cognitive PLS are often deployed simultaneously: focusing on listening and associating pronunciation with spelling (*While listening to songs, I read the lyrics at the same time to check pronunciation*).

While learning pronunciation through reading the participants mention cognitive PLS chains, such as practising reading aloud and focusing on words difficult to pronounce followed by practising through repetition at different rates of speed, for example *I try to read [a] text loud, I pay attention to some difficult words, and first I read them slowly but next I try to read faster and faster*. The last strategy in this chain reflects an interesting approach to pronunciation practice exploiting different tempo of speech which might be easily applied as a teaching technique.

Strategies prevailing in the above-mentioned PLS chains belong to the set of cognitive strategies fuelled by memory PLS, which are second most frequently used in this study. Although the direct strategies are reported in most PLS chains deployed for pronunciation learning tasks, there are instances of indirect PLS, such as affective, in case of pronunciation imitation of favourite actresses, and social PLS, when cooperating with others.

6 Conclusions

The qualitative approach adopted in this study reveals individual approaches to PLS deployment and raises learners' awareness of the pronunciation learning processes. Never before, to the author's best knowledge, have so many instances of PLS chains in pronunciation learning for specific tasks been reported. Moreover, this PLS project, which involved diary writing and interviews, triggered the respondents' reflectivity on the process of pronunciation learning. This fact is very important for prospective teachers (cf. Gabryś-Barker 2012) because the verbalisation of practices exploited in pronunciation learning helps the participants become more aware of their pronunciation strengths and weaknesses, which may later be adopted in the process of pronunciation teaching.

On the basis of this study's data there are several important didactic implications. Firstly, the patterns of PLS chains deployed by the participants could aid in the construction of a PLS training outline, which may refer to overt pronunciation strategy training and PLS chains' application for such pronunciation learning tasks as watching and listening to authentic recordings, preparing for presentations or reading aloud. Secondly, the tasks reported in the study may be applied as points of reference in in-class pronunciation practice. For example, L2 learning through films or music may be supplemented with logically sequenced PLS chains used for pronunciation learning. Therefore, initially students may be encouraged to focus on a particular area of interest in the movie, notice the lip movement of actors or other pronunciation features, for example intonation patterns, later they may be requested to imitate or repeat after the model character.

Moreover, transcription, often neglected in the process of teaching at lower levels of education (Szpyra-Kozłowska and Stasiak 2006), has been reported in this study as a useful strategy for pronunciation learning. What is interesting, the application of it in PLS chains has been demonstrated several times, especially in case of word pronunciation learning. Therefore, teachers should be encouraged to incorporate phonemic symbols in their vocabulary teaching. Providing transcription together with a vocabulary item may aid the process of memorizing and practising its pronunciation.

Finally, the qualitative data presented here shows that individuals apply an array of PLS, selecting them carefully and consciously for a particular task. Learners order PLS in logical chains, which are used consecutively in the process of pronunciation learning. For example, while preparing for oral presentation, learners have a tendency to first notice (spot and highlight) and analyse (often by using transcription) the problem areas, and then practise through repetition. Nevertheless, as this empirical research is preliminary, there is a need for further qualitative investigation in order to confirm and establish more regularities in the deployment of PLS chains. Looking at PLS chains from the perspective of effectiveness and comparing their application with learners' pronunciation outcomes is one direction such research should certainly follow.

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Fostering Strategy Use in a Reading-Based Course in EFL Academic Context: Students' Perspectives

Halina Chodkiewicz

1 Introduction

As a rule, academic subject-matter courses demand that students work on a selection of texts with the goal of learning new information and content concepts so that they expand their target domain knowledge. Recent theoretical and empirical advances that have centered on the conceptualization of content area reading skills in both L1 and L2 educational settings have led to the emergence of two major perspectives on reading development, treated as competence development vs. knowledge construction. Whereas in the former view the main focus falls on reading and the outcome of reading comprehension with knowledge elaborated, enhanced and displayed through a variety of strategy-based tasks, the latter view looks at knowledge construction as closely interrelated with language use, which is typically interpreted with reference to the theoretical underpinnings offered by systemic functional linguistics (Grabe 2004; Martin 2013). A similar kind of relationship is shown in the differentiation between reading defined as based on (1) data-driven processes, their representations in texts and their language codes, and on (2) conceptually driven mechanisms which readers activate when they try to comprehend texts with certain goals in mind, creating mental models of a text in search of its meaning at the deep level (Graesser 2007). In second/foreign language settings, language objectives are generally of more concern than in L1 contexts since L2 students have distinctive language development needs.

The debate on the process of knowledge construction which results from reading a variety of texts and learning from them has recently brought about an increased emphasis on genre-literacy practices adopted with the purpose of expanding disciplinary knowledge. In order to put text-based work done within content area into a more adequate perspective, language is interpreted as functioning at the levels of

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H. Chodkiewicz (✉)
Maria Curie-Skłodowska University, Lublin, Poland
e-mail: hachod@hektor.umcs.lublin.pl

phonology/graphology, lexicogrammar, and discourse semantics, as well as at the three additional levels which define its contextual use and meaning, namely the ideational (field), interpersonal (tenor), and textual (mode) levels (Martin 2013). Fang and Schleppegrell (2010) emphasize the significance of linguistic analysis in text processing, which generally, as they note, helps readers obtain and develop their knowledge. The researchers claim that the more readers draw on the linguistic resources utilized by the text, the more critical of the text content they can become. They also express the conviction that it is the functional language analysis approach that can provide a relevant view of language as a basic component in knowledge construction.

Both the data- and concept-driven approaches to reading clearly suggest that academic reading instruction in L2 contexts requires that reading tasks be adequately designed with selected disciplinary content and language goals in mind. In practice this means that, as a rule, reading passages are accompanied by a range of tasks such as discussions, generating and answering questions, summary and essay writing, etc. Quite often will students face the need to deal with multiple texts, which require that they arrive at the mental representation of content across all the texts to be simultaneously integrated with their background knowledge (e.g. Fox and Alexander 2009; Grabe 2009). Of special value for academic reading instruction is taking advantage of an interface between reading and writing, which is well grounded in theory. Fitzgerald and Shanahan (2002) argue that such a close interrelationship between reading and writing is a consequence of (1) the shared knowledge and cognitive processes activating linguistic levels and knowledge representations, (2) a rhetorical function as both readers and writers gain insights about their roles as senders/receivers in communication, and (3) the procedural integration of reading and writing in accomplishing external goals.

As recommended by Macnaught et al. (2013, 55), disciplinary knowledge can be built through reading and writing by implementing a three-phase discipline-focused training, called The Teaching and Learning Cycle. First, learners start with reading and analysing the structure of a model text, that is with deconstructing it. They examine the role of lexico-grammatical elements in the text's composition and aim to acquire the metalanguage needed. Then comes collaborative writing—the joint construction of a text with much negotiation among the teacher and learners using the shared knowledge. Only then is the learner capable of constructing a particular subject-specific text independently. Martin (2013) claims that domain knowledge built in such a way in the educational system is explicit in its nature, that is it uses special symbolic structures which are hierarchically organized, generalized and sufficiently decontextualised so that the knowledge developed can be further implemented in different contexts.

Furthermore, nowadays it is widely known that the reader draws heavily on an array of strategies that help him/her take deliberate actions to promote comprehension, work towards the established goals, monitor the efficiency of text processing and its outcomes, stimulate inferencing, and finally make meaning out of reading (e.g. Janzen 2001; Koda 2005; Chodkiewicz 2014). As in the case of all the kinds of language-based activities implemented in classroom settings, it is found adequate to analyse reading performance in terms of the use of generally recognized language

learning strategy types, that is metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies (Oxford 1990). All of them play a fundamental role in typical educational conditions, which ensure the enhancement of learning and knowledge co-construction thanks to the coordinated efforts of learners and teachers. However, it is important not only that learners-readers embark on efficient strategy combinations which direct them in better processing and manipulating information gained from texts, but also that their metacognition develop so that they are able to plan, monitor and evaluate the accomplishment of reading and learning goals as well as strategy use much more efficiently.

It is noteworthy that, apart from using the widely recognized taxonomy of language learning strategies developed by Oxford (1990), reading experts have identified an array of strategies specifically supporting reading and learning, which has contributed to a further exploration of such concepts as *reading to learn, reading to study, learning by/from reading*, *content-based reading* and *knowledge-based reading* commonly employed with reference to reading in academic contexts (for fuller discussion see Chodkiewicz 2014). The need to adopt proper strategies to enhance knowledge construction as a goal of reading has been emphasized by numerous reading specialists. King (1994), for example, mentions three basic strategies that can serve the purpose. They are: (1) summarizing, in which the reformulation of the material read contributes to the improvement of text comprehension, (2) elaboration—responsible for integrating new and prior knowledge, and (3) questioning, especially useful for stimulating inferences.

Ediger (2006) distinguishes an original category of metacognitive strategies that refer particularly to reading, which include purpose-oriented, comprehension-monitoring, and reading to learn strategies. As for reading to learn strategies, they are further subdivided into: reflecting on what has been learned from the text; marking the text, making notes and paraphrasing the text to enhance its retention, as well as thinking how to use the text in the future (Ediger 2006, 306). The above-mentioned interdependence of reading and learning is also reflected in McNamara et al.'s (2007, 467) taxonomy of reading strategies. The central component, called Monitoring Comprehension and Reading Strategies, comprises strategies that support learners in preparing to read, working on the text and interpretation of its ideas, then in activating one's prior knowledge as well as in organizing, restructuring and synthesizing the text. Text-focused strategies such as marking and annotating, bridging inferences or close reading can be particularly productive in creating a coherent textbase for an academic text. Reading and learning also means activating prior knowledge, that is going beyond the text, and subsequently using selected information from the text by organizing, restructuring and synthesizing it.

Singling out particular reading strategies, however, does not mean that it is recommendable that each of them should be catered for independently in reading instruction. On the contrary, a considerable number of strategy training studies have confirmed that it is the coordination of multiple strategies in reading that is effective (e.g. Akkakoson 2013; Grabe 2009; Pearson and Duke 2002; Trabasso and Bouchard 2002). So far research-based reading instruction has addressed a range of different strategy combination instructional types, such as Know, Want to Know,

Learned, Experience-Text-Relate, Question-Answer-Response, Directed Reading and Thinking Activities, Reciprocal Teaching, Collaborative Strategic Reading, and some others. The combinations of strategies most often range from 3 to 8, and the strategies frequently worked with are: predicting, clarifying, summarizing, generating questions, using prior knowledge, monitoring and evaluating (Akkakoson 2013; Grabe 2009).

The study reported in this paper has focused on three strategy types, namely notetaking, question generation and summarizing that had been incorporated into a reading-based academic course in EFL Didactics taken by a group of Polish graduate students of an English Department in the academic year 2010/2011. The three strategies were part of course reading assignments. Their systematic use by the students helped make their reading and learning processes more efficient, and additionally contributed to developing their writing skills. Notetaking was chosen since it influences the cognitive processing of the contents and requires that the result of comprehension be demonstrated by encoding and external storage of relevant information. The metacognitive control it provides plays a pivotal role in regulating the processes of comprehending, evaluating and sorting information before it gets written down (Koda 2005). Similarly, generating questions enhances active text processing, which improves comprehension, as well as helping the learner to combine information, concentrate on the main ideas and recall. What is also important is that learners get involved in metacognitive activity by monitoring comprehension, identifying and resolving problems, as well as having control over hypothesizing and drawing conclusions (Rosenshine et al. 1996). Summarising is generally seen as producing a shorter version of the original text, in which the condensation of thoughts occurs through the elimination of selected pieces of the information (e.g. Hidi and Anderson 1986; Hudson 2007). According to Kintsch (1998), it is macrorules that are responsible for the selection of the main propositions, generalization and the construction of a new edited form of a summarized text.

2   The Study

Despite many changes in recent educational settings at the university level, which, among others have made it possible to introduce numerous new technology-based teaching tools, it is disciplinary expository texts either in their traditional or in an electronic form that continue to be a major learning and teaching resource in subject-specific academic courses. What is more, classrooms where the teacher and the students are to cooperate in the learning/teaching process working on a selection of domain knowledge-based texts still tend to be teacher-oriented even though learner-centredness has emerged as a leading tendency in contemporary education. In order to modify the teacher-learner balance in dealing with reading assignments in such a way that students do an increased amount of independent work, a group of Polish students at the Department of English involved

in a subject-specific course (EFL Didactics) were required to use a combination of three strategies: notetaking, question generation and summarizing. The present study demanded that the basic course design be implemented in a systematic way throughout the whole term before its evaluation by the students—participants of the course was performed.

2.1 Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the study was to analyse the evaluation data obtained from its participants, that is, the students' feedback to the strategy-oriented academic course based on a sequence of reading assignments. The one-term course under consideration was designed in such a way as to introduce a cluster of strategies which would increase the efficiency of reading-learning tasks performed by the students, at the same time requiring more effort from them. The tasks to be accomplished by the students were accompanied by a relatively large amount of written work in the form of reading notes, sets of self-generated comprehension questions and text summaries.

2.2 Participants

A group of 120 first year graduate Polish students of English, that is advanced EFL learners, working in five groups in an EFL Didactics course participated in their regular classes, yet based on a specific strategy-oriented course design. As a formal requirement all the students took an end-of-the term exam. As many as 68 students filled in the evaluation questionnaire.

2.3 Materials

A range of different materials were used in order to work towards the main course objectives. The reading assignments were based on selected academic book chapters, that is on authentic expository texts on topics in learner autonomy, learning strategies, motivation, syllabus design and teacher development. In order to help the students build their subject knowledge more effectively and to enrich the presentation and discussion of particular topics in class, a selection of supplementary materials were provided by the teacher, including questionnaires, school coursebook extracts, examples of classroom activities, etc. The students were to prepare personal reading notes, a list of difficult vocabulary which they were to check in a dictionary individually, and a set of text-based comprehension questions—in groups. A summary of each text was written by a group of volunteer

students who passed it on to all the participants of the course. A set of revision questions that covered the material from the whole semester was provided by the teacher and discussed by the whole class. The teacher was also responsible for constructing the final test which was developed on the basis of the summaries written by the students so as to cover the information they focused upon. A course evaluation questionnaire consisted of four open-ended questions; its aim was to elicit the students' unrestrained responses by encouraging them to express their views and personal opinions about the efficiency of their participation in the course, as well as their attitudes to the kind of coursework they had completed.

2.4   Procedure: Course Organization and Its Evaluation

As already stated, the major aim of this study was to carry out an evaluation of the strategy-oriented course in the EFL Didactics, that is to obtain the students' responses to a course that departed from traditional procedures followed by the majority of subject-specific academic courses in the Polish context. The course was not innovative in the sense of introducing classroom tasks unfamiliar to advanced EFL learners—the participants of the study, yet it aimed to be more learner-focused as compared with typical classrooms where teachers not learners initiate most of the interaction and provide questions to be worked upon. Introducing the combination of notetaking, questioning and summarizing required that the students adopt the strategies well-known to them, yet not out of their choice but in a well-defined systematic way, to accomplish the course objectives. What is more, all the instances of strategy use were turned into tangible outcomes, that is into writing pieces available for further work in the classroom.

Each session would start from the teacher introducing the topic. The students' preparation for the class and the discussion of the assigned reading texts was quite time-consuming as they were to read the text closely (to study it) at home and take down their personal notes, which were to be referred to extensively during the classroom discussion. The students were also to note down any difficult vocabulary items which hindered their comprehension of the text and to look them up in a dictionary, as well as to construct a set of comprehension questions on a given text, working in groups of three up to five students.

During each classroom session the students worked in pairs, in groups or as a whole class discussing the contents of the texts with the help of the questions they had prepared at home. Responding to one another's questions they referred to what they had recalled from the texts, but they could additionally consult their notes or the original texts if necessary. The teacher's role was to monitor the classroom activity going on, be a participant in classroom discussions stimulated by the students' questions and assess their formal and content correctness (all the questions were handed in to the teacher paper-printed before the class), as well as to provide comments, explanations or summing-up conclusions. Some volunteer students wrote the summaries of the particular chapters after they had been

discussed in class so that they could be used by other students to review the material for the final exam, a knowledge quiz, as well as consulted by the teacher. The teacher reviewed each student's summary providing comments and advice as to its possible improvement. The final revision of the target course material carried out in the classroom before the final exam was based on the teacher's own set of questions. After the students had been graded on their examination achievement, those available at the university in person were asked to respond anonymously to the evaluation questionnaire whose results will be presented in detail in the sections to follow.

2.5 Data Collection: An Evaluation Questionnaire

The evaluation questionnaire was filled in by 68 participants of the course. The data were basically qualitative in their nature as the students were asked open-ended questions and it was their personal views and comments that were sought. Some frequency counts additionally became possible as in several cases a number of students provided identical or similar responses. The questions posed for the students to answer aimed to collect information concerning:

- the kind of materials/procedures/strategies they considered to be the most/least helpful;
- their use of specific reading strategies;
- the kind of advice they would give to other students to make the most of the course;
- the kinds of improvements/changes they would introduce to the course to further modify it.

3 Results and Discussion

In response to the first question 28 participants of the study (41 %) emphasized the helpfulness of making personal reading notes while reading academic texts, which they were instructed to prepare for their classroom discussion and for later use for revision purposes. Some students noted that they were like condense versions of texts or kinds of summaries. One of them described the process of notetaking in the following way: "I did it in my own words, I knew what was in them and where", stressing the fact that the structure and contents of notes is very well-known to the person who has created them, that is, is fairly personalized.

The student-prepared summaries were found to be valuable for determining the most important information to learn by 22 respondents (32 %). Questions, on the other hand, were described as helpful in focusing on the text thoroughly and highlighting the most important aspects (nine responses), and as it was perceived by one student they served "splitting the material into pieces". An interesting

observation was that preparing questions meant simultaneously "discovering answers". Some students underlined the helpfulness of the generally conceptualized language learning strategies (nine responses). It can be speculated that the reason for the students' interest in language learning strategies was connected, to a large extent, with a number of exemplary strategy-based didactic materials they were familiarized with during the EFL Didactics course. It was also a firsthand opportunity for the students to be reflective of their experience concerning their own language learning strategies they had developed as EFL students. Four students added that they appreciated the paraphrasing of text extracts done by the teacher or the students during the class sessions as they were helpful in comprehending the texts' contents.

It is interesting to note the reasons why the participants of the study described some classroom tasks as the least helpful to them. On the whole, it was not the types of tasks that the students found difficult, but the poor quality or inappropriate completion of some tasks by their peers. Several students were critical of badly organized summaries of other students and of some questions generated by them. As for questions, they remarked that some questions were too detailed, did not lead to a proper explanation or required responses based on definitions in the exact form as those appearing in the original texts (four comments). Apart from the voices of satisfaction concerning the generally beneficial use of notetaking in academic reading, four students showed disappointment with adopting this strategy for their own purposes calling it "painful", "unnecessary", "not sophisticated enough", or even resulting in the production of "illegible" written notes. This clearly points to the students' individual preferences as far as the choice of language learning strategies is concerned, as well as to their unwillingness to make their reading and learning too an effortful process.

When asked in the second question to enumerate and discuss the strategies they considered to be the most efficient and special for them, the highest number of the students (34 %) pointed at highlighting relevant information in the text as the most commonly used and valuable strategy. Nine people declared they used coloured pencils for the purpose. Five people showed a preference for putting down notes in the margin while reading a text. The students supportive of the use of notetaking emphasized the importance of simplifying and personalizing the language used in notes; one of them regarded notetaking to be a profitable way to "acquire knowledge with understanding". Only two students mentioned summarizing as the strategy to be used specifically for their academic reading tasks. One student claimed that while reading particular paragraphs of the text he/she combined the strategies of notetaking, highlighting, summarizing and translating.

The students also enumerated several other strategies they employed to study a text in a more effective way. They declared that they reread the text (10 responses), read for the gist first, then for detail, and focus on chunks of information and keywords. Some students mentioned the importance of dealing with difficult words by translating, writing their definitions, using a dictionary or drawing mental maps of words. One of the students associated reading a text with clearly understanding

the contents of the text, which he/she referred to as understanding the topic: "I try to understand the topic instead of learning by heart".

Preparing for a final knowledge quiz was also perceived by the students as a task whose effectiveness highly depended on the implementation of an array of strategies such as: memorizing, structured reviewing, making own comments, but also selecting and revising the data. One of the students pointed out the use of social strategies saying that a better memorization of the material can be enhanced by being active in class or simply talking about unclear issues to a friend.

The idea behind the third question was to stimulate the students to reflect on their experience of the procedures followed in the EFL Didactics course so as to formulate advice and simultaneously suggest the ways which, in their opinion, would help one participate in it successfully. Some students' opinions sounded very general as they mentioned the following: studying and reading texts systematically (20 responses), preparing regularly for classes (6 responses), checking words in a dictionary (4 responses), being active and participating in class activities, as well as cooperating with other students (4 responses). Yet, as many as 16 responses (24 %) underscored an effective implementation of the strategy of notetaking. In the students' opinion its efficiency could be ensured by: reading texts with concentration and understanding to take down notes, constructing "well-developed" notes, avoiding rewriting, keeping the notes as concise as possible, selecting what is important, and remembering only the essential information. As regards generating questions, two students also emphasized the need of concentrating on the most essential information to be covered, as well as making sure that one knows the answers to the questions asked. The students also took note of the necessity to cope with the difficulty of academic language of reading assignments, particularly due to the presence of many unknown words. They suggested that difficult academic texts should be paraphrased by the students in order to work out "their notes in their own language".

In responding to the last question a number of the course participants took an opportunity to show their approval of the general design of the course stating: "I can't think of more improvements because we did many great things", "The assigned reading was comprehensible and helpful in acquiring knowledge", "Classroom procedures were well-organized, students were to take the floor most of the time, which is helpful in remembering info. Teacher helped when students had problems", "The procedure was interesting—students take part not the teacher, some explanation could be added". Two students stressed the importance of homework preparation for the classes in terms of notes and questions, as well as the role of notes as the material to learn, revise from and reflect on.

As expected, some critical voices appeared as well. They generally concerned the task of notetaking while preparing reading assignments, which was not a preferred strategy for some students. For one student, notetaking meant too much rewriting, another person remarked it prevented students from the possibility of using their own strategies. Generally, a few students did not like the fact that preparing reading notes was obligatory, and the task was too time-consuming.

The main suggestions for course improvement provided by the participants of the study can be summarized as follows: (1) introducing more powerpoint presentations prepared by the students and mindmaps to visualize the material; (2) placing more focus on paraphrasing the materials; (3) reducing the amount of reading (too long texts); (4) attaching questions for home reading of texts so as to provide students with more help from the teacher; (5) having all students write summaries individually. It is not difficult to notice that while the first two suggestions could make some realistic and important improvements to the course, the reduction of the amount of the material read would mean reading extracts rather than complete authentic expository texts representative of the domain of knowledge studied. As for attaching teacher questions to be used with reading assignments, this would mean a return to a traditionally used procedure of the teacher being responsible for providing text comprehension questions, while the purpose of the study was to discard it.

4   Conclusions and Suggestions for Further Study

While participating in the EFL Didactics course which implemented a cluster of strategies, including notetaking, generating questions and summarizing, the students were given an opportunity to develop metacognitive skills by working on their reading tasks in a more independent way as compared to other content-specific classes of a similar type. The students did some individual planning for performing those tasks, monitored their work, and finally evaluated it. Their responses obtained from the questionnaire showed that they were generally aware of the fact that their responsibility for learning within the course was heightened, and that most of them took an attempt to exploit all the strategies to their greatest benefit. Even though the students perceived accomplishing the reading tasks linked with a considerable amount of written performance to be hard work, they were convinced that it was the right procedure to enhance their reading comprehension and domain knowledge learning. They also recognized as important to cope with such language problems as paraphrasing difficult text extracts or dealing with difficult academic vocabulary. Interestingly, none of the students showed the awareness of the fact that generating text-based questions was also a difficult task for some students who rendered them incorrectly in terms of form and content, even though quite a number of inadequacies of both types were pointed out, explained and corrected by the teacher. In contrast, many students became convinced, to their advantage, that they could provide good answers to the questions generated by their colleagues if they could get support from well prepared notes of their own.

It was also positive to see that many students underscored a paramount role of learners' contribution to the structure of the classes. Due to the mere fact that the students were to participate in a range of pair/group tasks, apart from their individual work, they had to perceive their tasks as belonging to sequences of classroom activities, based on a great deal of peer cooperation. Few were the cases when,

despite the course clearly promoting learner strategicness, a student opted for bringing back more teacher questioning to reading-based tasks.

The analysis of the issues dealt with by the design of the course and its evaluation as described in this paper points to some problems that are worth investigating more deeply in the future. First of all, not all the students seemed to be fully aware of the fact that their use of the strategies apparently well-known to them still needs improvement in many respects, and actually more teacher comments and reflection on their use would be necessary. Even in the case of such a simple strategy as asking questions, further investigation aiming to work out a better formal training for the students would be beneficial. One of the aspects that needs special attention is increasing the quality of students' questions by establishing a range of criteria they would follow when asking different types of questions, e.g. concerning the main ideas, central concepts or some information to be inferred. Also linguistic exponents used to form different types of questions would need further pedagogically-oriented analysis. Some investigation of how students go about asking and answering questions would also be highly informative for the teacher responsible for arranging classroom discussions. In general, students should develop more deliberate control over goals and strategies they can adopt most successfully in reading and learning from disciplinary texts.

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Reflective Teaching in an English Primary Classroom

Maria Stec

1 Introduction

Modern English teaching is influenced by political, social and cultural factors in the local and international context (Lee-McKay 2002:129). It is assumed that student-teachers will develop their own teaching style with a reference to the particular learners, teaching goals and materials (Richards 1996:XI–XIII). It is expected that they will select, use and evaluate teaching/learning materials effectively (McGrath 2013:81–83) to meet learners' needs. On the one hand, they can be very creative as it is stated *it is the inexperienced teacher who is more likely to innovate - for the very reason that he/she has not established a routine yet* (Appel 1995:XV). It may be also related to a lack of confidence in English teaching. On the other hand, they want to survive in a classroom, overcome difficulties encountered during the first lessons and improve classroom management skills in the context of schools they work in (Richards and Lockhart 1996:97).

In processing knowledge, teacher training courses concentrate, first of all, on a transmission model (informing and modelling students) while teacher development concentrates on a reflection model (teachers' personal experience in finding solutions) (Richards and Lockhart 1996:97–112; Wallace 1998:12–13, Komorowska 2002:15–27). The main advantage of the reflective model is a critical comment on action with the view of possible improvement (Richards and Lockharts 1996:27; Komorowska 2011:18). Much of the research focuses on teachers as learners with the reflective skills (Roberts 1998:103–105; Perry 1997:188–191; Nikolic 2002:57–59). The general tendency is to instruct student-teachers to be reflective in terms of planning, implementation and evaluation of their lessons, materials and procedures (Richards 1996:120–121; Gabryś-Barker 2012:71–109). A reflection on

M. Stec (✉)
University of Silesia, Cieszyn, Poland
e-mail: mstec@interia.pl

teaching that leads, among others, to the changing perception of language education and improvement of classroom management skills, is a life-long process of teacher development. Thus, a reflective teacher is perceived as an effective teacher (Nikolic 2002:57).

Teacher training and teacher development have been recognised as a continuum because student-teachers pass through a number of stages in their professional career (Woodward 1991:139–161; Potocka 2003:179–192; Stec 2009:51–60) and are perceived as learners themselves (Dzierzgowska 2002:34–46; Foord 2009:49–51; Hay 2010:29–34). The subject literature highlights the importance of both practice and experience in the process of becoming the effective teacher (Pearson 1994:144–147; Perry 1997:170–192). Then, the appropriate knowledge and skills are required for the cognitive development of student-teachers including "learning to teach" skills (Potocka 2003:189–190; Woodward 2009:18–19).

Freeman and Johnson recognise teachers as individuals who begin teacher training with their personal experiences, values and beliefs that influence their teaching procedures and relations in a classroom as well as the results of children's holistic education (1998:397–411). Teachers' perceptions of themselves, learners, knowledge and effective teaching may differ in a considerable degree and lead to different teaching styles (Kennedy 1987:163–170; Edwards 1996:99–107; Child 1997:321–330). Still, their personal experiences, values and beliefs are perceived as a frame of reference to their theory of language, language teaching, their role and learners' roles, practice and relations in a classroom or even the process of course design (Graves 2000:25–36).

It is assumed that the project will change perspectives on the process of teaching English to young learners. The idea is to follow *reflection-for-action* that links both teaching experience (*reflection-in-action*) and knowledge used for the interpretation of the actions in a classroom (*reflection-on-action*) to reframe the attitude and instruction, preparing them for better future teaching procedures (Farrell 2007:6 after Gabryś-Barker 2012:78–79). The results of this project are hoped to bring implications for teacher development in primary schools.

2 Research Purpose

The purpose is to describe teachers' reflections on their initial teaching experience. The idea is to explore female's and male's actions, thoughts and emotions as they present various attitudes and approaches to teaching English in primary schools. Another idea is to develop a reflective practitioner model for English teachers in primary schools.

2.1 Research Questions

The following research questions are designed for this investigation:

(a) What are the positive aspects observed by female teachers?
(b) What are the positive aspects observed by male teachers?
(c) What are the negative aspects observed by female teachers?
(d) What are the negative aspects observed by male teachers?

2.2 Research Scheme and Description of the Instrument

The project involves two stages of the research. The first stage was the introduction to the project. It was based on the SWOT evaluation model where respondents were asked to comment in general on positive and negative aspects in their teaching practice. The second stage was more detailed and divided into three levels including recalling and reflecting on their first lessons as well as drawing conclusions for future teaching procedures.

For the purpose of the research, a field-note/log was developed as the structured form of reflections on initial teaching experiences (cf. Wallace 1998:54–64). The instrument was entitled: *My first experiences: post-lesson reflections*, and the following instruction was added: please describe and comment on your first experience in teaching. The instrument was divided into two parts. The first part was the table with four sections—the following elements of the SWOT model: strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of their teaching process. The second part included three groups of questions related to the level of recalling, reflecting and drawing conclusions for their teaching career. Each level included three open questions, which required a reflection on the past and some optional future actions in a primary classroom. The recalling level included questions on issues which happened differently as they had planned, on young learners' comments and the most difficult decisions for them during the first lessons. The reflecting level included questions related to the best as well as the most uncomfortable elements of their lessons plus achievements. The conclusions plus plans for future teaching constituted the last level of this field-note and included questions on the possible changes in their lessons and their opinions about the process of learning. Finally, the respondents were asked to write a brief description of themselves as teachers viewed from learners' perspective.

2.3 Research Procedures

The investigation was performed in the spring 2013 among students of English departments. The form of field-notes was distributed in two high schools and one university in the region of Silesia and collected 1 month later. The respondents were the third year students with their first year of teaching experience. They were usually supported by a member of school-staff and a university-based tutor during school practice. In total, there were 68 women (79 %) and 18 men (21 %), who have

already been teaching English in primary schools. The respondents followed a BA model of teacher education.

The females' (F) and males' (M) answers were coded, analysed and grouped into the patterns in all stages, levels and sections. The results were compared in the context of reflections on teaching English to children. In particular, the SWOT part revealed similarities and differences between the two groups. Then, the pattern of positive and negative aspects was established in three categories for each group. In the same way, the results from recalling, reflecting and drawing conclusions levels were compared and grouped into three subcategories.

3   Presentation and Interpretation of the Results

The results are presented here from two stages of the research in three categories for each group of respondents.

3.1   The SWOT Part: Positive and Negative Reflections

The SWOT stage includes positive and negative comments provided by each group of respondents. In particular, the first category of the results indicate the major positive aspects observed by the respondents during their early teaching career. As far as the females are concerned, the positive descriptions refer to the process of learning to plan lessons. They point also at a wide range of materials, which can stimulate good atmosphere in a primary classroom and motivate young learners to pay attention during English lessons. The descriptions include comments on the selection and implementation of different materials, which is illustrated in the following example:

> F1: I experienced how much time I have to devote before the lesson to plan it and make it interesting, successful and teachable. I use different materials to catch their attention.

The second category of their positive reflections relates to their good interactions and communication with young learners during English lessons. Namely, the respondents like children for following instructions, cooperation and honesty in providing comments and feedback. It is illustrated in the following reflection:

> F1: They were very creative, talkative and take active part in the lesson, speaking English. I made them eager to learn. I gained their sympathy and enjoyed teaching them. They were open and honest talking about the tasks we covered.

The third category of positive reflections recorded by the female students is related to the chances for self-development, which are perceived as the perfect opportunities for testing different methods, procedures and materials used in an English primary classroom. They perceive teaching as a challenge to put theory into

practice, teaching a foreign language but also other aspects such as culture. The example is as follows:

> *F1: I taught in the 1ˢᵗ and 2ⁿᵈ grades in primary school. I could have seen on my own how students acquire English at different levels, follow tasks and work with each other. Each task should be prepared and tried. You get experience. I do not want to waste time for preparing unsuccessful activities.*

Their negative aspects (weaknesses and threats) observed during their teaching practice include three categories of difficulties. The first one involves the problems with discipline, control of children's behaviour and getting children's attention during English lessons. It is illustrated in the following statement:

> *F1: It is the waste of time if I will not be able to keep the discipline. Young learners can be very lazy and disruptive after the break. I feel uncomfortable when children are rude and not interested in my lessons. It is chaos.*

The second category of their negative reflections includes problems with being flexible. Namely, these are difficulties with the implementation of changes during English lessons and timing of the lesson stages or activities. They also feel nervous about the amount of materials to be covered—course books and lesson plans. They definitely feel less self-confident about time management. For example, the reflection is as follows:

> *F1: There is too much material to cover for children, there are high expectations. It is difficult to follow the plan when I have to miss some elements of the lesson. I have problems with time for everyone. I do not have time for talking with them.*

The third category of negative aspects is associated with being nervous about teaching mixed-ability groups and finally getting a job after the graduation. It is depicted in the following statement:

> *F1: I am nervous about students who may ask me some questions I do not know the answers to, for example a mixed-ability group with different levels, good and "weak" learners. Still, after the graduation we do not know whether we will get this job of teaching or not. I worry about it.*

The results from the male student-teachers in the first part of the SWOT refer to positive aspects linked with their first lessons. The majority of them perceive their teaching experience as the opportunity to test themselves and their knowledge in practice, which is illustrated in the following example:

> *M1: Teaching was the opportunity to test myself and my knowledge in practice. I observed myself and my learners.*

The second category of positive aspects, clearly reflected in their reports, relates to the opportunity of testing materials, which is exemplified below:

> *M1: The class listened to me although I was uncertain and lacked self-confidence. I tested myself and the course book. I was aware that I had to repeat everything a few times so my learners would understand it better.*

The third category of positive aspects mentioned by the males refers to their interactions and approaches to teaching children. They are aware of their role in an English primary classroom. It is illustrated in the following reflection:

> *M1: Teaching English lesson is a chance to get to know the school environment where approaches to learners differ. I always try to create the friendly atmosphere in my class. I learn how to be patient. I want to be a good example for them.*

As far as negative aspects are concerned, the results show that males weaknesses and threats relate to the amount of materials to be covered and management of time during lessons. It is depicted in the following remark:

> *M1: I spent too little time with students of lower level because I wanted to cover the whole lesson plan. I relied on the course book and workbook too much and therefore some elements of the lesson were boring. It is crazy how much we have to teach.*

The second category of negative aspects recorded by these respondents refers to the lack of experience in lesson planning, testing and grading children's progress. The example is as follows:

> *M1: I lacked self-confidence, I tested children's progress and I was not sure about their grades. Additionally, it is impossible to teach all content while the warm-up takes more time than I planned.*

Finally, negative aspects observed by the male student-teachers include also difficulties with keeping control in a classroom, getting learners' attention and dealing with bad behaviour. It is illustrated in the following example:

> *M1: I am impatient and get nervous very quickly when learners are not quiet during my lessons. I hate it when they talk over and over again, for example they are noisy after the break.*

3.2 Reflecting on the First Lessons and Drawing Conclusions

The results obtained in the second stage of the research are similar in nature to the results from the first stage. In particular, the reflections in the recalling level involves issues which happened differently as they had assumed. The females complain in their field-logs about insufficient time to cover all the tasks prepared in the lesson plans, learners' disruptive behaviour and changes in the pace of lessons. Similarly, the males also describe high expectations, too much material for a 45 min lesson, difficulties with timing of tasks and learners' disruptive behaviour. One of them writes:

> *M1: Children walked around during my lesson. They were not paying attention as I assumed, some of them were overactive and "destroyed it".*

Both the females' and males' reflections on children's feedback are very positive. The respondents know that their learners are satisfied with English lessons and feel excited about new teachers. Namely, one of student-teacher reveals:

F1: It was refreshing for them to have a new teacher. They liked the topic as they did not have to follow the course books all the time, but I had hand-outs.

In the last section of the recalling level, the respondents list the most difficult decisions undertaken during English lessons. There are two major categories described by them. On the one hand, these are decisions concerned with keeping discipline in a classroom (punishment for bad behaviour), which are in fact the most challenging for the females. For example, one of them writes:

F1: What shall I do when there are problems with discipline? How can I prepare for it earlier?

On the other hand, it is difficult to evaluate, grade and assess learners' knowledge as the student-teachers are not so confident and are afraid of being unfair. In case of the males, these are decisions linked firstly with establishing rules in a classroom including punishment for bad behaviour. Secondly, these are decisions associated with testing learners, error correction, which is exemplified below:

M1: The most difficult for me is test children's knowledge and grade their work. I always want to be fair.

As far as the reflecting part is concerned, the respondents describe the best components of their lessons. The females' descriptions focus, first of all, on the good atmosphere, communication and interaction with learners, which is illustrated below:

M1: I enjoy my lesson and interaction with young learners. I had fun and they had fun too. I love working with children. I love when they listen to me and pay attention.

They seem to be proud reporting about a variety of materials they prepared for the presentation of vocabulary and grammar. The males' descriptions focus mainly on listing activities such as TPR or drills, which are used in their teaching context. Furthermore, the respondents comment on the most problematic and uncomfortable part of their lessons. The females' reflections are concerned mainly with the first part (warm-ups, introductions, lead-ins) of their lessons because of discipline problems, difficulty with learners' attention after the break as well as presentation of content (structures, vocabulary) to mixed-ability groups. The following example illustrates their opinion:

F1: Warm-up/introduction was challenging; it is difficult to calm young learners down after the break, they were distracted and impatient.

Similarly, the males also recognise the warm-ups and introductions as the most challenging stages of the lessons. Another difficulty is linked with children's motivation during English lessons, and those learners, who are shy or are not good at learning English.

In the last section of the reflecting level, the respondents describe their achievements in teaching English. The females reveal that they are happy about their achievements only partly and want to improve their teaching skills. For example, they are able to finish their lessons on time but are disappointed with learners' attention. The males head towards the improvement of teaching skills (grammar

explanation) and classroom management skills linked with creating the positive atmosphere in a classroom and positive attitude to learning English, which is illustrated below:

M1: I improved my techniques of teaching English and enjoyed my lesson. Lastly I managed to involve children in learning new words.

The last three sections of the post-lesson reflections are concerned with drawing conclusions for further teaching practice. The respondents comment on the possible innovations in the lessons which they had already taught. Namely, the females refer to changes in terms of preparing more interesting tasks for English lessons and treating children more individually. Still, they would like to change their attitude towards discipline, and they want to be strict about rules as it is depicted in the following remark:

F1: I would be more self-confident as I was not sure how to respond and react to their rude questions and behaviour.

The males would like to pay more attention to timing and organization of the lessons as well as preparation of more interesting materials. They want to spend less time on checking learners' attendance or homework.

Then, they define what they have learnt about the process of learning itself. The females' comments are linked with their growing awareness, how easy or difficult it may be, how individual and complex learning may be in case of young learners. The example shows:

F1: Children get bored easily, they are not machines, they are different and should be taught differently.

The males describe the process of learning very individually in the context of children. They become aware that each lesson (topic) can be organised and taught in many different ways. Their major observation is that learning in Polish schools is constrained by many rules, increasing requirements and plenty of materials.

Finally, all the respondents provide descriptions of themselves as teachers seen from a learners' perspective in the last part of the field-notes. The females describe themselves as responsible, well-prepared, well-educated, talkative, smiling, calm, creative, open-minded, friendly but also as demanding and unexperienced teachers. The following example clarifies it:

F1: I am probably seen as the less experienced person (than their standard teacher), who is trying to find solutions to different problems. I am a bit nervous but I want everybody to take an active part in the lesson.

The males' tendency is to describe themselves as nice, sympathetic, pleasant, full of ideas, funny, patient and helpful teacher. The respondents (both females and males) sometimes are not able to define themselves from learners' perspective. They describe only the actions in a classroom, which is demonstrated in the following example:

M1: Teacher should expect unexpected, observe YL and be prepared for everything.

4 Conclusions

A considerable amount of the positive aspects are noticed skilfully by the novice teachers. The aspects observed by the female teachers are linked with their opportunities for practising lesson planning, developing good interactions in a classroom and mainly improving their teaching skills. The positive aspects observed by the male teachers are concerned with the opportunities for testing knowledge in practice, testing teaching resources and their ideas as well as developing good approach to young learners.

The respondents are able to record competently many problems and difficulties characteristic for modern language teaching at this stage of schooling. The negative aspects described by the females relate to discipline, timing and changes in lesson plans, being nervous about following materials, getting young learners' attention, teaching mixed-ability groups and getting a job. The negative aspects observed by the male teachers are similar in nature and refer to the extent of teaching materials, insufficient experience in planning tasks or time, children's assessment and bad behaviour. In general, the females have a tendency to reflect more on planning skills, approach to children and interactions with them. The males, on the contrary, have a tendency to comment more on their competencies, the implementation of ideas and materials in a classroom. The final conclusion refers to the manner in which the females and males reflect on their experience. Both groups of the respondents share similar reflections on bad discipline, lesson plans, pressure of time and large amount of material to cover. Differences among their reflections are linked with the description of emotions and actions such as implementation of materials, procedures and approaches to the reality faced in an English primary classroom. In particular, the females have a tendency to write more detailed reflections in comparison with the males.

A number of implications may be drawn from this project. The most important one is to prepare student-teachers for the reflection in stages. Namely, to start with post-lesson comments after each lesson in the first year of practice, then head towards writing more structured field-notes/logs, and finally to encourage them to continue with more elaborate reports or diaries in their further teacher development. It is estimated that student-teachers would be more willing to reflect on their experience with reference to their particular teaching context. Another implication is to develop a set of tools for the reflection (process-oriented evaluation) in English teacher training for primary education. A search for the solutions to the difficulties encountered by the respondents can become a further area of investigation.

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Junior High School Learners' Ability to Reflect in the Process of Keeping a Diary in a Foreign Language

Agnieszka Turzańska

1 Introduction

Being a teacher of English at a junior high school consists in performing such everyday tasks as explaining grammar, presenting new vocabulary, practising listening and speaking, to name but a few. One of the tasks that is equally important is preparing children for a school-leaving exam which not only evaluates knowledge learners have gained throughout the period of 3-year education but it also assesses teachers' effort and ability to teach. For this reason it is so important for school authorities as it becomes an indicator of efficiency a particular institution represents.

Having analysed English course books, it may be noticed that they are aimed at effective exam preparation. They contain numerous exercises similar to the ones that are found in test sheets and rarely do they cover issues beyond this scope. A writing task, for instance, constitutes an element of the second part of an exam. Learners are asked to create a short composition of 50–100 words that aims at conveying two or three precise messages specified in instructions. It should contain a proper opening and ending. Pupils are also instructed to sign their essay as an XYZ for anonymity. The advantage of such a task is that children learn how to impart certain short messages such as making an invitation or appointment, apologising, explaining, describing etc. Consequently, they have to use fixed expressions they have been taught in practice. However, as it is in case of many exams, there is always a danger of a backwash effect. It means that focusing on training skills needed in an exam, the others that will not be elicited, may be neglected. When it comes to a writing skill, it may be the ability of expressing one's emotions, experiences and thoughts that arise through reflection whose lack may result in perceiving the language merely as an exam subject or set of fixed phrases and not as another channel of self-expression that facilitates contact with

A. Turzańska (✉)
University of Silesia, Katowice, Poland
e-mail: agnieszka.nowak@interia.pl

people from other countries. Therefore, a need arises to make a writing experience more personal and reflective realising aims of school curriculum at the same time.

As an answer to this requirement, a study was designed in which a group of junior high school learners was asked to keep a diary in English for a period of 3 months. The children were instructed to write a short comment in Polish below every entry and reflect on the process of keeping a journal[1] in a foreign language.

Before describing the detailed results of the research, the most important theoretical aspects relevant to the investigated area will be discussed. These will be such notions as reflection, experiential learning and diary studies.

2   Reflection and Reflectivity

Reflection is a crucial element of human existence as it constitutes an opportunity to rethink one's experience, reconsider the course of actions, describe and analyse them, think about their purpose and results that occurred. Thanks to reflection, an individual is able to evaluate what happened and determine positive elements which may be successfully applied in the future (Schön 1983 and Boud et al. 1985 cited in Metaferia 2012). Reflection brings deeper understanding which in turn strengthens our self-awareness and control (Mezirow 1991 cited in Metaferia 2012).

2.1   Definition of Reflection

Comparing various definitions of reflection (see also: Dewey 1933; Mezirow 1991), we may notice that they contain certain common features. They say that reflection is a process involving reconsideration and leading to new understandings (Wiśniewska 2007). Definition coined by Richards and Schmidt (2002: 450) may serve as support of this claim as in their view reflection is "the process of thinking back on and considering experiences, in order better to understand the significance of such experiences."

Stanley (1999: 111) adds that "reflection is a complex cognitive and affective process which takes time and practice to develop and integrate into one's mind, heart and life."

Following Habermas's classification (Huttunen 2003 cited in Wiśniewska 2007), we may distinguish among three categories of reflection that correspond to its successive phases:

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[1] In this paper, the terms "journal" and "diary" will be used interchangeably with the awareness of the fact that some authors distinguish them. Wallace, for instance, states that "[...] diary is private, diary-writers can confide to it whatever thoughts or feelings occur to them. [...] Journals have many attributes of diaries, but the main difference is that they have been written to be read as public documents" (1998: 62).

1. Mechanical reflection which denotes the act of experiencing that is void of assessment. In school context, it may be interpreted as learner's ability to describe particular events;
2. Pragmatic reflection during which one attempts to make an understanding and look for immediate connections. It also implies that except for describing events, a learner is capable of interpreting them;
3. Emancipatory reflection that is employed consciously in order to make wider connections which means that a learner not only enumerates and depicts experiences, but also analyses them critically.

Dewey delineates three levels of reflection: (1) an uncomfortable experience; (2) critical analysis; (3) development of new perspective (Dewey 1933 cited in Wiśniewska 2007). However, in Mezirow's view (Mezirow 1991 cited in Wiśniewska 2007), reflection is not always critical. He states that it may only mean becoming aware of certain objects or events. Yet, as he further argues, the process of critical reflection involves *choice* which leads either to an implicit critical reflection concerning mindless selection between good and evil that has been triggered by personal values, or to an explicit critical reflection denoting an aware choice which involves assessing grounds for making it.

2.2 Reflection and Reflectivity in Language Learning

The terms "reflection" and "reflectivity" are broadly applied in psychology and theories of foreign language learning and teaching. In 1940s the notion of reflectivity started to be investigated in psychology and since then has been used to describe individual's cognitive style that stands in opposition to an impulsive one (Bielska 2006). It characterizes the process of decision making which is slower and more accurate in contrast to quick guesses made by an impulsive type (Bielska 2006). Bielska (2006: 67) further discusses the term in the context of second language acquisition and states that reflective language learners focus on accuracy and, therefore, need more time to complete a task. However, they may be more successful in completing reading or writing exercises. Bielska (2006: 69–70) also comments on the practical implications that may be applied in a classroom, paying attention to the fact that reflective students need more time to produce their answers and, in case of written assignments, they do not provide as many solutions as impulsive students; yet, their quality is more precise.

Reflection, except for denoting a cognitive style, is also a process that can be enhanced in learners by means of various strategies. Becoming reflective means being aware of one's strong and weak points, being able to review one's values and notice spheres that need further improvement (Metaferia 2012). Moreover, reflection plays an important role in developing autonomy. Harmer (2001: 335–344) proposes versatile ways of facilitating autonomous behaviours. One of them is learner training whose main element is reflection which may involve discussing

strategies learners apply in studying, solving problems, or becoming acquainted with learning-style alternatives (Harmer 2001). Students may be offered a questionnaire to fill in where they have an opportunity to share their opinions on particular aspects of language (Harmer 2001). The author further suggests that autonomy may be facilitated by frequent reflection concerning an experience of learning, such as providing a description of a favourite lesson or part of a lesson that causes least difficulties, discussing strategies applied to remember new words, evaluating one's progress (Harmer 2001). Harmer (2001: 337) also points out that

> We can have students reflect on the language itself: they can list the most difficult grammar they came across, or say what their favourite ten new words have been in the last fourteen days. We can give them opportunities to ask us specific questions about things they are having difficulty with.

An approach which allows for fruitful development of reflection is experiential language learning which is based on numerous concepts, such as progressive approach devised by Dewey, social psychology formed by Lewin, Jean Piaget's developmental cognitive psychology, cognitive theory of personality conceived by Kelly and humanistic psychology formulated by Maslow and Rogers (Kohonen 1992). Immediate personal experience is placed in the central point of the approach because it is seen by Kolb (1984: 21 cited by Kohonen 1992: 14) as giving

> life, texture, and subjective personal meaning to abstract concepts and at the same time providing a concrete, publicly shared reference point for testing the implications and validity of ideas created during the learning process.

For an experience to gain full understanding, it needs to be reflected upon; therefore, the learning practice is seen as a cyclic process involving four elements:

– Concrete experience,
– Abstract conceptualisation,
– Reflective observation,
– Active experimentation (Kohonen 1992).

These components are connected by two dimensions:

– Prehension which refers to understanding one's experience either through apprehension (intuitive perception) or through comprehension (conscious learning),
– Transformation which depicts amount of reflection engaged in the process of transforming one's experience; such a practice moves an individual towards either an active experimentation or reflective observation (Kohonen 1992).

Kohonen (1992: 17) further stresses the fact that a mere act of experiencing is not enough in the process of learning. Conscious observation and analysis which lead to creating new hypotheses are indispensable. Testing hypotheses will create new experience which becomes even more meaningful if it is encountered from subjective emotional perspective (Kohonen 1992). Thus, in this process reflection forms a connection between experience and theoretical conceptualisation (Kohonen 1992).

A means that may give learners a chance to develop the ability of reflecting upon their own experience is a diary. This tool will be described in the next section of this paper.

3 Diary Studies

Diary study is a means allowing for a detailed examination of various aspects of a language learning process. It provides a researcher with an insight into one's affective factors and emotions. Furthermore, keeping a journal reveals one's language learning strategies and becomes a useful device in investigating aspects of culture involved in an acquisition of foreign structures. It also constitutes an invaluable opportunity of expressing one's opinions and reflections.

3.1 Definition and Classification

Richards and Schmidt (2002: 156) define diary study as

> a regularly kept journal or written record of a learner's language development, often kept as part of longitudinal study of language learning. In many diary studies, the researcher and the diarist are the same person, and the diarist records examples of his or her own linguistic productions, hypotheses about the target language, information about the communicative setting involved (i.e. the participants, the purpose, etc.), and information concerning affect. In other studies, a researcher analyses diaries kept by one or more learners who may or may not have been given guidance about what to include.

Baily and Ochsner (1991 cited in Horváthová 2012) stress the fact that diarists, while studying their own teaching or learning, may analyse the entries in order to search for such elements as affective factors, language learning strategies, or their own insights which are invisible and unattainable to other persons. Pellegrino (2004) claims that the role of a diary study is to gain understanding of a learner's personal experience and its main goal is to deepen the insight of a research.

This type of document may be classified into three categories (Burns 1999):

– Intimate journal which constitutes a personal record of events and sentiments written at regular intervals,
– Memoir characterized by a lower degree of intimacy and higher objectivity whose entries are made with a smaller frequency,
– Log presenting a record of events such as meetings or telephone calls.

Following Moon's classification (2004: 189–193), Gabryś-Barker (2012) differentiates among three types of diaries depending on their purpose:

– A cognitive journal whose aim is to acknowledge experience or specific situation in a comprehensive manner and in this way foster an ability of critical thinking;

this practice may lead to developing such useful skills as problem solving and learning on the basis of one's experience,
– An affective diary directing the process of learning to a more personal and intuitive path as a diarist has an opportunity of delving into one's understandings and views,
– A metalinguistic journal which constitutes a stimulus to practice writing and, consequently, promotes language development and language awareness as its structure becomes a central part of reflection.

The discussed form of data collection may be also classified according to the methods of recording one's experience. Following The Diary Study Guide (2011), Horváthová (2012: 112–113) provides five examples:

– Paper diaries which is perceived as the most personal and natural. It may be used by persons who do not possess technical skills. Paper diaries are also comfortable to transport and, consequently, allow for instant record of events. However, transcription of paper diaries tends to be very time-consuming;
– Electronic diaries that are kept on the Internet and sent to the researcher when the entries are completed;
– e-mail diaries which can be analysed by a researcher after every entry is completed by a study participant. However, this tool, just like electronic diary, allows for data recording only when a subject has an access to the Internet which means that there is a danger that some details may be forgotten before they are saved in an document;
– Audio diaries which resemble a think-aloud method; here, the participant does not have the necessity of writing all the events; yet, one needs to be in possession of appropriate equipment.

Diaries are also classified according to the form in which they are kept. These are (Gabryś-Barker 2012):

– Unstructured forms which involve free writing and reflecting which are usually organized in a chronological order and refer to a current event; this kind of work can be arranged as a double-entry journal which includes a description of an event on one side and reflection which is prompted by it on the other side;
– Structured forms whose content is organized in accordance with a form chosen by an author (e.g. exercises, questions to answer, learning forms, profile, portfolio).

Diary is an important tool in conducting qualitative research. Moreover, it may serve as a device enhancing teacher education. Horváthová (2012: 114–115) exemplifies four types of journals that serve these purposes:

– Dialogue journals which engage both teachers and students in sharing their reflections on particular topic. Ewald stresses "the potential of journals to promote teacher reflection, engagement and a critical understanding of pedagogical theory and practices" (2012: 31). She adds that students have a chance to

exchange with teachers written comments regarding language learning experience (Ewald 2012);
– Response journals that become a trigger for students to formulate opinions and reflections connected with the content of a language course;
– Teaching journals are created by prospective teachers and promote reflection on the process of one's practicum;
– Collaborative/interactive group journals which are created through group activity in which students exchange their journals and, in this manner, they share reflections, answer questions asked by group members, help one another solve issues connected with the experience of teaching.

Except for determining different kinds of journals, two types of diary studies may be distinguished. Depending on a subject who conducts an investigation, Curtis and Bailey (2009) distinguish between primary diary study and secondary diary study. The former term denotes research whose findings are analysed by an author of a journal. The latter one refers to studies in which data generated by learners or teachers in form of diaries are analysed by a person who is not an author of researched material.

3.2 Strong and Weak Points of Diary Studies

Applying a diary study, one needs to be aware of its strengths and weaknesses. Here is a short review of opinions concerning this qualitative approach to research. An advantage of this tool is that it allows for "a more than a surface understanding of a phenomenon, delving deep into personal experiences of individuals and painting a much more intense picture than that allowed by statistical methods" (Pellegrino 2004: 92). Nunan notices that diaries "have a great deal of potential for the investigation of learning strategies and learning preferences of second language students" (Nunan 2008: 123 cited in Horváthová 2012: 112). Moreover, Bailey adds that "the diary studies have potential usefulness as hypothesis-generating tool" (Bailey 1991: 82 cited in Horváthová 2012: 112). However, it is also noticed that "the study of student perceptions is individualistic, and, thus, difficult to generalize to larger populations" (Pellegrino 2004: 94). Bailey puts her doubts about diary studies in three points: "(1) problems regarding the subjects—small number of subjects involved, (2) problems in data collection—subjective data, based entirely on subjects' perceptions of their experiences, and (3) problems in data analysis—data reduction through summarizing, coding, the open-ended nature of the data and reliability in coding and interpreting" (Bailey 1991: 78–83 cited in Horváthová 2012: 112).

3.3 Examples of Diary Studies

In Sect. 3.1 several types of journals were discussed. However, this part will focus on exemplifying results of primary and secondary diary studies in order to demonstrate the versatility of findings this form of investigation might bring. Additionally, a tabular presentation of other diary studies and their thematic focus will be exemplified in the second part of this section.

Here are several examples of primary diary studies in which researchers analyse their own language learning experience described in diary entries. Schumann (1980) provides an interesting account learning Arabic in Tunisia and Persian in Iran. In journals serving as a self-investigation tool, she reflects upon psychological factors which she names "personal variables" that, in her opinion, influence the process of second language acquisition. The author discusses the following six elements: "nesting patterns, transition anxiety, reactions to pedagogical techniques, motivation for choice of language learning materials, desire to maintain one's own language learning agenda, and eavesdropping vs. speaking as a language learning strategy" (1980: 51). In a detailed diary study, Bailey (1980) discusses effects of a formal instruction on studying French. The author provides a careful examination of her "response to the language learning environment, preference for a democratic teaching style, need for success and positive feedback" (1980: 58). She also comments on her emotions, grades, reaction to the teacher and expectations for learning a foreign language. Bailey (1983) later discusses the experience of learning French looking at anxiety and competitiveness. She also provides theoretical analysis of these affective factors and explores their presence in a learning process reviewing ten other journals. Campbell (1996) gives an interesting account of her stay in Mexico and reflects on the experience of learning Spanish. The author presents a strategy she followed during her stay which involved achieving "social status as a member of the Mexican group" (1996: 220). She also comments on such language learning strategies as risk-taking behaviours, eavesdropping or even finding a boyfriend who is a native speaker of this language.

Secondary diary studies which involve researcher's analysis of diary entries provided by study subjects bring numerous interesting findings as well. One of them is a study conducted by Peck (1996) in which she discusses cultural sensitivity of Latino and non-Latino students participating in a Spanish course. The author analyses impact which realising target culture content has on cross-cultural awareness of the course participants. In case of Latino students, Peck (1996: 240–241) comments on a study of diaries which, among others, reveal such issues as "(a) a feeling of pressure to speak Spanish well because they were Latino, (b) a consciousness of being Latino, but growing up with American (Anglo) influences, and (c) higher self-esteem as a result of learning Spanish and returning to their roots." Ewald (2012) explores learners' experience with dialogue journals conducted in L1. The author presents the perceptions of students participating in a course of Spanish, investigating learners' concerns and their teacher's responses, examining ways in which they express opinions and reflections.

Table 1 Examples of diary studies and their research focus

Research focus	Author/authors
Types of requests for input made by learners in L2	Brown (1985)
L2 learners' remarks about the input and their perception of the input	Schmidt and Frota (1986)
Learners' affective states (anxiety)	Bailey (1983); Ellis and Rathbone (1987); Brophy (1995)
Learning strategies	Brown (1985); Parkinson and Howell-Richardson (1990); Halbach (2000); Carson and Longhini (2002)
L2 learners' listening strategy development	Chen (2009)
Teaching and learning purposes of using digital and paper diaries in higher education	Gleaves et al. (2007)
Fostering learner autonomy	Alonso (2011)
Reflective language learning	Metaferia (2012)
Individual learner differences	Fry (1988); Bailey (1991)
Self-reflection and self-evaluation among novice teachers	Gabryś-Barker (2009)

Apart from the studies presented above, some examples of other research conducted by means of the discussed tool have been provided in Table 1.

4 The Study

As it has already been mentioned, the research was designed in order to facilitate creative and reflective foreign language writing at the stage of junior high school education. It has been speculated in the first part of this article that considerable attention that is paid to effective exam preparation may lead to a backwash effect. Such a tendency may further reduce the role of a foreign language to a set of expressions and rules necessary to pass a test. Therefore, a need arises to motivate learners to use the language as a means of genuine communication and to reflect on this process.

4.1 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to answer the following questions:

– What are the most frequent motifs/themes in learners' diaries?
– What is the nature and quality of learners' reflection in diaries written in English?

– To what extent are learners able to reflect on experience of diary keeping in a foreign language?

4.2   The Participants

The data analysed in this research was produced by junior high school learners attending the first, second and third grade (teenagers from 13 to 16 years of age). These were 18 persons who volunteered to participate in the project. Two of the learners can be classified as representing intermediate knowledge of English and the remaining 16 school children have mastered the language on the pre-intermediate level. All of them commenced the process of learning English at a primary school and continue at a junior high school. There, 13 persons have three 45-min lessons per week in groups counting from 10 to 14 members. Five learners who attend the third grade receive two lessons per week. This difference stems from the timetable arranged by the school authorities. Eight learners participate in additional English private classes. Seventeen participants are taught at school by the author of this study which gives a broader perspective to be taken into consideration in the research analysis. One learner attends a class which is taught by a different teacher. Having regular contact with all of them at the school corridors or with most of them in a classroom gave the learners numerous opportunities to receive answers for all their questions immediately and resolve their doubts concerning the project.

4.3   Collection and Analysis of the Data

Every subject who volunteered for the research was asked to make ten diary entries each month in the total period of 3 months during which the pilot study was conducted. Every entry was supposed to contain two parts:

– The first one written in English in which the learners were allowed to share their thoughts and ideas connected with any subject or experience they wanted to write about,
– The second one kept in Polish where the study participants were asked to reflect on the task of writing a particular entry in English.

Before the research commenced, the learners received detailed instructions on how to write each part of a diary. They were also assured about full confidentiality of this project. It was decided that every research participant would receive a mark for active participation in class every time they submitted ten journal entries. No grammar, lexical or stylistic mistakes were taken into consideration when a grade was given. The content of the entries did not have influence on a mark either. Such a strategy was employed to motivate the learners to write as much as possible in

Table 2 Number of participants, number of entries submitted each month, average number of diary entries

	Month 1	Month 2	Month 3
Number of participants	11	16	11
Number of diary entries	94	138	52
Average number of diary entries submitted by each participant	8.5	8.6	4.7

English and to reflect on this process honestly and spontaneously. It was assumed that employing such an approach would reduce learners' anxiety which could have been evoked by the awareness of having one's work corrected and marked.

Diary entries were collected at the end of each month. In total, the learners submitted 284 entries. They varied significantly in terms of length ranging from one sentence to one page. They were also written with various regularity. The number of participants and the number of entries they submitted each month is presented in Table 2.

The secondary diary study was divided into two stages. The first one focused on parts of journals written in English and consisted of two readings. Reading number one was conducted in order to discriminate the main themes appearing in learners' entries and to identify the frequency with which they were presented. It served to investigate what topics were most willingly discussed by the learners. Reading number two focused on verifying what categories of reflection were present in the part written in English. Here, the aim was to find out how reflective the learners were, whether they could describe a particular event, interpret and think of it critically.

The second stage of analysis concentrated on the parts of journals kept in Polish which constituted reflections commenting on the experience of writing a particular diary entry in English. In the same vein, it consisted of two readings. Reading number one aimed at identifying the main themes which appeared in this part and estimating the number of their occurrences. The main goal of this action was to investigate the type, nature and frequency of difficulties as well as factors facilitating the process of diary keeping in a foreign language. Reading number two focused on discriminating categories of reflection which appeared in the comments. In this way it could be assessed whether the subjects were only able to identify a motif, or additionally provide its interpretation and critical analysis.

4.4 Data Presentation and Discussion

There were four main motifs identified that appeared in learners' entries produced in English. These were:

– Free-time activities which were mentioned in 157 entries (55 % of all the entries),
– Affective factors which were described in 82 entries (29 %),

– School facts or events that appeared in 79 entries (28 %),
– Plans which were discussed in 33 entries (12 %).

It can be seen that more than a half of learners' attention focused on activities that were not connected with school, almost one third referred to feelings and school events, future plans were discussed in every tenth entry. However, the descriptions differed significantly in their length and quality. Here are some examples presenting how differently one motif can be depicted. To enable their full understanding, the most serious mistakes have been corrected and the original versions are provided in Appendix. Below an example of a complex pastime description may be found which, apart from enumerating events, gives reasons and evaluation:

S1: Today I was with my mum and grandpa at my cousin's birthday party. Everything was great there, we talked a lot because it was more a family meeting than a birthday party but it was OK. Until we drove back. . .My grandpa shouldn't drive a car any more. I would drive better than him. . .I know he is old but he is changing gears so slowly that when we got stuck in a traffic jam on a hillside, each time we could move 5 metres we went back 5 because he had to change a gear. . .

The next example presents an entry which is far more limited in its complexity and constitutes a list of events:

S2: This Saturday was special because this is the Children's Day. Parents gave me a present, it was cash, of course, and I could buy anything I wanted.

As far as affective factors are concerned, some learners provided insightful and moving analyses of their emotional states:

S3: Dear diary, I am meditating. . . I like it....reflecting on heaven. . .That is, on whether after the death of everyone we meet in heaven. When my dad was dying of cancer, my mother told him to give a sign when he got there. . .up till now he hasn't given a sign. It seems so impossible and yet most of us believe in it. . . I hope that one day he will meet with his loved ones, who lost him for life. . .It gives us strength. Me too I hope so. . .that one day I will talk to my dad again. Surely you can't cry forever right? You can't still live the memories of the loved one and remind myself of his appearance only with photos. I miss him. . .

Whereas, some others enumerated their feelings; yet, in a very powerful and explicit manner: "I hate it all. I hate this day. I hate myself. I hate my friends, family. I just hate people. I hate my life!"

Learners' diaries may also be analysed in terms of how learners build the understanding of situations they describe. In order to do this, Habermas's classification has been applied which distinguishes three stages of reflection: mechanical, pragmatic and emancipatory (discussed in point 2.1). In 51 % (146) of entries, learners' reflection operated on the pragmatic level which means that they were able to interpret the events they wrote about. An example of such reflection is shown below.

S4: Kasia and Szyszka [friend's nickname] are on a trip in Wisla and I'm a little bored, because I have to sit at home. I don't know what I can do. I'm going to a drawing lesson next week and Sebastian will tell me if I'm good enough for studying it. I'm a little nervous,

because I really wanna go to these lessons. I think that drawing is really interesting. And last week I was with Kasia at the dark room and we were developing photos. They are great! There are only 5-6 pictures but I really like them. They are very pretty. And Kasia liked taking photos this way. She said that she wanted to do it again in the near future. That's nice for me :)

The author of this excerpt, apart from enumerating events and feelings, provides an interpretation: "I'm a little bored [description of a feeling] because I have to sit at home [reason, explanation of an emotional state]."

In 26 % (74) of entries the subjects reflected on emancipatory level which means that an effort to build links with a wider context was made consciously, as it happened in case of one of the learners:

> S5: Dear diary, today was a very long day. . .And I feel bad. What am I doing? I am sitting and listening to Beyoncé (my favourite singer :)) and I am thinking. . .Today I saw such a situation: the boys laughed at one girl because she is a little overweight. I saw she had tears in her eyes. . .It was horrible! I really don't understand these people who make fun of others! How can they do it? I just feel sorry for this girl. . .Perhaps she feels bad about herself. . .But I think that everyone is beautiful :) Everyone does have such a feature that no one else has in the world. Other people should think the same way. . .

Here, not only did the study participant give an interpretation of what she had experienced by writing: " It was horrible! I really don't understand these people who make fun of others!", but she went one step further and analysed the situation critically: "But I think that everyone is beautiful :) Everyone does have such a feature that no one else has in the world."

The subjects also made lists of events which occurred during a day without adding any evaluation. Mechanical reflection appeared in 17 % (48) of the entries. Sometimes a description of a day was expressed by means of one sentence saying "Today nothing special happened." In other cases it was longer and included several actions S6: "Saturday like Saturday, nothing special. . .Mostly I played computer games :P When my mum was cooking or working in the garden, I was playing football with my little brother." In the aforementioned examples the learners limited their utterance to enumerating events they had encountered. The subjects made neither additional descriptions nor constructed further analysis.

As far as the second part of diaries is concerned, here the learners were asked to write their reflections on making a particular entry or keeping a diary in general. They were advised to comment on any difficulties they encountered, describe what they felt, or feel free to add any other thought concerning the activity of writing a journal which came to their mind at that point. To facilitate spontaneity and honesty, it was recommended to write this part in Polish. Although they were asked to provide a comment for each entry, most of them did not do this. There were only 87 reflections written which means that 31 % of the entries in English were given any additional remarks. Learners' reflections revolved around three main groups of subjects (the quotations provided below have been translated by the author of this study):

– Affective factors (mood and emotions experienced while writing an entry in English), the following citations may serve as examples: "Today it was more difficult to write. I didn't know what to write. As it is my last entry I'll say that writing a diary in English is difficult but pleasant"; "I felt as if I was writing a letter"; "It was nice to 'write everything out' after something annoying"; "Today writing was very nice. This is the end of the diary, but it was very interesting and... (I can't find a word). I hope that our English teacher will think of more exercises of this kind :)"; "I feel I was writing very honestly and that was even nice."

– Communication strategies (methods of overcoming vocabulary problems, appealing for assistance by consulting an authority, e.g. a dictionary, a native speaker): "I used an Internet translator today, I didn't feel like looking up all the words in a dictionary"; "Today I felt fine while writing thanks to my brother-in-law, who helped me a lot today."

– Expressing doubts concerning a particular word or expression which may also be qualified as a communication strategy as it is a method of appealing for teacher's assistance: "I wrote something short in the first entry...I hope that next notes will be longer—writing felt good but I'm not sure if I wrote correctly: 'for me it is all OK' and 'but somehow survived'."

Following Habermas's classification and analysing this part in terms of categories of reflection, it may be noticed that the pattern of reflection differs significantly in comparison to the entries written in English. In this case mechanical reflection was a dominating form of commenting on the experience of keeping a diary. Sixty-nine comments (79 % of all the comments) were written in this form. This means that description was the most convenient way for the learners to reflect. Only 16 entries (18 %) were reflected upon pragmatically so the learners made an attempt to interpret an experience. Emancipatory reflection which involves the ability of critical thinking was applied in two entries which constitute 2 % of all remarks. One of the emancipatory reflections was provided by a learner in English and will be cited here without any corrections:

> Formerly I wrote a diary. It allows me to find appropriate words, which show my state of mind. Now, I write the diary again. It's amazing fun. I know more about me. I can closing time in notebook, on a few pages. A diary helps to throw out negative emotions. It helps in many cases. Writing the diary in English is a large challenge. It wasn't easy and it required work. I learned a lot of new words in English. I think that writing a diary developed my abilities :)

In this example it can be observed that the learner managed to describe an experience: "It's amazing fun" and interpret it: "A diary helps to throw out negative emotions. It helps in many cases."

4.5 Additional Remarks on the Study

From the beginning of the project the subjects exhibited positive attitude towards the task. Their reaction was enthusiastic and they asked a lot of questions. Eight learners kept their diaries in notebooks, the remaining part returned their entries on separate sheets of paper. Some pupils made drawings on the first page of a notebook and put a title "My little diary" which shows a serious and personal attitude towards the task. Such feelings were also displayed by some learners who began each entry with an introduction "My dear diary", "My diary", "My little diary". It could also be deduced that the pupils believed in confidentiality of the project as they included many personal remarks, they wrote about other teachers, or their problems with schoolmates without changing or concealing names. An interesting fact is that the pupils kept their journals in various settings and times of a day. One of them made an entry on a coach during a trip to Paris and continued writing a diary throughout the whole journey. The other pupil put her reflections to paper at 7 o'clock on Saturday morning. It could also be observed that the subjects felt relaxed while performing this action. One of the learners stated "Like a boss!" commenting on the fact that he had completed a particular entry without any assistance. What is more, topics included in the journals were versatile. Except for the examples enumerated above, one of the learners reflected upon the sound of English: "I don't know why but I like word 'whisper'. It's very...I don't know but I love this word! And 'sunshine' a very voiced word." There is also one interesting example of reflection on the process of writing which shows how learner's attitude towards keeping a diary evolved in the course of 2 months. The comments were written in Polish and translated by the author of this study:

> S7: (6th of April) Like yesterday, I don't feel anything special...I can't include any particular descriptions of experiences, thoughts in this diary, I treat it more like a description of a day. Maybe later I will try to write more about what I think when I write this rather than only describe my day.
>
> (2nd June) It works somehow, with every page I'm trying to write more openly about feelings etc. But still it is quite difficult to write about what I feel and I still get more of a description of a day. I don't know, maybe one day I will manage to write...better.

It can be seen here that this learner made an attempt to broaden the perspective included in the entries. Making the comments, he was aware of difficulties he had; yet, he knew what he had to work on and defined the direction in which he wanted to go.

Additionally, to ensure regular work on the part of the pupils, the learners were reminded about the project at least once a week throughout the course of the research. At the end of each month, the diaries were collected, mistakes were corrected to increase the didactic value of the study, some entries were also commented on by the teacher.

5   Conclusion

To conclude, the study showed that the learners were enthusiastic to keep diaries in a foreign language. In most cases their entries were made regularly in an extensive manner. A half of the learners were able to interpret the events they described. A quarter of the subjects managed to formulate a critical analysis of an experience, only one-fifth of participants resorted to enumeration of events. However, not all the learners managed to reflect upon the process of diary keeping as only one-third of the entries received any comment. The content of remarks showed that preponderant number of the pupils managed to reflect on their feelings, difficulties they encountered or help that they used. However, most of them did not provide any profound interpretation or analysis. Yet, there were two pupils who were able to think critically about this process deducing what benefits keeping a diary might bring and how much work it involves (one example has been given in a previous section).

The results show that learners should receive a more detailed guidance on the process of reflecting. Moreover, at the beginning stages, it should be accompanied by a form with questions which could assist them in formulating their thoughts and suggest issues to reflect upon. Such a form could be completed by learners and discussed with a teacher in order to elicit more detailed information. Therefore, a tool of this kind will be introduced in the next stage of the research.

What is more, the study reveals how creative the learners are and shows that many of them have a great need of sharing their emotions and experiences and they are willing to do this if they are given a chance. Diaries become an opportunity of getting to know pupils closer, which is usually very hard to accomplish when curriculum objectives need to be followed. Thanks to the entries it is much easier to understand them which definitely influences rapport in a classroom. Additionally, it helps to avoid a state which Paulo Freire calls a "banking" model (Payton 1993: 171–172 cited in Ewald 2012: 34)

> in which the teacher deposits knowledge into the heads of students and then checks periodically to make sure it's there. Ironically, even language and writing teachers, whose goal is to develop students' sense of selfhood, confidence, and self-expressive abilities, often know very little about those students and give them very limited opportunities to actually express themselves.

Moreover, the study has opened a perspective of investigating how the process of acquiring writing skills evolves throughout the time which will be the focus of a closer investigation in the future.

Appendix. Original Versions of Learners' Entries

> S1: Today I was with my mum and grandpa at my cousins birthday. Hm..everything was great there, we talked a lot because it was more family meeting than a birthday party but it

was OK. Untill we hadn't drove back. . .My grandpa shouldn't drive car anymore. I would drive better than him. . .I know he is old and all but he is changing gears so slowly that when we stayed in a traffic jam (nie wiem jak jest pod górkę, ale staliśmy pod górkę) each time we could move 5 metres we went back 5 because he had to change gear. . .

S2: This Saturday was special because this is the "Children's Day". Parents gave me a present, it was a cash of course and I could anything what I want.

S3: Dear daries, I meditation. . . I like it. . . Reflect on the sky. That is, on whether the death of everyone we meet in heaven. When my dad was dying of cancer, my mother told him: to give a sign how you got there. . .Up to now hasn't given a sing. It seems so impossible and yet most of us believe in it. . .Hopes that one day he will meet with your loved ones, whose lost her for life. . .It gives us strength. Me too I hope so. . .that one day I will talk to my dad again. Surely you can't cry forever, right? You can't still live the memories of the loved one and remind myself of his appearance only with photos, I miss him. . .

S4: Kasia and Szyszka [friend's nickname] are at a trip in Wisla and I'm a little bored, because I have to sit at home. I don't know what can I do. I'm going next week for drawing lesson and Sebastian will tell me if I'm good enough for studying it. I'm little nervous, because I really wanna go for this lessons. I think that drawing is really interesting. And last week I was with Kasia at the black room and we were making photos. They are great! It's only 5-6 pictures but I really like it. They are very pretty. And Kasia liked making photos the way like. She told that she want to do it again in nearly future. That's nice for me :)

S5: Dear daries, today stretches a very long time. . .Yet I feel bad it. What do I do? I sit, I listen to Beyoncé (my favourite singer :)) and I think. . .Today I met such a situation: the boys laughed at one girl because she is a little overweight. I've seen just as she had tears in her eyes. . .It was horrible! I really don't understand these people who make fun of others! How they just can not! I just feel sorry for this girl. . .Perhaps she complains of himself. . .But I think that everyone is beautiful :) Everyone does have such a feature that no one else has in the world. Other people should think the same way. . .

S6: Saturday like Saturday, nothing special. . .Mostly I played computer games :P When my mum was cooking or working in the garden, I was playing football with my little brother.

S7: (6 kwietnia) Jak wczoraj nie czuję nic specjalnego. . .Nie umiem zawrzeć w pamiętniku jakichś szczególnych opisów przeżyć, przemyśleń, traktuje to bardziej jako taki opis dnia. Może potem spróbuję pisać coś więcej o tym comyślę jak to piszę, niżeli tylko opisać mój dzień.

(2 czerwca) No jakoś to działa, staram się z każdą kartką pisać bardziej otwarcie o uczuciach itd. Ale i tak ciężko mi jakoś tak pisać co czuję i bardziej wychodzi z tego taki opis dnia. Nie wiem, może kiedyś mi się uda pisać tak. . . lepiej.

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Qualitative Evaluation of Emotional Intelligence During Conversation Classes

Nina Barłożek

1 Introduction

"Social life and interpersonal behaviour are arguably more complex and demanding in the twenty-first century than ever before" (Ciarrochi 2006: 259). The opening quotation indicates that there are certain requirements which need to be met in order to adjust to the contemporary world. Traditional societies are undergoing an extraordinary transformation and they are being substituted in which people are frequently incapable of socializing and functioning as they used to in the past. The fundamental facet worth reflecting upon is emotion. Although learners' cognitive intelligence is mostly taken into account, emotional competencies should not be undermined. For effective utilization of intellectual resources aspects such as motivation, the ability to overcome obstacles, cooperation with others, effective recognition of one's own and other people's emotions as well as expressing them appropriately are essential (Knopp 2010). The philosophical contemplation of the relationship between thought and emotion began in the Western culture. For instance, Aristotle believed in the reliability of intellect and claimed that emotion could not be depended upon for advancing to rational thought (Bar-On and Parker 2000; in Rouhani 2008). Logic was believed to be superior to feelings due to the fact that "people could agree as to rational arguments but often disagreed as to feelings" (Mayer et al. 2008: 508). Fortunately, sentimentalists of the eighteenth century recommended trusting one's heart by highlighting that the truth may be discovered when one followed his or her feelings and intuition. Hence, the significance of emotions could be justified due to the fact that they contribute to one's cognitive functioning. The aforementioned rationale consequently led to the integration of cognition and emotion resulting in the occurrence of a new type of intelligence: emotional intelligence (EI).

N. Barłożek (✉)
Opole University, Opole, Poland
e-mail: nina.barlozek@gmail.com

1.1 The Emergence of Emotional Intelligence

A three-part division of the mind should be emphasized in order to understand the concept of emotional intelligence. The abovementioned division refers to cognition (or thought), affect (including emotion) and motivation (or conation). Human memory, reasoning, judgment and abstract thought are included in the cognitive sphere. General intelligence pertains to functions of the cognitive sphere. Affective sphere embraces emotions (Mayer and Salovey 1997). The integration of cognition and affect makes up emotional intelligence. Yet, before the emergence of emotional intelligence, researchers began paying attention to a learner's emotions. In 1983 Gardner made a clear distinction between seven types of intelligence. Emotional aspects refer to interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence whose existence seems to be justified by research of the brain (Taracha 2010). The first type of intelligence "enables individuals to recognize and make distinctions among others' feelings and intentions." Intrapersonal intelligence "allows them to understand themselves and to use this understanding effectively to manage their own lives" (Gardner 1983; in Nicolini 2010: 92). These two types of intelligence are responsible for forming and sustaining relationships, resolving practical obstacles as well as dealing effectively with recognizing and understanding one's own emotions—the attributes which are included in the definition of emotional intelligence.

The popularization of the construct in question occurred in 1995 when Goleman (1995) published the book entitled: "Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ." The public reacted enthusiastically towards the idea of emotional intelligence. Some even started undermining the significance of cognitive intelligence, claiming that the new kind of intelligence can be a 'remedy' for most aspects of human existence. Nevertheless, the emotional intelligence had been coined 5 years earlier by two psychologists in Mayer and Salovey (1997). They called their model of intelligence the ability model and asserted that emotional intelligence is:

> The capacity to reason about emotions to enhance thinking. It [EI] includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to assess and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer and Salovey 1997: 5).

According to the definition, emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize emotions, understand and manage them as well as being able to reason with them. The authors of the construct refer to those abilities as branches (Mayer 2006) and named them accordingly:

1. Reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth;
2. Understanding and analyzing emotions as well as employing emotional knowledge;
3. Emotional facilitation of thinking; and
4. Perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion (Mayer and Salovey 1997: 11).

They also assert that emotional intelligence meets standards for a traditional intelligence (Mayer et al. 2000) and can be developed (Caruso et al. 2006). Because of that, emotional intelligence has not escaped the attention of educators. A great number of studies have been carried out with the aim of verifying its significance. Downey et al. (2008), for instance, examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and Australian students' academic achievements. More than 200 secondary school students completed the Adolescent Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and grades from all their subjects from year 7 to 11 were collected. The researchers found the correlation between the two measured variables proving that emotional intelligence is a significant predicator of educational achievements. Petrides et al. (2004) explored the role of emotional intelligence in academic performance examining more than 600 secondary school students in Britain. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQ) was utilized to measure the students' level of emotional intelligence. Their marks in Science, Maths and English were obtained by the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). The findings revealed that emotional intelligence did not influence Maths or Science performance, yet it moderated the impact of IQ not only on English but also on overall GCSE performance. Many other researchers have provided proof of the influence of the construct on academic success (Brackett and Katulak 2007; Pekrun et al. 2002). It may be deduced from the data above that emotional intelligence has become a new and important field and should be taken into consideration as a crucial component in a learner's academic achievement.

1.2 Emotional Intelligence in the Classroom

Fer (2004: 567) asserts that if the emotions of students "were to be consistently addressed and validated and their emotional needs met, they may tend to be much more cooperative and respectful in class. This is important since the young need both emotional and intellectual development." The aforementioned quotation indicates that fostering emotional intelligence during the classes will contribute to students' achieving an improved performance at school. A number of programs based on emotional intelligence have already been introduced. The pre-eminent organization focusing on emotional intelligence is Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) (Elias et al. 2006). Other popular examples of current EI intervention programs are: Improving Social Awareness – Social Problem-Solving Project, Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS), Resolving Conflicts Creatively Program, Yale – New Haven Social Competence Promotion Program and Oakland's Child Development Project (Zeidner et al. 2009). Despite the fact that the respective programs apply varied methods and techniques, all of them focus on developing life skills based on emotional intelligence competencies. Moreover, these programs can be easily implemented at schools and/or treated as an additional component of a traditional school curriculum (Brackett and Katulak 2007).

1.3 Qualitative Investigation of EI

Emotional intelligence has been investigated and analyzed mainly by means of a quantitative approach. Not many qualitative studies involving education have at-tempted to definitely explore it. Quantitative research is significant as it "is systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts" (Dörnyei 2007: 34), yet qualitative research, is extremely valued for the following reasons:

- It is exploratory in nature as new and uncharted areas beckon;
- Highly complex situations may be clarified as the researcher concentrates on aspects of the data which calls for special consideration;
- 'Why' questions are answered and the researcher may undertake the research in order to reach a fuller understanding of the collected data;
- It gives the opportunity of longitudinal research during which the occurred changes may be observed;
- Unexpected changes can be accommodated and taken advantage of; and
- Results achieved serve multiple audiences as valuable source of material for the research report (ibid.).

The qualitative approach is interpretive in nature and a researcher is able to deliver an in-depth account on a particular subject in question. Fer (2004) used a qualitative approach while examining EI and evaluating secondary school teachers who attended a 15-h-course entitled 'EQ Curriculum for Teachers.' The outcomes revealed that almost all the participants interviewed afterwards regarded the use of EI activities as being necessary not only for their classroom but also for their private lives. The researcher of this study also used the qualitative approach in examining emotional intelligence in which the way teachers and learners interact in the context of second language acquisition is of the greatest importance. Brown and Rodgers (2002), apart from case study research and introspection research, enumerate classroom research; interaction analysis. While experiencing classroom research 'interactions between teachers and learners or between learners and learners' are of the main focus (ibid.: 80). In the present study the teacher interactions with learners are not as analyses as the learner-to-learner interactions. Fifteen lessons were observed during which a set of activities based on emotional intelligence were applied. The primary objective of the author of this paper was to determine whether a program based on emotional intelligence implemented into the conversation classes contributed to the enhancement of students' emotional abilities as well as their communicative competencies. The researcher concentrated on the role of emotional literacy and the students' performance in terms of their communicative competence.

2 Method

Empirical research was undertaken in order to examine the possible outcomes of introducing the program during which the students could name, express, manage and recognize diverse types of emotions.

The aim of the study was to endeavor to examine the following questions:

RQ1: Does the training of emotional intelligence influence the students' ability to express themselves while talking about and describing emotions?
RQ2: Is the training based on emotional intelligence contributes to enhancing classroom communication?
RQ3: Do students value the notion of introducing aspects connected with emotional intelligence during the conversation classes?

In order to answer the first question concerning the influence of emotional intelligence on the students' ability to express themselves (RQ1), the longitudinal study was applied. The researcher strived for increasing students' emotional awareness, empathy, co-operation, the ability to manage their emotions, communicative competence, and the ability to resolve conflicts. Firstly, a program based on EI theory entitled 'The Training Developing Emotional Intelligence in SLA' was created and then implemented in the conversation classes as an additional part to the students' conversation classes at the Teacher Training College in Częstochowa. The study lasted for half a year (45-min session per week) during the students' second term of their first year of study. The second question (RQ2) focuses on examining the students' cooperation and classroom communication. It has been ascertained that emotional competence can to a great extent enhance functioning in interpersonal relations (Wosik-Kawala 2013). Finding the answer to this question was made possible by asking the students to provide feedback after each lesson as well as analyzing the material gathered after oral interviews at the end of the training. The third research question (RQ3) attempted to provide the researcher with the information related to the students' overall impression about the undertaken study. Similarly, the informants' feedback and oral interviews, in which they expressed their point of view and attitudes facilitated the process by which the researcher arrived at final conclusions (see Appendix 2).

The main objective of the research was to investigate the impact of activities based on emotional intelligence on the students' emotional and communicative competence. The assessment and evaluation provided by the students was the basis for drawing the final conclusion of the study.

2.1 Participants

The program was conducted in the second term of the students' first year of study from February 2013 until May 2013 (15 h in total). The group of informants

consisted of 30 first-year students from the Teacher Training College in Często-chowa: 22 females and 8 males, aged between 20 and 22 years old. Most of the students were on B2 level and intended to become English teachers. The researcher was the students' formal teacher having conversation classes once a week for 1.5 h. The program implemented was treated as an additional and obligatory part of their conversation classes during which they were given points in the form of pluses which could positively influence their final mark at the end of the term.

2.2   *Instruments*

The study applied three types of instruments: the program entitled 'The Training Developing Emotional Intelligence in SLA' as well as the students' regular feed-back in the form of a questionnaire and oral interviews. The first instrument was designed by the researcher of the study who created a program which focused on emotional competence. This program was divided into four parts. Each part was devoted to developing different abilities. The first four meetings focused on the activities in which the participants learned how to recognize their own and others' emotions. The activities conducted during the following 4 weeks were designed to enhance the participants' ability to understand complex feelings and situations related to different emotions. The third part involved the ability to solve problems and make decisions effectively. The final—fourth part of the training—put empha-sis on the ability to adjust the students' own and others' emotions. The program was based on the principles of the ability model (Mayer and Salovey 1997) divided into four skills: perception, understanding, assimilation, and regulation of emotions. Numerous publications were taken advantage of while preparing the activities (see Appendix 1). They were implemented into the conversation classes once a week (15 weeks in total), each session lasting 45 min. The first lesson was devoted to the general introduction of the training as well as a workshop on the concept of emotional intelligence. The last meeting, during which the summary and final remarks took place, closed the training.

The second instrument was a questionnaire which was given to the students on regular basis and in which they were asked to voice their opinions, points of view and feelings. The researcher concluded each meeting by taking notes of the feedback from the participants detailing their observations. The face-to-face, semi-structured interviews consisting of six questions (see Appendix 2) took place after the completion of the training. The interviews were conducted in English as the students had the requisite knowledge of English to do so and each interview took approximately 2 h.

2.3   Treatment

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of the study was to examine the value of incorporating the program based on emotional intelligence into the English conversation classes. Therefore, a longitudinal qualitative approach was applied. Dörnyei (2007) claims that longitudinal research involves gathering information connected with the objective of the research during certain points in time. The two main (and distinct) aims of such a research undertaking are "to describe patterns of change and to explain causal relationships" (ibid. p. 79).

The designed training was formulated on the basis of John Mayer's and Peter Salovey's (1997) ability model of emotional intelligence. In this model four dimensions of emotional intelligence are distinguished: identifying emotions, understanding and using them, as well as the ability to regulate and manage emotions. The researcher devoted three meeting to each ability.

The first part of the training focused on recognizing and identifying emotions, therefore the prepared activities required from the students mastering such abilities as: deciphering facial expressions with presented emotions, recognizing and identifying them on their classmates' facial expression, as well as showing and expressing them. The teacher, and the researcher at the same time, familiarized the students with the issue of emotions in broadly comprehended human interactions. Subsequently, the new vocabulary items related to expressing emotions were introduced and students put them into practice by imitating and recognizing them. During the first part of the training, the body language and its importance was broadly discussed. The main objective of this part of the training was to teach the students how to handle emotions and be aware of them, how to recognize and accept them, as well as how to perceive them by means of words and behaviour.

After having mastered the first dimension of emotional intelligence, the researcher proceeded to enhancing the students' ability to understand emotions. The following three meetings aimed at teaching the students labeling emotions and interpreting their meanings, understanding the relations among certain emotional transitions (e.g. transition from anger to satisfaction, or from anger to shame). During this stage, the students did not only identify the emotions they felt but they also learnt the reasons why the emotions had occurred. This emotional knowledge is fundamental in understanding and judging situations in which certain emotions occur and alter human behaviour and interaction. This part of the training enabled the students to investigate real life situations and amylase them utilizing their acquired knowledge of understanding emotions.

The subsequent stage in the training deals with using emotions. This ability of emotional intelligence requires harnessing emotions or the information provided by emotions, appropriate usage of emotions in making decisions, solving a problem or even producing something creative. During three meetings devoted to developing this ability, the teacher provided the students with various activities in which they were supposed to express appropriate emotions in communication. Additionally,

the students learnt negotiating styles and were putting them into practice while communicating successfully.

Finally, there is management or regulation of emotions enhanced during the last part of the training. This ability refers to managing one's own feelings and also the feelings of other people, being open to both positive and negative emotions, as well as being able to alter negative emotions into pleasant ones. During these meetings, the students learnt how to control and alter their emotions. Additionally, the teacher draws the student's attention to appropriate ways of controlling anger by providing them with some role-plays or real life situations which required the utilization of the ability of emotional intelligence which regulating emotions. Appendix 3 exemplifies two lesson plans utilized during the training.

The program was implemented in the second term of the students' first year of English and was 15 weeks in duration. The data was obtained through regular feedback in the form of a questionnaire as well as oral interviews with each participant at the end of the training. The researcher analyzed the gathered information with six main issues being scrutinized (see Appendix 2).

3   Data Presentation and Analysis

The data was obtained and analyzed after each lesson. The researcher has elected to focus on presenting the outcomes of the oral interviews due to the limited amount of words permitted in this article. The findings are presented below.

The first question concerned the usefulness and value of the conducted activities. Exemplary replies include the following:

> *(Q1: Do you consider the activities on emotional intelligence useful for you? Why yes/no? What influence have they had on you?)*
>
> *Student A: "All the activities had a very positive influence on me, I must say. They gave me the possibility to learn useful phrases and expressions connected with emotions. I think that it gave me an opportunity to integrate with my group."*
>
> *Student B: "Basically, it helped me to find out more about myself and emotions I experience."*
>
> *Student C: "Yes, mainly because I got to know myself better. It was interesting and somehow stimulated my inner creativity. It has also developed my language competence."*

Twenty-five out of 30 students stated that they enjoyed participating in the lessons. They found the activities useful as they were given the opportunity to expand the range of vocabulary connected with emotions, integrate with the group as well as getting to know themselves better. In most cases the students expressed their positive attitude towards the conducted exercises. However, five students deemed sharing emotions with other people inappropriate.

In the second question the participants' task was to opt for the kind of activity which they found appealing. The most popular choices were: 'Spider's Web' and 'New Image of Myself.' In the case of the activity called 'Spider's Web' the students' task was to talk about various emotions with the help of some wool.

There were balls of wool of different colours—each representing a different emotion (fear, anger, anxiety and embarrassment etc.). On a sizeable piece of paper (and with the use of some tape) the students created something similar to a spider's web. Seventeen out of thirty participants commented on the activity:

> *(Q2: Which of the conducted activities did you like the most? Why?)*
> Activity 1
> *Student A: "'Spider's Web' was a greatly entertaining activity which not only made me open in my group, but also facilitated the process of declaring my emotional states. It also encouraged me to empathize with other people."*
>
> *Student B: "I must admit that 'Spiders' Web' was a very interesting activity which motivated the group to cooperate, to talk about ourselves. What is more, it required concentration and involvement in what other people were saying."*

The second activity favoured by the participants was 'New Image of Myself.' Two blank sheets of paper were needed here. The students' first task was to create themselves as they perceived themselves at that time as in what kind of person they were then. With the second sheet of paper they also crafted themselves but as the person that they would like to be. After that, the presentation of the outcomes took place. Eleven students opted for this activity claiming that:

> Activity 2
> *Student C: "'New Image of Myself' made me look deeper inside myself. I reconsidered what kind of person I am and would like to be."*
>
> *Student D: "That's certainly beneficial for creative people."*
>
> *Student E: "A very creative activity which forces you to reflect upon the meaning of existence."*

The participants of this training held different ideas about this particular activity. In spite of the fact that 11 students considered it to be the most favorable one, during the lesson some of them voiced their displeasure in explaining that too much creativity was involved and that not enough speaking was utilized. It proves in this particular situation, that the students displayed multiple intelligences and that those students who expressed their unhappiness to perform the task were not likely to possess spatial ability related to visualization and spatial thinking (Nolen 2003) which was essential for creating a product out of a sheet of paper.

In the third question the students were asked whether it was easy for them to talk about their emotions. Generally, the students' answers can be divided into two groups: those who did not mind revealing their feelings and those who were disinclined to describe their state of mind, e.g.:

> *(Q3: Was it easy to talk about your feelings/emotions? Why yes/no?)*
> *Student A: "On the one hand it was easy to talk about my emotions; I was even too open at some point. It was surprising that some people were even moved to tears while talking about themselves. One the other hand, you have to trust people you talk to."*
>
> *Student B: "Yes, the whole class atmosphere was encouraging. I couldn't open at first but later it changed."*
>
> *Student C: "It was hard as I am an introvert. But I tried to share my emotions with others, I tried to find it in my heart to do this."*
>
> *Student D: "It wasn't easy at all as I do not enjoy talking about and describing my emotions."*

> *Student E: "It wasn't always easy, especially while dealing with negative emotions."*

As seen from the information, talking about emotions—whether positive or negative—was not always easy for the participants. They emphasized certain obstacles they encountered while describing their emotions, especially in the initial stage. Yet, positive comments emerged in due course.

In the fourth question the participants specified the activities which they did not take advantage of.

> *(Q4: Which of these activities do you consider the least effective? Why?)*

The responses varied and in many cases the students stated that certain activities required too much imagination and creative thinking, which they believed that they did not possess. Generally, the participants highlighted that all the conducted exercises were stimulating and thought-provoking while highlighting that it was hard to identify a particular one which they did not appreciate.

The fifth question the students were asked referred to the value of the vocabulary they had been introduced to during the training. The participants admitted that:

> *(Q5: In your opinion, will the new vocabulary connected with emotions enable you to express yourself more clearly in various situations?)*
>
> *Student A: "Yes, each new word enriched us and made our communication more productive."*
>
> *Student B: "To my mind, such vocabulary comes in handy on a regular basis and I hope some new words will stay in my mind for a longer period of time."*
>
> *Student C: "In a sense 'yes' as it gave me opportunity to better articulate what I feel/ think than using such simple words as 'happy' or 'unhappy'."*

The answers indicate that the participants enriched their vocabulary and found it useful to learn new words. The reason behind may be the fact that they were aspiring English teachers who valued the idea of familiarising themselves with new phrases. Additionally, they explained that acquiring new words would enable them to convey a specific message in a more precise way.

The final question concerned the students' opinion as to whether the conducted activities facilitated the process of integration/cooperation with the group. The exemplary answers were:

> *(Q6: Do you think, that due to these activities you were able to integrate with/get to know better the people in your group?)*
>
> *Student A: "…Yes, certainly the activity called "the Spider's web" as it particularly helped me in getting to know the other members' feelings, which in turn made bonds, stronger relations among the group, mutual understanding, trust."*
>
> *Student B: "Thanks to these activities I feel a bit better integrated with my group. Nevertheless, it is not easy to be frank in front of everyone."*
>
> *Student C: "…Yes, as we've become open, we don't feel ill-at-ease in our company. In this way we've learned tolerance and respect, I've learned more about my friends."*
>
> *Student D: "When you know more about somebody, it helps you understand the other person better. I learned about my classmates' good and bad moments from their past, about their desires, dreams—about something I would never find out while talking to them in the corridor."*

The researcher was not surprised by receiving such positive feedback from the students as it is submitted that sharing one's emotions as well as sharing matters of a personal nature foster closed relations between people. Through applied activities, the participants felt motivated and encouraged. Consequently, they completed the tasks with enthusiasm as they felt cared for and understood.

4   Main Findings

The primary trust of the research was to examine whether emotional intelligence training contributed to the improvement of the participants' emotional competence by applying the qualitative method. The findings revealed that providing the students with the program based on emotional intelligence enabled them to significantly develop emotional competencies such as better cooperation with the classmates, empathy, identification of various emotions and interpersonal interaction. The program structure worked well for most of the students offering them the opportunity to broaden their awareness of the existence and nature of emotional intelligence. Also, some students' ability to talk about their emotions was improved. It provided them with the opportunity to integrate with their friends, learn emotional vocabulary and gain additional important information about themselves and other people.

The study indicates that introducing such a program either into the school subjects or school curriculum will help students learn emotional vocabulary and feel cared for rather than controlled. During the training the researcher was able to identify the feelings and fears of the students and consequently seek to cater for their as yet unfulfilled emotional needs. The qualitative data allowed the researcher to conclude that the students greatly benefited from such training as it created an extraordinary opportunity for enhancing the skills required on a daily basis.

According to the students' responses, the training of emotional intelligence influenced their abilities to express themselves while talking about and describing emotions. At the start of the program, most of the participants were reluctant to engage and seemingly waited for others to initiate the conversation. After having gained more confidence, they found the whole process of articulating their emotions stimulating and engaging. As indicated earlier, the participants of the training started paying attention to emotions and became aware of certain feelings which had been neglected by them previously. Thus, classroom communication and interaction changed positively as the students forged bonds with each other which in turn gave rise to an overwhelmingly positive classroom atmosphere. In addition, the students' positive attitude and approach towards the training turned out to be surprisingly encouraging as they took pleasure in it.

5   Implications for the EFL Classroom

Teachers and educators of foreign languages ought to be reminded that emotional and intellectual aspects during lessons are important. They should create a diversity of learning programs in order to provide a successful learning environment so as to assist students to realize their full potential. Nowadays, numerous educators observe situations in which learners are unable to handle their emotions, resolve conflicts in a peaceful way or display empathy towards each other (Dyrda 2004). Reflecting upon EI will greatly transform contemporary education. Fortunately, a specific focus on EI has been the favorable consequence of a considerable number of schools initiating programs focused on students' emotions. After all, as Goleman asserts, "Developing students' emotional competencies would result in a 'caring community,' a place where students feel respected, cared about and developed close ties with their classmates" (Goleman 1995: 280).

Appendix 1. Sources of Activities

Cunningham, G. and Bell, J .2005. face2face. Advanced Student's Book. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dyrda, B. 2004. Rozwijanie twórczości i inteligencji emocjonalnej dzieci i młodzieży. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza "Impuls."

Ekman, P. 2012. Emocje ujawnione. Gliwice: Helion.

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Ravell, J and Norman, S. 1997. In Your Hands. NLP in ELT. Saffire Press

Schilling, D. 2009. Jak wykształcić inteligencję emocjonalną. 50 pomysłów ćwiczeń – poziom podstawowy.

Schilling, D. 2009. Jak wykształcić inteligencję emocjonalną. 50 pomysłów ćwiczeń – poziom ponadpodstawowy.

Wosik-Kawala, D. 2013. Rozwijanie kompetencji emocjonalnych uczniów szkół ponadgimnazjalnych. Lublin: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej.

Emotional Intelligence Activities for teens ages 13-18: http://ong.ohio.gov/frg/FRGresources/emotional_intellegence_13-18.pdf

http://www.DO2Learn.com

http://www.mtstcil.org/skills/assert-8.html

http://www.pinterest.com/studycoach/emotions-emotional-control/

Additionally, there are activities created by the researcher of the study.

Appendix 2. Interview Questions

1. Do you consider the activities on emotional intelligence useful for you? Why yes/no? What influence have they had on you?
2. Which of the conducted activities did you like the most? Why?
3. Was it easy to talk about your feelings/emotions? Why yes/no?
4. Which of these activities do you consider the least effective? Why?
5. In your opinion, will the new vocabulary connected with emotions enable you to express yourself more clearly in various situations?
6. Do you think, that thanks to these activities you were able to integrate with/get to know better the people from your group?

Appendix 3. Sample Lesson Plans

Lesson Plan 1
Topic: Understanding emotions.
Timing: 45 min
Level: upper-intermediate and higher
Number of students: 18

Aims:
– Labeling emotions and interpreting heir meanings
– Understanding the relations among certain emotional transitions

Objectives:
– Students learn how to identify the emotions they feel and the reasons why the emotions have occurred
– Students practise how to investigate real life situations and amylase them utilizing their acquired knowledge of understanding emotions.

Introduction (5 min)
   The teacher discusses the issue of understanding emotions.
   Activity 1 (25 min)
   Students sit in a circle on the floor and their task is to talk about their emotions using balls of wool of a different colour. Each ball represents different emotion. Students describe the situations in which they have felt: angry, annoyed, anxious, proud, excited, embarrassed, miserable, and so on—depending on how many balls of different colour there are. On a huge piece of paper and with the usage of some tape they create something similar to a spider's net. They do that by sticking the end of the wool on the piece of paper and throwing it to another student. The last person cuts the end of the wool off. And another emotion is discussed and studied.
   Activity 2 (10 min)

The teacher gives the students a few situations. Their task is to think about the reasons for each of them. Then they think whether they would react in any of the situations and how would they react.

Situation 1: A young man runs into the zebra crossing without watching around.
Situation 2: A mother smacks a child.
Situation 3: A woman punches her colleague from work.
Situation 4: A child is walking down the street and is crying.

Students work in pairs and make dialogues to each of the situations.
Conclusion and final remarks (5 min).

References:
Workshop on: Inteligencja emocjonalna – jak rozwijać emocjonalność uczniów. Kraków, 08.012.2012.
http://www.pinterest.com/adventurousSC/counseling-empathy/.

Lesson Plan 2
Topic: Managing emotions.
Timing: 45 min
Level: upper-intermediate and higher
Number of students: 15

Aims:
– Managing and regulating emotions
– Altering negative emotions into pleasant ones

Objectives:
– Students learn new how to control and alter their emotions on the basis on various situations
– Students learn how to control anger by means of some role-plays or real life situations
– Students realize the consequences of bad emotions

Introduction (5 min)
The teacher introduces the students to the topic and purpose of the lesson. There is a short discussion during which students express their opinions on expressing and recognizing emotions.
Activity 1 (8 min)
Teacher asks students to describe a situation that they were in a really nasty mood. What caused their mood? How long did it last? What were the consequences? The teacher asks them to put up their hands if they treated their friends/family member badly because of their bad mood. Students read the Situation and state how the problem began, which emotions were present and what the end of the story was.
Situation

Renata was ready to go out but she couldn't find her books and nobody at home was able to help her. She had prepared two assignments for that day and both of them were in those books. She started to get nervous. She found them in her younger sister's hiding place after about half an hour of searching for them. When she asked her sister what it meant, she admitted that she had hidden them on purpose. Despite the fact that the books were found, Renata was furious at her sister for a long time. She went out very late and in a really nasty mood. When she entered the classroom, her best friend, Kate, said: "Hi. What has happened? You look upset." Then Renata snapped at her: "Leave me alone. I don't feel like talking to you."

Discussion questions:

(a) What was Renata's real problem?
(b) What were the first emotions, which she felt while dealing with the problem?
(c) What other emotions were present?
(d) What did Kate do that Renata behaved in such a way towards her?
(e) Why did Renata snap at Kate?

The teacher asks students why we should control emotions and encourages them to make up a list of other helpful ideas. The whole class create a list of "Strategies for managing mood."

Activity 2 (12 min)

The teacher explains that each person needs some time to overcome bad emotions. If they let them free, they will influence their actions. Then the teacher asks the students to brainstorm some ways that are used to deal with anger. They include both good and bad methods.

Ways to deal with anger	
GOOD METHODS	BAD METHODS
•_____	•_____
•_____	•_____
•_____	•_____
•_____	•_____
•_____	•_____
•_____	•_____
•_____	•_____

The teaches discusses the ways of dealing with stress with the whole class adding a few ideas to each list. Then, there is a discussion about the possible reasons for students' behaviour and ways of substituting bad methods with the good ones. Students are asked to describe a situation that they were in a really nasty mood. What caused their mood? How long did it last? What were the consequences? Discussion.

Activity 3 (15 min)

The teacher asks students about the difference between a discussion and an argument. They listen to a psychologist giving some tips to help people when they

disagree with somebody bout something. While listening students tick the six things the psychologist says.

1. Think carefully what you say when you begin a discussion.
2. Try to 'win' the argument as quickly as you can.
3. Say sorry if something really is your fault.
4. Never avoid an argument by refusing to talk.
5. Don't say things which aren't completely true.
6. Don't shout.
7. Don't talk about things which aren't relevant to the argument.
8. Use another person to mediate.
9. Postpone the argument until later when you have both calmed down.
10. It's a bad thing for a couple to argue.

After giving the answers, students add more detail to the tips they ticked.

Then students listen to a few different conversations in which people argue and are aggressive. Students' task is to make almost the same conversation, however, ending the conversation in such a way that they clam a very angry person down using appropriate ways of dealing with anger.

Conclusion and final remarks (5 min).

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Part III
Complementary Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Studying Second Language Acquisition

Some Advantages of Qualitative Methods in Multilingualism Research

Teresa Maria Włosowicz

1 Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to point out some limitations of quantitative methods and some advantages of qualitative ones in multilingualism research. An attempt will be made to show how qualitative methods can counterbalance at least some of these limitations (hence, rather than promoting purely quantitative or purely qualitative methods, it will be argued here in favour of mixed methods) as well as to present some of the versatile applications of qualitative methods.

The paper is based on the present author's as well as on other researchers' studies, and it is argued here that qualitative and mixed methods are particularly relevant to multilingualism, given its complex and dynamic nature. In particular, quantitative methods cannot account sufficiently well for the diversity of data and can only show the general tendencies, such as the dominant direction of transfer and/or interference, rather than transfer strategies and interlingual associations specific to a given learner and his or her multilingual language system.

2 The Complex and Dynamic Nature of Multilingualism

In general, the complexity of multilingual systems does not yield itself easily to quantification. Given the possible changes in multilingual competence over time, classifying a group of learners as having a particular language combination (say, L1 — Polish, L2 — English, L3 — French) is a necessary simplification — if not oversimplification — if we want to investigate, for example, the influence of L2 English on L3 French.

T.M. Włosowicz (✉)
Polonia University, Częstochowa, Poland
e-mail: teresamaria@poczta.onet.pl

According to the wholistic view of bilingualism (Grosjean 1985: 467), a bilingual is not the sum of two monolinguals, but 'he or she has a unique and a specific linguistic configuration'. Similarly, 'a multilingual is neither the sum of three or more monolinguals, nor a bilingual with an additional language' (De Angelis and Selinker 2001: 45). Rather, he or she 'is a speaker of three or more languages with unique linguistic configurations, often depending on individual history' (De Angelis and Selinker 2001: 45).

In fact, multilinguals' individual learning histories can be highly complex and idiosyncratic. As Cenoz (2000: 40–41) points out, L3 acquisition can involve four possible orders: L1→L2→L3, Lx/Ly→L3, L1→Lx/Ly, and Lx/Ly/Lz, while L4 acquisition allows as many as eight possible orders. Since languages acquired in parallel cannot be reliably marked L1, L2, etc., Cenoz (2000) uses the symbols Lx, Ly, etc. Although researchers, including Cenoz (2000: 40), assume such languages to be acquired at the same time, it might be argued that they cannot be treated as fully 'equal'. For example, the learner may not reach the same level of proficiency in each of them due to differences in input. Still, the term 'input' does not refer here to purely grammatical input, but also to the type of data processed in each language, which is linked to lexical and conceptual knowledge. As early as 1965, Fishman postulated that multilinguals' language use was divided into particular domains, for example, Flemish at home, Dutch at the club and French at work, and students from some regions may also have such domain-specific language repertoires. Moreover, immigrant children may have L1 proficiency (assuming that their native language is chronologically the first, if they begin acquiring it in the family context and only start learning the country's language at kindergarten) restricted to everyday conversations within the family, whereas all their academic skills are predominantly, if not only, acquired in the language used at school (L2). An important consequence of this confinement of immigrant children's L1 to everyday contexts is the discrepancy between their BICS ('basic interpersonal communicative skills') and CALP ('cognitive academic language proficiency', Cummins 2000: 55). On the one hand, as Cummins (2000: 63–64) points out, despite a rapid acquisition of conversational skills, immigrant students take much longer mastering the academic aspects of the target language. However, as the present author's research shows (Wlosowicz 2008/2009), minority language speakers can also have insufficient CALP in their L1, rather than L2, if they have been schooled entirely or mostly in the L2. This was especially visible in the case of Portuguese L1 speakers raised and schooled in France or in Luxembourg. Despite their Portuguese identity, they hesitated between Portuguese and French as their L1, and five of them decided to translate into French when translation into L1 was supposed to reveal their comprehension of L3 (Wlosowicz 2008/2009: 499–501).

The same study (Wlosowicz 2008/2009: 501) indicated that such minority languages as Alsatian facilitated some subjects' acquisition of German, which the subjects not only admitted in the questionnaire, but, as their comments in the think-aloud protocols show, they sometimes actively used Alsatian as a source of transfer. This begs the question of how to treat minority language speakers in multilingualism research, taking into account the possibility of, for instance, L1 Alsatian

transfer into German. Should they be eliminated from the study altogether if the amount of positive transfer from Alsatian influences the statistical difference between French and, for instance, Polish students of German? However, as this might reduce the number of subjects eligible to participate in such a study (as in the present author's study carried out at the University of Strasbourg), one should strike a balance between the required number of subjects and the language backgrounds of the available participants.

At the same time, once languages are acquired, they do not necessarily remain at the same level of proficiency, which is due to changing linguistic needs and the interaction between languages. As Herdina and Jessner's (2002: 89) Dynamic Model of Multilingualism shows, multilingual systems have the following six characteristics: non-linearity, reversibility, stability, interdependence, complexity and change of quality. Language acquisition is thus not only non-linear, but characterized by periods of accelerated growth and retardation (Herdina and Jessner 2002: 109–110), and it can also be reversed: if a language is not used, attrition sets in, that is why maintaining each language at a particular level requires effort. Moreover, it must be stressed that multilingual systems are qualitatively different from monolingual ones. In particular, the languages are not autonomous, but interdependent, and their interaction influences the stability of the system as a whole (Herdina and Jessner 2002: 92). Since they are subject to cross-linguistic interaction (CLIN, an umbrella term for transfer, interference, borrowing, etc., Herdina and Jessner 2002: 28–29), competence in each language, including L1 (Cook 1996) differs from that of a corresponding monolingual.

In other words, with changing linguistic needs and language use, one's competence in all the languages is restructured, resulting in multicompetence (Cook 1992), and the order of languages in terms of proficiency can differ from the chronological acquisition order. For this reason, Hufeisen (1998, 2000) has proposed double coding, with numbers representing the chronological order, and letters representing the levels of proficiency, e.g. GL1 EL2a FL3c LL4d SL5b IslL6d (Hufeisen 1998: 170). However, this can be difficult to explain to the participants, so sometimes it is more practical to ask them in which foreign language they feel most at ease (L2), etc. Moreover, language dominance can change within one's lifetime, depending on the environment (Elwert 1973, in Hoffmann 2001) and some subjects who have grown up bilingually even have difficulty determining their L1 (Wlosowicz 2008/2009), or even indicate two L1s (Müller-Lancé 1999).

An alternative view has been proposed by Williams and Hammarberg (1998: 301), according to whom a person may have more than one L2, defined as a previously learned foreign language, and more than one L3, or a language one is learning now. Hammarberg (2010: 99–101) justifies this position by dividing languages into primary, secondary and tertiary languages. 'Rather than associating to a language-by-language chronology, this terminology expresses a cognitive hierarchy between the languages for the user-learner' (Hammarberg 2010: 99). Thus, a primary language is acquired in infancy, a secondary one is acquired after infancy, while a tertiary one is learned when at least one secondary language is

known to the person (Hammarberg 2010: 101). However, appealing as this classi-
fication may be from the theoretical point of view, one might wonder how to apply
it to a particular study which required the precise encoding of responses and transfer
sources.

Still, also in short-term studies analysing particular phenomena, the dynamic
nature of multilingual systems can complicate the analysis. In fact, cross-linguistic
interaction is dynamic and unpredictable (especially interference, because transfer
is more regular, Grosjean 2012; Herdina and Jessner 2002) and its source is often
difficult to establish. Cross-linguistic influence is often bidirectional (Herdina and
Jessner 2002; Pavlenko and Jarvis 2000) or even multidirectional (Wlosowicz
2012, and in press) and some errors are due to 'doubly supported interference'
('doppelgestützte Interferenz', Näf and Pfander 2001: 5), e.g. from both L1 and L2
into L3. Consequently, the subjects' performance can be very heterogeneous and
some error sources can only be established by means of 'plausible reconstruction'
or 'plausible interpretation' (Corder 1972: 42, in Heine 2004: 85).

Finally, apart from English, which is the world language, the choices of other
languages to study are often quite varied, so a seemingly homogeneous group,
studying e.g. English as L2 and French as L3, may have a variety of other languages
in their repertoires. As De Angelis (2007: 34 and 126–127) points out on the basis
of a body of research, such languages should not be neglected, as subjects with even
a minimal knowledge of a foreign language cannot be classified as monolingual.
Arguably, such a minimal knowledge of further languages (L4, L5, etc.) is quite
frequent in multilinguals. According to Aronin and Ó Laoire (2001), one of the
main attributes of multilingual systems is self-extension: the more multilinguals
know, the more they want to expand their knowledge and skills, and this also refers
to the motivation to learn further languages.

In summary, as Van Gelderen et al. (2003: 23) observe, groups of L3 learners are
generally more heterogeneous than the research design would require. This is also
one more reason why it is difficult to find a sufficiently large sample for a
quantitative study (see Sect. 3). It can be supposed that the heterogeneity of L3
learner groups influences the results and the differences in performance between
subjects may render the results — such as the differences between groups — not
significant. It is therefore vital to supplement studies on multilingualism with as
many details of the subjects' language backgrounds as possible. Even though it is
not possible to include personal narratives in every study, one should at least use a
questionnaire asking the subjects explicitly about their language acquisition orders
and contexts, as well as the interference they observe in their own language use (see
also Sect. 4).

3 Quantitative Versus Qualitative Methods

By and large, quantitative methods are regarded as more objective, systematic, rigorous and tightly controlled (Dörnyei 2007: 34). For example, according to Jarvis (2000: 253; 267–278), methodological rigour in the study of L1 transfer requires statistically significant effects of 'intra-L1-group homogeneity in learners' IL performance', 'inter-L1-group heterogeneity in learners' IL performance' and 'intra-L1-group congruity between learners' L1 and IL performance'. In other words, there must be statistically significant differences in IL performance between groups of learners possessing different L1s, and statistically significant correlations between the performance of speakers of the same L1. Only then, according to Jarvis (2000: 266), can the learners' L2 interlanguage performance be attributable to L1 transfer, rather than to other factors, such as lexical preferences related to culture and the educational background.

Still, this is an idealization, especially in the case of third or additional language acquisition (De Angelis's (2007) term), due to a variety of factors, such as different language biographies and needs, different learning strategies, etc. In fact, while L3 learner groups are quite heterogeneous by nature (Van Gelderen et al. 2003, see Sect. 2 above), even in the case of L2 acquisition there is considerable heterogeneity. As Odlin (1989: 42, in Jarvis 2000: 251) admits, given 'the complex nature of languages spoken by complex individuals, L1 influence is most likely to occur in the form of general tendencies and probabilities', rather than invariant patterns. Indeed, language learning processes are influenced by individual differences, such as language aptitude and motivation (Dörnyei and Skehan 2003: 589), as well as cognitive and learning styles (Dörnyei and Skehan 2003: 601). Since learning a foreign language constitutes a long and fairly laborious process, learners must maintain a sufficient level of motivation, which, in the case of multilinguals, relates to motivation for studying every single language. Therefore, as has been argued elsewhere (Wlosowicz 2013a), motivation is a particularly important factor in third or additional language acquisition, as it influences the level of proficiency attained in each language.

Thus, despite their rigour, quantitative methods have their limitations. As Dörnyei (2007: 37) observes,

> [s]imilar scores can result from quite different underlying processes, and quantitative methods are generally not very sensitive in uncovering the reasons for particular observations or the dynamics underlying the examined situation or phenomenon.

For this reason, some qualitative researchers regard quantitative research as 'overly simplistic, decontextualized, reductionist in terms of its generalizations, and failing to capture the meanings that actors attach to their lives and circumstances' (Brannen 2005: 7, in Dörnyei 2007: 35).

At the same time, in order to yield themselves to quantitative analysis, the data have to be either purely quantitative (reaction times, numbers of errors, etc.) or numerically encoded (e.g. using a Likert scale or attributing codes to responses). However, as will be argued in more detail in Sect. 4, such numerical encoding can

be quite subjective, which runs counter to the assumption that quantitative studies are by definition more objective than qualitative ones. The use of Likert scales involves letting the participants themselves rate such things as their motivation, the difficulty of a task, or the extent to which they agree with a given statement. On the other hand, rating the correctness of responses is based on the researcher's linguistic competence, which, as bi- and multilingual competence in general, is dynamic and subject to variation (Herdina and Jessner 2002).

Moreover, the samples should be relatively large. On the basis of research literature, Dörnyei (2007: 99–100) gives the following rough estimates: at least 30 participants in correlational research, at least 15 participants in each group in the case of comparative and experimental procedures, and at least 100 participants in 'factor analytic and other multivariate procedures' (Dörnyei 2007: 100). As will be shown later, it is very difficult to find such numerous groups of multilingual learners or speakers, especially if they are required to have identical language combinations, in terms of the 'set' of languages, the order of acquisition, as well as the level of competence attained in each language.

On the other hand, qualitative research is more sensitive to individual variation, it is exploratory in nature and 'has traditionally been seen as an effective way of exploring new, uncharted areas' (Dörnyei 2007: 39). In a sense, all data may be regarded as qualitative 'because they refer to "essences of people, objects and situations"' (Miles and Huberman 1994: 9, in Dörnyei 2007: 25). Qualitative methods also make it possible to make sense of highly complex situations, where simplified interpretations would 'distort the bigger picture' (Dörnyei 2007: 39). They broaden our understanding, answer 'why' questions (Dörnyei 2007: 40), provide rich material, allow 'longitudinal examination of dynamic phenomena' (Dörnyei 2007: 40) and make possible greater flexibility when unexpected results distort the original plan. As Dörnyei (2007: 40) puts it,

> [i]f we use a purely quantitative research design, some of the unexpected events can render our study meaningless, whereas qualitative methods not only allow us to accommodate the changes but can also enable us to capitalize on them and produce exciting results.

However, qualitative methods have their weaknesses as well. First, the sample size is relatively small and there is a risk of focusing on 'telling' cases which, in spite of providing insights into the phenomenon, may not be generalizable (Duff 2006, in Dörnyei 2007: 41). Second, the researcher's role requires great objectivity, as in some cases the results may be influenced by his or her personal bias. Third, quantitative researchers regard qualitative research as lacking methodological rigour. However, as Dörnyei (2007: 42) remarks, 'the past two decades have seen a marked shift towards applying rigorous procedures in QUAL studies'. Fourth, qualitative researchers run the risk of constructing too narrow theories (based on few individual cases) or too complex ones (based on rich data). Finally, qualitative research is time-consuming, which partly explains the use of small samples (Dörnyei 2007: 42).

Consequently, a good solution is the use of mixed methods, which increase the strengths and eliminate the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative

methods. Mixed methods also improve research validity, they allow a 'multi-level analysis of complex issues' by 'converging numeric trends from quantitative data and specific details from qualitative data' (Dörnyei 2007: 45) and they can reach multiple audiences (Dörnyei 2007: 46).

4 Some Advantages of Qualitative (and Mixed) Methods in Multilingualism Research

First of all, a study which involves the qualitative analysis of particular interference errors, as well as the participants' reasoning revealed, for instance, by TAPs (think-aloud protocols) or interviews, can shed more light on language processing by subjects with different language combinations (Wlosowicz 2008/2009), as statistical tests comparing groups (e.g. comprehension errors in such language combinations as Polish-French-English, Polish-German-English, French-German-English, German-French-English, etc.) can only show general tendencies, but not necessarily the influence of the different languages on L3 comprehension. For example, Polish, German and French learners of English as L3 may make similar numbers of different errors, or all the groups may make the same errors frequently, as in the case of such false friends as 'aktualnie', 'actuellement' and 'aktuell' versus 'actually', but statistically there may be no significant difference between the three L1 groups. Thus, in that study, some words which did produce interesting results in terms of the subjects' comprehension errors (e.g. 'overhauled' was often confused with 'überholen' (to overtake), 'antics' was often confused with 'antiques', etc.) did not produce statistically significant differences because all the groups made comparable numbers of errors. Therefore, it is useful to give a lot of examples, including passages from TAPs, to illustrate the subjects' reasoning and the causes of particular errors, also with the subjects' own comments.

Actually, some errors reflecting interesting phenomena (such as interference from a less well-known language, e.g. from L4 into L3, Wlosowicz 2008/2009, 2011) are too rare to produce statistically significant results, which does not mean that they should be ignored. For example, in Wlosowicz's (2008/2009: 619) study, several subjects interpreted the Portuguese collocation 'um bago de arroz' (a grain of rice) as 'a bag of rice', even though English was their L4 or even L5. Similarly, in the present author's study (Wlosowicz 2011: 81), a subject whose L4 was French (after L1 Polish, L2 English and L3 German) repeatedly used the French word 'crêpes' instead of 'pancakes' in English, until she was asked whether she spoke French too, which made her aware of the interference.

In fact, in their study on bidirectional transfer, Pavlenko and Jarvis (2000: 204) give numbers of instances of transfer from L2 (English) into L1 (Russian) as well as in the opposite direction, discussing in detail their categories (lexical borrowing, semantic extension, loan translation, etc.), but they do not use a statistical test such as ANOVA. Indeed, such instances are rather infrequent, it is thus possible that a

statistical test would have yielded insignificant results, which might have led to the misleading conclusion that bidirectional transfer was negligible. However, on the basis of the instances observed, Pavlenko and Jarvis (2000: 208) conclude that the 'participants' production in both languages is subject to L1 and L2 influence.'

However, if unusual instances of CLIN are indeed rare, this must be indicated (e.g. that one subject mixes all his or her foreign languages (Herwig 2001), or that he or she creates elaborate contexts to justify erroneous interpretations, Wlosowicz 2008/2009), in order not to mislead the readers into believing that such effects are common. Otherwise we might fall victim to one of the risks of qualitative methods enumerated by Dörnyei (2007): that of concentrating too much on 'telling' cases. For example, one student interpreted 'se curer les dents' (to pick one's teeth) as 'to grit one's teeth' (Wlosowicz 2008/2009: 646) and explained that the caretaker had probably gritted his teeth in fear of being dismissed, as the introduction of e-mail in the company would make him useless as the person who distributed post. Still, she was the only one to propose such an explanation, as most of the others thought he had cured his teeth or spent his time at the dentist's.

At the same time, if statistical analysis is not advisable because, for example, the number of subjects is too small for the results to be statistically significant, the results may be presented in the form of percentages. Such a way of quantifying the results might be unpopular with partisans of applying statistical methods to all studies, yet it does show what kinds of errors (Wlosowicz 2012), what categories of lexical associations (Gabryś-Barker 2005), etc. have been the most frequently observed and, as in the case of the instances counted by Pavlenko and Jarvis (2000), it can reflect some tendencies in the subjects' performance and/or language organization. However, such categories should be precisely defined and illustrated with examples. For example, by means of a detailed categorization and description of lexical associations and the percentages of various categories, Gabryś-Barker (2005) has been able to present the structure and functioning of the multilingual mental lexicon.

Secondly, while purely quantitative data (e.g. reaction times) can be objectively measured, numerical encoding in the case of non-parametric data is also subjective to some extent. For example, a Likert scale which requires responses from the subjects should be complemented with some more objective test, e.g. a grammar or vocabulary test, a translation task, etc., as the subjects may be too subjective in evaluating their own competence and/or performance (for example, in spite of numerous errors, they may regard the task as easy, or overestimate their own competence and attribute all difficulties to 'errors' in the task design, Wlosowicz 2013b). Similarly, attributing points to answers (e.g. 0—incorrect, 1—partly correct, 2—correct) is also quite subjective because it is related to the researcher's feel for the language and it is possible that another researcher would rate the responses differently. The results may therefore not necessarily be fully objective either. One might possibly perform a more fine-grained analysis, encoding the answers on a scale of correctness, say, from zero to ten, but again there is no guarantee that the results would be objective. After all, should the French translation of the German word 'verblüffend' (astonishing, amazing) as 'épatant' be attributed nine points and

'effarant' eight points, or perhaps the other way round (cf. Wlosowicz 2008/2009: 596)? The correspondence between lexical equivalents is not always one to one, and the possession of several equivalents has been shown by Kroll and Tokowicz (2001) to influence reaction times. This begs the question of whether it would be necessary to establish a hierarchy of equivalents based on reaction times, but what should be done if a subject produced still another response, say, 'stupéfiant'?

Therefore, they should be illustrated with examples and discussed in detail. In fact, it is often such examples that reveal more about the processing of multiple languages (e.g. association chains in meaning inference revealed by TAPs) than numerically encoded responses. While a quantitative analysis may reveal which responses are the most frequent, determining the ways in which subjects arrive at them requires a qualitative analysis as well. As the following examples from Wlosowicz's (2008/2009) study show, inferring the meaning of the same word (here: Mappe—folder, briefcase) can take different paths (redundant repetitions have been removed):

> Example 1 (Polish L1—English L2—German L3)
>   hm nie wiem za bardzo co to jest Mappe... (...) gdzie można mieć notatnik... no chyba tylko w kieszeni... w torebce ... hm niech będzie w kieszeni
>   (hm I don't really know what Mappe is... (...) where can one have a notebook... I guess only in the pocket ... in the handbag... hm let it be in the pocket)
>   Example 2 (Polish L1—English L2—German L3)
>   Mappe nie wiem co to jest Mappe... to może być jakaś taka torba... sportowa... ale nie wiem co to jest... w swojej... torbie
>   (Mappe I don't know what Mappe is... it may be such a bag... a sports bag ... but I don't know what it is... in her... bag).

Similarly, a lot of individual processing phenomena related to language organization can be revealed by lexical associations. Although they can be categorized (as paradigmatic, syntagmatic, etc. associations) and counted, it is examples that best reveal the actual intra- and interlingual links, including the cultural and even personal aspects of words (Gabryś-Barker 2005).

Thirdly, qualitative research, such as TAPs, provides a lot of material which can be analysed from various angles. For instance, the present author's study on L3 comprehension (Wlosowicz 2008/2009) has revealed not only different comprehension phenomena (especially CLIN in comprehension), but also other aspects of the process, such as task motivation (Wlosowicz 2013b) and interference at the grammatical level (Wlosowicz 2012). By contrast, quantitative studies on comprehension mostly focus on reaction times, which only reveal the strengths of connections between the words of different languages, but they require the use of single words (cognates, equivalents) and fail to reveal the processing of words in context, especially those which have no equivalents and need paraphrasing, which involves the activation of several lexical entries and the associated concepts. Moreover, as Paradis (2006) has argued, given the special status of words in the language system, single-word experiments are an insufficient tool for researching multilingual language organization. Thus, one corpus of qualitative data, laborious as its preparation may be, can be used in several studies, for example, on transfer at the lexical

and/or the grammatical levels, communication strategies, task motivation, problem solving, etc.

Finally, an important, though also a time-consuming tool in multilingualism research is the collection of narratives on learners' language biographies. According to Todeva and Cenoz (2009a, b: 2), 'personal learning accounts align well with more recent approaches to language development such as complexity and dynamic systems theory and various sociocultural and ecological approaches.' As Todeva and Cenoz (2009a, b: 12–13) emphasize,

> [t]his alignment comes from the fact that narratives offer a holistic, qualitative type of inquiry, which moves us away from more traditional subject manipulation and focuses instead on learners in their natural environments, with all their complexities and connectivities.

Indeed, the determination of learning trajectories and outcomes by numerous interacting factors corroborates Complexity Theory's claim that in language acquisition the cause-effect relationship is non-linear and the strength of an effect can differ from that of the cause (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008: 143, in Todeva and Cenoz 2009a, b: 4). This indicates that qualitative data may actually be more natural and reliable than quantitative data, which may be more or less manipulated by the research design.

Indeed, not only does narrative analysis shed light on individual learner differences, such as motivation or language learning strategies, but it also offers a broader view of the learning process in its social and cultural context, which can have practical implications for foreign language teaching (Bell 2002; Gabryś-Barker 2014; Gabryś-Barker and Otwinowska 2012; Pavlenko 2002, 2007). According to Bell (2002), unlike research which focuses on outcomes and ignores learners' experience, the narrative approach reveals the impact of personal experience on the learning effort, as well as information that people may not consciously know and 'the temporal notion of experience' (Bell 2002: 209), that is, 'important intervening stages' (Bell 2002: 210), rather than language performance at the moment of carrying out a particular study. The dynamic nature of language learning as revealed by narratives is also emphasized by Pavlenko (2002: 214), who observes that 'researchers can gain rare insights into learners' motivations, investments, struggles, losses and gains as well as into language ideologies that guide their learning trajectories.'

However, narratives are not purely individual, as they are shaped by 'social, cultural and historical conventions as well as by the relationship between the storyteller and the interlocutor' (Pavlenko 2002: 214), who may not necessarily be a researcher, but also a friend, an imaginary reader, etc. They can therefore reflect the cultural conventions of telling about one's experience, which may need to be taken into consideration by teachers working with foreigners, immigrant children, etc. (Pavlenko 2002, 2007). At the same time, bi- and multilinguals' narratives shed light on the manipulation of linguistic resources, including code-switching and borrowing, loan translation, language play and semantic and conceptual transfer (Pavlenko 2007: 180).

Moreover, in the context of third or additional language acquisition, learners' narratives show the activation of the particular languages as a function of proficiency and use, the role of translation and thinking in a foreign language, metalinguistic awareness, as well as affectivity and even such personal phenomena as dreaming in a foreign language (Gabryś-Barker 2014). Gabryś-Barker's (2014) study also has clear implications for foreign language teaching: in order to facilitate thinking in the foreign language (FL) and boost positive affectivity, the use of L1 in both instruction and off-task communication should be minimized and replaced by the target FL (Gabryś-Barker 2014: 202).

Finally, the analysis of the narratives of Polish (L1) learners of English (L2) and French (L3) has allowed Gabryś-Barker and Otwinowska (2012) to prove Cummins' (2000) Threshold Hypothesis, as applied to multilingual learners by Lasagabaster (1998, in Gabryś-Barker and Otwinowska 2012: 381). In particular, their study shows that, in order to benefit from their multilingualism, learners have to pass '*the metacognitive threshold to being experienced learners*' (Gabryś-Barker and Otwinowska 2012: 379, their emphasis), which involves the use of strategies, searching for particular information in texts, '*noticing cross-linguistic influence between L2 and L3*' (Gabryś-Barker and Otwinowska 2012: 380, their emphasis), as well as the ability to apply L2 and L3 knowledge to facilitate the learning of Ln (Gabryś-Barker and Otwinowska 2012: 381). It must be emphasized that such detailed information could only be accessed through the study of learners' narratives, whereas quantitative methods could only have revealed such data as the number of instances of cross-linguistic influence, but not, for example, the students' metalinguistic awareness as a function of their language experience, including learning strategies and teaching methods.

5   Conclusion

Given the variety of multilingual acquisition contexts and language biographies, the heterogeneity of groups and often their small sizes, as well as the dynamics of multilingual processing, it can be difficult to achieve statistically significant results. However, this does not mean that non-significant results are worthless, as the qualitative data can provide a lot of information. While quantitative methods can indicate general tendencies, qualitative ones can yield different data which permit the formulation of hypotheses, for example, on language processing and error sources, and consequently, stimulate further research.

Although not all individual differences can be taken into account, or else every article might turn into a book, some of them can reveal quite a lot about the subjects' individual learning processes. Hence, qualitative analysis may tell us, for example, why a particular learner is a real multilingual, using all his or her languages and establishing connections between them (a 'multilinguoid' in Müller-Lancé's (2003: 456) terminology), whereas another is a 'monolinguoid'

(Müller-Lancé 2003: 456–457) in his or her language performance, despite having studied several languages.

In conclusion, quantitative and qualitative methods should complement each other, either in separate studies on related phenomena or as mixed methods, in order to contribute to the study of the highly complex field of multilingualism. Even though it must be admitted that the present paper leaves some questions unanswered, it is hoped that it will stimulate discussion and the development of multilingualism research methodology.

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Research Approaches and Student Surveys: A Cross-cultural Perspective

Beata Malczewska-Webb, Marta Nowacka, and Sabrina Ong

1 Introduction and Background of Study

In the last 20 years, the nature of education worldwide has been undergoing a rapid change from the homogenous classes of students of similar backgrounds, to the ever-changing classroom populations of students of different nationalities, of diverse cultural, educational and linguistic backgrounds (AEI 2013). The increasing awareness of this diversity and the impact it has on education in many countries including Australia, has attracted much attention from researchers in the recent years (Creese et al. 2009; Dunn and Carroll 2005; Lo Bianco 2009; Malczewska-Webb 2011; Webb 2013, 2014). Although researchers from other fields such as social work or psychology (Suarez-Balcazar et al. 2009) have raised issues concerning research in culturally and linguistically diverse groups, little has been done in the field of suitability of different approaches to research in diverse populations in education (Obiakor 2010). The aim of this paper is to evaluate the usefulness of the quantitative and qualitative research approaches in analyzing student survey data from culturally and linguistically diverse student groups from two universities in Australia and Poland.

The data analysed for this paper comes from a project examining the tertiary education experience of four student cohorts, Australian, American, Chinese and Polish students. Section 2 provides an overview of issues concerning survey research and sampling. Section 3 describes the research methodology employed for the project; the sample population and the tools chosen for the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. In Sect. 4, data analysis focuses on the quantitative

B. Malczewska-Webb (✉) • S. Ong
Bond University, Robina, QLD, Australia
e-mail: bwebb@bond.edu.au

M. Nowacka
University of Rzeszów, Rzeszów, Poland

interpretation of the results. Sections 5 and 6 follow with the interpretation of the qualitative data and the comparison of both. The paper concludes in Sect. 7.

2 Survey Research and Sampling

This section briefly outlines issues concerning survey research, which need to be taken into consideration with particular care while undertaking research in culturally and linguistically diverse populations. As Wagner (2010: 22) states: 'Virtually everyone is familiar with survey research', People get surveyed about anything from habits to politics and surveys are also very often used in many areas of research concerning language learning and education. The last 30 years brought important insight into areas such as learner beliefs, attitudes, learning strategies, learner motivation, anxiety (Wagner 2010) and self-efficacy (Bandura 1988). Data from surveys allows the researchers to conceptualise and measure constructs, which are abstract and difficult to observe directly, and cannot be observed through students' performance or production data (Brown 2001; Wagner 2010).

According to Wagner (2010), this familiarity of the methodology can in itself present challenges as important steps can either be omitted or not attended to carefully. He (Wagner 2010) recommends that the four stages of the survey research must be considered very carefully before the survey is administered. The four stages include planning the project, designing the survey, administering the survey and analyzing the data. In the first stage, the researchers must decide what they want to investigate, why they want to investigate it, who they want to investigate and, based on this information, the decisions should be made about how to proceed next. The decision concerning who will be investigated is central to obtaining the results and their interpretation. Finding information about a specific population is rarely possible by asking the whole population, therefore, an underlying assumption in research surveys involves population sampling.

Population sampling is a fundamental procedure in planning the survey research because it ensures the quality of research and the generalizability of the results (Vogt 2007 in Wagner 2010). Simply, if the sampling is not carefully designed, it will not be possible to generalize the results in relation to the larger population represented by the sample. Two basic sampling procedures include probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling techniques involve random, stratified, systematic and cluster sampling. Random sampling aims to give every member of the population an equal chance to provide data, a stratified sampling technique involves choosing subgroups within each population and generating samples from these. In systematic sampling, an nth person is surveyed while cluster sampling uses the natural clusters, subgroups, within a population and randomly generates samples for each cluster (Wagner 2010). The second sampling procedure, nonprobability sampling, refers to convenience sampling. In other words, to surveying individuals who are available and who the research has access to. Convenience sampling, while useful for many purposes, may not provide the generalizability applicable to a larger population.

Another decision principal for obtaining the most valid results possible concerns the methods used while designing the survey. The dichotomy of quantitative and qualitative research methods will be reflected in the way the data is analysed and interpreted. Quantitative methods entail quantification of variables and statistical analyses of the relationships between variables, while qualitative methods involve gathering more detailed information which provides insight into the thoughts and opinions of individuals. The surveys are often designed to deal with a large quantity of data and can be objectively scored using quantitative methods. However, answering closed-ended questions sets the limited parameters for answers. Open-ended questions inviting participants to answer with extensive written text elicit subjective data that can be analysed using qualitative research methods. These two types of data collection in surveys, closed-ended and open-ended subjective questions align with quantitative and qualitative approaches to data analysis. This paper examines the relationship between the researcher decisions concerning sampling and the choice of research methods for analyzing student surveys in culturally and linguistically diverse classes.

3   Methodology

This section focuses on the research methodology applied in this project. First, it describes the background of the project and the sample selection. Next, it focuses on research tools and research methods. The research project examines the effectiveness and appropriateness of quantitative and qualitative methods for interpreting the data from student surveys applied at two universities in Australia and Poland. The survey aims to examine the educational experience of university students. The sample includes the survey results from 400 tertiary students, 300 from Australia and 100 from Poland. While the background of the students from the Polish university is homogenously Polish, the students at an Australian University represent three nationalities, Australian, American and Chinese (100 students each in the sample). Accordingly, the sample consists of 200 domestic and 200 international students. Australian and Polish students study and live in their home countries, while the Chinese and American students are international students studying in Australia. Two groups study in their first language, Australian domestic students and American international students, while the Chinese students in Australia and Polish students in Poland study in English as an additional language. All the students are enrolled in degrees at an undergraduate level and all the results were collected while the students were enrolled in Humanities and Social Sciences subjects.

The research tool designed for this study consists of both closed-ended and open-ended questions applied during the students' regular classes. The demographic data was collected in the first part of the survey which provided students data including their background, their degree, length of study at university and previous international experience. In the second part of the survey, the students responded to 16 closed-ended questions about difficulties with a range of skills such as spoken

or written academic English, following lectures or understanding vocabulary specific to the subject area. The responses to the closed-ended questions were measured on a four-element Likert Scale: with two positive and two negative responses. The third part of the survey included an open-ended question concerning the most difficult aspects of their studies.

The research methods applied to the collected data from the questionnaire included both, quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative methods of preparing data for interpretation were applied to the closed-ended questions while the open-ended question was collated using qualitative methods. The closed-ended questions data was collated and systematized using the IBM SPSS software. SPSS, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, is a computer application that provides statistical data analysis. It is used for data access, preparation, reporting and graphics (Pallant 2011, http://www.spss.com). (While IBM changed its name in 2009 to Predictive Analytics Software PASW, the name SPSS is still widely used in relevant literature.). SPSS provided tools for assessing significant differences between groups. An example is the Pearson chi-square test, which is useful for data that were measured on nominal and ordinal scales (Pallant 2011). In this test, observed frequencies or proportions of cases in each category of the variables are compared. The results are first checked to ensure the assumptions of chi-square are not violated, followed by examining the statistical significance of the difference between the categories. . The quantitative data was then organized, calculated and graphically represented by using SPSS and Excel software packages (Pallant 2011).

The qualitative data analysis was applied to the data from the open-ended question concerning students' most difficult aspects of their university experience. The aim of this analysis is to get 'the richest possible data' to compliment the quantitative analysis (Holliday 2010: 98). As far as the qualitative research methods are concerned, NVivo qualitative software was used for the collation and analysis of the qualitative data from the open question. This software provided tools for classifying, sorting and arranging qualitative survey information, which included the data from the open question concerning the difficulties students experienced during their university studies. Using NVivo, student responses were classified into appropriate categories (the nodes) which allowed for the organization of the information from the open-ended question and a further comparison between the quantitative and qualitative data analyses.

4 Quantitative Analysis and Data Interpretation

This section first presents the results of the quantitative statistical measures of the data and then presents the interpretation of the data based on the quantitative analysis of the closed-ended questions. The section deals with the overall students' difficulties, considering the sample of 400 students as a whole. Next, it examines how the overall statistical analysis of the whole sample is reflected in each country's results and compares these results across the four samples in order to explore the applicability of the quantitative analysis to culturally and linguistically diverse groups.

Two tests were performed to measure the statistical adequacy of the research data from the closed-ended questions (Phakiti 2010). The first statistical analysis using SPSS showed that the analysis was valid, which means that the results of the analysis made statistical sense. Next, the Pearson Chi-Square tests were applied and the results of these demonstrated that the analysis of the data was statistically valid. These results suggested that the outcomes of the quantitative analysis of the data provided the information sufficient for data interpretation (Pallant 2011).

4.1 Students' Perceived Difficulties: Overall Quantitative Results

The next stage was to examine the overall results from the 400 students in the areas of their perceived difficulties with their university studies. Out of the 15 examined difficulties, one difficulty, *the use of technology for learning*, was reported by fewer than 20 % of the students (16.3 %). Over 20 % of the students informed of the following difficulties: *written academic English* (27.2 %), *giving opinions in class* (26 %), *spoken academic English* (25.9 %), *working relationships with lecturers* (24.9 %), *working in pairs and groups* (24.6 %), *following lectures* (24.4 %) and *doing independent research* (22.6 %). Further, five difficulties were experienced by over 30 % of all students and these were: *giving oral seminar presentations* (37.4 %), *university procedures and administration* (37.2 %), *referencing and sourcing materials* (34 %), *understanding lecturers' different accents* (32.6 %) and *vocabulary specific for study area* (30.9 %). The two aspects of studying perceived by most students overall as the most difficult included *quantity of reading* and *writing critical research papers* were reported by 41.1 % and 40 % of the students respectively.

Consequently, only one difficulty was reported by fewer than 20 % of the students, seven difficulties were reported by fewer than 30 % of the students, over 30 % of the students perceived five further difficulties as causing them problems and over 40 % of the students experienced difficulties with two aspects of their university studies. The five overall most problematic aspects of the university studies comprised (1) *Quantity of reading*, (2) *Writing critical research papers*, (3) *Giving oral seminar presentations*, (4) *University procedures and administration* and (5) *Referencing and sourcing materials*.

4.2 Overall Quantitative Results and the Australian Sample: A Comparison

Next, the top five difficulties reported by students overall were compared with the difficulties reported by the students from four individual backgrounds. The

comparison of the overall difficulties with those related by the Australian students showed significant differences and similarities between the two samples. While overall 14 (93.3 %) aspects of studying were reported by over 20 % of the students as difficult, with half of these reported by over 30 % of the respondents, only six (40 %) were reported by over 20 % of the Australian students. Out of these six, one, *quantity of reading,* was viewed as difficult by over 40 % (40.8 %) of the students and only one by over 30 % of the students (*working in pairs and small groups*: 33.7 %). Over 20 % of the Australian students reported the remaining four in this cluster which involved *giving oral seminar presentation* (25.5 %), *university procedures and administration* (24.5 %), *referencing and sourcing materials* (23.5 %) and *writing critical research papers* (22.4 %).

Accordingly, the comparison of the results between the overall sample and the Australian sample indicated both, differences and similarities in different areas. The results suggested a significant difference between the number of students who reported experiencing difficulties with studying, and the number of these difficulties reported. The overall results were considerably higher than the results of the Australian students' sample. Apart from the vast difference between the quantity of difficulties and the number of students who experienced them, there was only one significant difference in difficulties stated by both groups. *Working in pairs and groups*, reported only as the 12th most difficult area of study (the fourth last) in the overall sample, was reported by 33.7 % of the Australian students, which formed the second most difficult area of study for the Australian cohort. The similarities between the overall sample and the Australian sample were significant. The Australian and overall results demonstrated an almost identical number of students reporting the problems with the *quantity of reading*, with 40.8 % and 41.1 % accordingly. All the five top overall difficulties were contained in the list of the Australian top six difficulties, with the differences in *working in pairs and groups*, and *writing critical research paper* indicated as less problematic and reported as the sixth most problematic area by the Australian students (as opposed to the second in the overall outcomes). Accordingly, the overall sample did not correspond with the Australian sample in the number of difficulties reported by the students. Moreover, the overall sample marginalised *working in pairs and groups*, one of the major problems reported by the Australian students. On the other hand, the two samples showed similarities in the study difficulties where five overall difficulties corresponded with five out of six top difficulties of the Australian sample.

4.3 Overall Quantitative Results and the American Sample: A Comparison

The comparison between the results from the American and overall samples also showed noteworthy similarities and differences between the two. The majority of academic skills, four out of five, perceived as difficult by the students overall, were

also contained in the American students' responses. As opposed to the overall sample, however, where 93.8 % of all difficulties (15 out of 16) were reported by over 20 % of the respondents, only the top three difficulties were reported by more than 20 % of the American students. They included (1) *Referencing and sourcing information* (25 %), (2) *Writing critical research papers* (24 %) and (3) *the quantity of the required reading* (21 %). It is important to note that *the quantity of reading*, although listed in the top five difficulties, was perceived by the American cohort as difficult only by approximately a half (21 %) of the number reported by the Australian (40.8 %) and overall students (41.1 %). *University procedures and administration* was reported by both, the American students (18 %), and the students overall (37.2 %), as the fourth most difficult university skill. Similarly to the Australian responses, *working in pairs and groups* caused more problems for the American students in terms of the hierarchy of the difficulties as it was the fifth difficulty reported by the American students as opposed to the 11th difficulty in the overall results. However, it was only reported by 18 % of the American students and 24.6 % students overall. *Giving oral seminar presentations*, viewed by 37.4 % of the students overall as the third most difficult skill, was only reported by 14 % of the American students and came the eighth on the list of the skills causing problems for this cohort.

Consequently, American students informed of significantly fewer problematic academic skills, with only, as stated above, three skills accounted by over 20 % of the students, with almost half of these accounted by fewer than 10 %. Although there were significant similarities as far as the type of difficulties recounted by both samples, the American students recounted experiencing noticeably fewer problems with fewer academic skills than the overall sample suggested. Although a similar observation was made in reference to the Australian students, this is more strongly manifested in the case of the American students who reported fewer problems than their Australian counterparts on their home ground.

4.4 Overall Quantitative Results and the Chinese Sample: A Comparison

The evaluation of the third sample from the Australian university involving the Chinese students revealed significant differences between this and the overall results. In brief, it demonstrated a remarkable divide between the reported experience of the Chinese students and their Australian and American classmates. The similarities are limited to the two categories, *writing critical research papers* and *the quantity of reading*, which formed the first and fifth category of the most difficult academic skills reported by the Chinese students. The two categories perceived as the most problematic by an overwhelming 77.8 % of the students included the abovementioned *writing critical research papers* and *written academic English*. *Spoken academic English* (77 %) and *vocabulary specific to the*

study area (74 %) followed closely, with *quantity of reading* (68.7 %) and *understanding lecturers' different accents* (65 %). Remarkably, all of these categories were perceived as difficult by over 60 % of the Chinese students.

The five top overall difficulties corresponded only to the first and the fifth categories on the Chinese list, with the remaining three spread as the 8th, 11th and 13th difficulty in the Chinese outcomes. The greatest difference was, however, in the number of students experiencing problems. Most significantly, the four top difficulties were reported by over 70 % of the Chinese students, two by over 60 %. Remarkably, the following six categories were perceived as problematic by over 50 % of the Chinese students, two by over 40 and the last two by over 30 % (39 % each). These results indicate that the Chinese students perceived incomparably more problems with each category related to their university studies than their counterparts whose English was their first language. It also explained the source of discrepancies between the overall average results, being significantly higher than the Australian and American outcomes. Accordingly, the similarities between the Chinese students' reported difficulties and those of the overall sample were very few. Conversely, the differences demonstrated a significant discrepancy between the Chinese sample and an extraordinary gap between the Chinese students and their American and Australian classmates.

4.5   Overall Quantitative Results and the Polish Sample: A Comparison

The final analysis of the quantitative results included contrasting the overall results with the results of the Polish sample. A closer examination of the Polish sample revealed the similarities in the type of the problems experienced by the students overall and by the American and Australian cohorts as well. Again, all five top overall difficulties were contained in the Polish list of top six difficulties; apart from *understanding lecturers' different accents*. The area causing problems to the most students, *university procedures and administration*, was reported by a significant 58 % of the students, while *quantity of reading*, the sixth difficulty, by 34 % of the students. The two most problematic difficulties, *university procedures and administration* and *giving oral seminar presentations* (52.5 %) were viewed as difficult by over 50 % of the students. The difficulties with these aspects of their university experience were reported by more Polish students than by students overall. Moreover, over twice as many Polish students reported these two difficulties than the Australian students and over three times more than their American counterparts.

4.6 Overall Quantitative Results: Useful or Not

The comparison between the overall quantitative results with the quantitative scores of the four individual national samples demonstrated a limited usefulness of the quantitative analysis of the overall data. Although many similarities were established, they were mostly related to the categories of the problems experienced by the students. The overall results indicated closely the top problematic categories in the case of the Australian, American and Polish students but failed to do so in the case of the Chinese students. The further comparisons of the least problematic categories confirmed the view that the overall sample did not reflect discrepancies between individual samples. The category *working in pairs and small groups* provided an interesting example to this effect. While not strongly contrasted between the overall and Chinese samples, this category was the second most problematic one for the Australian students, and by contrast, the least problematic for the Chinese and Polish students.

In the evaluation of the perceived difficulties, two principal dichotomies were examined which included the distinction between domestic and international students, and the differentiation between students whose English was their first or additional language. This distinction was not transparent in the case of the American and the Australian students, and moreover, the American international students reported fewer difficulties than the Australian students studying at home. The remarkable difference between the difficulties reported by the Chinese students and their American and Australian classmates indicated that English as a non-first language was a more powerful factor in this context. This was confirmed by the results of the Polish students who, similarly to the Chinese students, informed of significantly more difficulties than the American and Australian cohorts did. The studies of the individual samples suggested a close proximity between the Australian and American cohorts, and more similarity between the Polish and the Chinese students than between the Chinese and both English-as-the first language groups. However, out of all samples, the Chinese cohort was the most distinctive one with the most students experiencing the most difficulties.

Consequently, the comparison of the individual samples with the quantitative overall results demonstrated that the overall statistical results reflected the data only very cursorily and superficially. While the quantitative analysis of each of the 'national' samples provided more cohesive and transparent results, the overall approach failed to demonstrate fundamental differences between distinct individual samples. This showed the limited usefulness of the quantitative overall approaches in the cases of culturally and linguistically diverse groups where the individual samples revealed a high degree of cohesion and little cohesion between one another.

This section examined the usefulness of the quantitative methods in relation to the five analysed samples: the overall sample and the four national samples; Australian, American, Chinese and Polish. Each individual sample displayed a significantly higher degree of cohesion than the overall sample. Both, American

and Australian students consistently reported fewer difficulties than the students overall, with the Polish and Chinese students consistently reporting comparatively more perceived difficulties. The significant inter-sample cohesion suggested that the quantitative methods were more effective in the case of the students of the same country stemming from a similar cultural and linguistic background. Therefore, this outcome suggested that particular caution needs to be applied while analyzing the samples of diverse groups of students. The comparisons suggested that the quantitative analysis resulted in more valid outcomes in the groups that were culturally and linguistically cohesive.

5   Qualitative Analysis and Data Interpretation

The next step in examining the usefulness and applicability of different research methods in diverse sample groups involved the analysis and comparison of the qualitative survey data. First, this section introduces the qualitative overall data, and then it examines the details of individual national samples. Next, the top qualitative responses are analysed according to the cultural background of the respondents.

The qualitative data collected for the purpose of this paper came from the open question to which the students volunteered information concerning the most difficult aspects of their studies at their university. The students' responses were volunteered, unstructured and unprompted and as such they reflected a more student-centred perspective of their experience. Overall, students offered 295 responses: the Australian and American students offered a similar number of 84 and 82 replies respectively. Interestingly, the Chinese and Polish cohorts presented fewer responses but similar in the amount to one another: 63 and 66 respectively. This, again, displayed the similarity between the groups with English as the first or additional language, with Polish and Chinese students providing fewer responses than their native-speaking counterparts.

5.1   Students' Perceived Difficulties: Overall Qualitative Results

The results of the qualitative data indicated that, overall, students were mostly concerned with assessment. Over a third of the responses (31.1 %) referred to the three subcategories: *forms of assessment*, *different grading systems* or *other assessment-related issues*. *Academic skills* and *subject contents* formed the second and third broad categories of reported difficulties respectively. From a more detailed perspective of the subcategories, students perceived the following five as the most problematic: *academic skills*, *subject contents*, *forms of assessment*, *other*

assessment related issues and *written discourse*. The categories formulated on the basis of the qualitative data differed from the categories from the closed-ended questions. The volunteered responses enabled establishing the broader areas of students' concern, at the same time providing more details relating to the experience of specific groups of students. In other words, while the quantitative data analysis resulted in the analysis of the proposed areas of difficulty, the volunteered information allowed for formulating a more systematic classification of the students' concerns.

5.2 Qualitative Overall Results and Students' Background: Academic Skills

Again, a closer examination of the expressed difficulties demonstrated the differences between the groups of students, which emphasized the diversity of the overall sample. Similarly to the earlier studies of different samples of students (Webb 2013), the concern over *academic skills* underlined the similarities between the American (33) and Australian (27) students, who related considerably more problems than the Chinese students (16), whereas the Polish students (3) focused on other areas. The intra-national perspective confirmed the cohesion within each of the national samples. Almost a third of the American students expressed difficulty with the *written assignments* ('writing papers'), the problem also expressed by a much smaller number of the Chinese students. *Referencing* ('referencing and sourcing information') created another problematic area for the American students and also for some Australian students, who, however, appeared to struggle most with *working in groups* ('*working in groups* as often students don't participate making workloads unfair'). Apart from difficulties with written assignments, Chinese students also informed of the difficulties with undertaking *research* ('do research for my essay because I never did this process before'). Although the quantity of reported difficulties with academic skills demonstrated the difference determined by the students enrolled at two different universities, a closer analysis of individual samples revealed further discrepancy between the individual samples and a high degree of intra-sample cohesion.

5.3 Qualitative Overall Results and Students' Background: Subject Contents

The divergence between the concerns over the *subject contents* further highlights the difference between the students enrolled in different universities. While the Chinese (10) and the Australian (6) students at the Australian university expressed few concerns over this issue, the American students did not report any. The Chinese

students listed the contents of particular subjects they had problems with, such as 'business' and 'cultural and ethical values'. The Australian students also notified of some specific issues with subject areas ('principles of economics in a journalism degree'), however, their focus was on the broader issues ('when subjects are broad and not specific') and their difficulty ('understanding all the theories', 'subjects at the start of the degree—thrown in the deep end'). Conversely, the reason for this category to feature so prominently on the overall list was the fact that Polish students reported almost twice as many (27) negative comments about the *subject contents* than their counterparts from the Australian university. Apart from the specific subjects they had difficulties with including 'cultural education class', 'literature', most of their comments proposed changes to the program curriculum. They suggested decreasing the component of the program dealing with Polish ('get rid of the subjects connected with Polish', 'too many lectures not connected with English') and increasing the part focusing on English ('practical English better'). Overall, the students from the Polish university were the cohort who, while expressing difficulties with particular subject contents, focused on proposing curricular changes to the programs they were enrolled in.

The principal difference between the experiences of the students from the two different universities was also evident when analyzing the problems with the *programs administration*. The Polish students made an overwhelming 14 out 15 comments reporting difficulties with the administration of the academic program. These comments included the timetabling and structure of the degrees ('very long breaks between classes', 'overloaded time-tables'), and also included suggestions for change ('too many classes, not all of them necessary', 'too many lectures and classes'). Accordingly, the data analysis strongly suggested that the university, and, consequently, the system of education, determined the difficulties students experienced. Polish students' informed of difficulties with the administrative issues, such as *the administration of the programs* and *the subject contents*. Students at the Australian university experience more difficulties with *academic skills* and these differ further depending on the students' linguistic and cultural background.

5.4 Qualitative Overall Results and Students' Background: Forms of Assessment and Other Assessment-Related Issues

Australian (15) and Chinese (12) students informed of approximately three times more difficulties with *forms of assessment* than American (6) and Polish (5) students. A more detailed analysis of each sample also demonstrated the intra-sample cohesion where a small group of the students from each sample reported difficulties with *exams* ('exams; finals'). The American students also focused on *group projects*, Australian students experience difficulties mostly with *exams* and *group projects* ('group projects. I hate them!') but they also signposted problems with

research papers and *oral presentations*. While Polish students' concerns were only related to *exams* ('final exams' and 'oral exams'), an overwhelming majority of the Chinese students reported problems with their *oral presentations*. A closer examination of the comments made within this category showed differences between students of different backgrounds.

The third most commented on category of the problems within the qualitative data involved references to *other issues related to assessment* with Australian (14) and American (15) students reporting more concerns than their Polish (7) and Chinese (2) classmates. Apart from the problems with 'all assignments due at once' and 'poorly explained exams', Australian and American students expressed a wide spread of different difficulties, some concerning too much work, too heavily weighted assignments, work not explained enough, or a mismatch between assessment and subject contents. The spread of individual difficulties was the only trend transpiring within these two samples. Interestingly, the Chinese students focused on the improvement of their university performance: getting better grades ('get the higher mark, higher than Distinction') and being able to prepare better for exams ('prepare better for exams'). The overwhelming focus of the Polish students was the number of exams they had scheduled ('too many exams', 'too many tests'). In this category, students' concerns with issues related to assessment displayed very different patterns depending on the background of the students. This confirmed the view that, depending on the factors not only related to the place of study but also the students' background, their educational experience varied significantly. These outcomes demonstrated clearly that without a close examination of the qualitative data, it was impossible to determine the accurate perspective of the students' problems.

5.5 Qualitative Overall Results and Students' Background: Written Discourse

Other factors influencing the outcomes of the survey referred to students' linguistic background and their domestic vs. international status. The first factor, whether English was their first or additional language, was particularly transparent in the fifth most problematic qualitative category, *written discourse*. The difficulties with language were demonstrated by the fact that the Chinese students contributed with 85 % of these comments. Other areas of academic performance related to language confirmed this view as the majority of the difficulties with *following lectures* were reported by the Chinese students. The comments referring to the problems with *the spoken discourse* confirmed this view, with significantly more Polish and Chinese students' referring to this aspect of their studies. Consequently, while students' first language transpired as an important factor in the study, the group experiencing the most difficulties with the use of English was the Chinese cohort. It was also the only group where students reported social difficulties. As for the matter of studying at

home or in another country, the only category which illustrated this differentiation concerned the *differences in the grading system*; only the Chinese and American students (equally) contributed to it. Consequently, language appeared to be a more powerful factor than the distinction between domestic or international students' status.

6 Sampling and Methods: Quantitative or Qualitative

The analysis of the data obtained for this paper demonstrated clearly the powerful role of cultural and linguistic background in diverse populations. This raises two broad concerns for researchers dealing with culturally and linguistically diverse populations. The first one, the issue the sampling strategy, and the second one, the choice of appropriate research methods for obtaining and analyzing data. While applying an appropriate sampling strategy in culturally and linguistically diverse groups, the only type of sampling which should be considered is probability sampling as nonprobability sampling, or convenience sampling will not take into consideration the background of the population in diverse groups. Therefore, a stratified sampling technique is suggested as appropriate as its application will ensure the results considering students' background in the survey data. This technique involves determining subgroups within each population and generating samples on the basis of these. Other sampling strategies may simply not generate the results valid for diverse populations.

Another broad concern involves the choice and the application of the quantitative and qualitative methods to students' survey data. This paper demonstrated the different roles these approaches play in data analysis. In order to analyse the data from closed-ended questions of the students' surveys, the quantitative research methods were used and the validity of the analysis was statistically confirmed. However, a closer analysis of the quantitative data involving the examination of the four national-based samples of students, showed significant differences between the four students' cohorts and their respective experience of education. This examination clearly demonstrated that the overall quantitative analysis is limited to very broad research outcomes, which do not reflect the differences between the cohorts from the culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. It further indicated a more significant level of intra-sample cohesion, which showed that students from the same cultural and linguistic background reported a similar experience of their university studies. Consequently, the quantitative analysis of the overall sample underlined the limited value of overall quantitative approaches to the data provided by culturally and linguistically diverse cohorts, particularly, if these approaches were to be used in isolation.

The next step in the examination of methods suitability while collecting research in culturally and linguistically diverse populations was to analyse the equivalent information from the open-ended question on students' perceived difficulties with their university studies. The volunteered information allowed for a different

classification of difficulties than the closed-ended question, which resulted in a more learner-centred framework analyzing the students' experience. The results supported Holliday's (2010: 99) claim that 'the basic aim of qualitative research is to get to the bottom of what is going on in all aspects of social behavior.' Although the classification of the qualitative overall outcomes reflected more accurately the students' experiences, even at that level of the qualitative analysis a more in-depth and detailed investigation revealed strong intra-sample trends and significant discrepancies between the experiences of the students from culturally and linguistically different backgrounds.

The analysis of individual qualitative categories based on the open-ended questions demonstrated the discrepancies between the four individual cohorts motivated by a variety of factors. One of the major influences was students' linguistic background, and the Chinese and Polish students in some categories such as the quantity of volunteered responses or specific categories such as *spoken and written academic discourse* showed more similarities between one another than American and Australian students. Whether the students spoke English as their first or additional language played an important role in several categories. Another factor that contributed to the students' perceived experience was the difference between domestic and international students, which was reflected in some quantitative and qualitative categories such as *assessment* or *grading system*. In other categories, the place of study, a particular university, determined students' stance on their experience of being a university student. While Polish students' views very strongly propagated the changes to the subject contents and programs administration, the students from the Australian university did not share these concerns. Also, the differences in requirements were reflected in the areas of academic skills or assessment related issues. The determination of these discrepancies between the Australian, American, Chinese and Polish students was only made possible, however, by a close analysis of the qualitative data within each sample.

7 Conclusions

This paper has dealt with two tiers of research analysis, the analysis of the data from the sample originating from students' surveys and, based on this sample analysis, the appropriateness of quantitative and qualitative research methods in the analysis of the survey data. The sample involved students from four culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds from two universities in Australia and Poland. The data from student surveys concerning the difficulties they experienced with their university studies was collected from closed-ended and open-ended questions. The statistical quantitative analysis was applied to the closed-ended questions while the data from the open-ended question was analysed using the qualitative methods.

The outcomes of the analyses revealed significant discrepancies between the quantitative and qualitative results, mostly stemming from the differences between the four individual samples within the overall sample, the Australian, American,

Chinese and Polish. The quantitative analysis of the overall sample provided little more information beyond the main trends in difficulty areas, which included *quantity of reading, writing critical research papers, giving oral seminar presentations, university procedures and administration and referencin*g and *sourcing materials*. The quantitative study of individual samples showed the discrepancy between the overall and individual samples due to the differences between the individual samples and a high degree of cohesion within them.

Further application of the qualitative methods to the data volunteered by the students in the open-ended question confirmed the differences between the individual samples. This analysis allowed for a different classification of students' perceived difficulties, which reflected the areas of their experience more adequately as the students were not limited by the multiple-choice answers. This perspective comprised the areas of *academic skills*, *subject contents*, *forms of assessment*, *other issues related to assessment* and *written discourse*. However, even an overall view of the outcomes which resulted from the qualitative methods application revealed the limited use of 'the overall analysis' and the in-depth investigation into the four individual samples showed the significant discrepancies between the four samples, which previous perspectives had not yet revealed. The overall sample consisted of culturally and linguistically diverse group of students whose experience of their university studies varied substantially depending on a number of factors, including their linguistic background, their previous and current educational experience and their current status as a domestic or international student.

To conclude, the analysis of the survey data from the linguistically and culturally diverse population demonstrated the limited value of the quantitative methods, if these are used in isolation. It also highlighted the usefulness of the qualitative approaches to the analysis of survey data from non-homogenous populations. Overall, the paper emphasized the difficulty and complexity of the analysis of data coming from the culturally and linguistically diverse groups. This difficulty must not, however, stop us from striving to understand how these groups work and how to maximize the CLD learners' learning. In Obiakor's (2010: 9) words: 'Though CLD learners are continuously misidentified, misassessed, miscategorised, misplaced and miseducated, we cannot afford to divorce ourselves from their problems.'

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Willingness to Communicate in a Foreign Language: Evidence from Those Who Approach and Those Who Avoid L2 Communication

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel

1 Introduction

Foreign language learning is a lengthy process characterized by variable success. Scholars worldwide have attempted to explain the reasons for student failure from different angles, among them student willingness to communicate (WTC) in a foreign language. It is assumed that effective language mastery is connected to high levels of communicative competence. What is more, aside from being communicatively competent, a student should also be willing to use the foreign language for authentic communication (MacIntyre et al. 2003). Only in this manner can second language instruction be regarded as effective, assuring long-term success.

This paper examines the attitudes of students who experience either consistently high or consistently low levels of WTC in L2. Specifically, it details the results of an empirical study that focused on the selected participants' readiness to enter into discourse with an English-speaking person. Potential implications for the foreign language classroom conclude the discussion.

2 Willingness to Communicate

The concept of willingness to communicate was first described in L1 studies related to the individual's predilections towards talking; that is, the individual's general attitude toward initiating and sustaining communication with other people (McCroskey and Richmond 1987). This model has now evolved to designate an individual's "predisposition toward approaching or avoiding the initiation of

E. Piechurska-Kuciel (✉)
Opole University, Opole, Poland
e-mail: epiech@uni.opole.pl

communication" (McCroskey 1992: 16). From this perspective, it can describe a stable tendency to initiate or terminate communication, conceptualized as "a personality-based, traitlike predisposition which is relatively consistent across a variety of communication contexts and types of receivers" (McCroskey and Richmond 1987: 129). This consistent communicative behavior in various interpersonal communication situations "explains why one person will talk and another will not under identical, or virtually identical, situational constraints" (McCroskey and Richmond 1987: 129–130). It follows that WTC has an impact on one's cognitive choices regarding communication, and remains stable across contexts and receivers (McCroskey and Richmond 1987, 1990). However, an individual's WTC in L1 can be affected by a broad range of situational variables, among them topic familiarity, previous experiences with communication, and one's state at a certain point of time. In general, although situation dependent, verbal communication is most of all a volitional act, which to a great extent indicates the cognitive nature of human communication behavior.

Talking is central to interpersonal communication, also in the context of L2 use. As in L1 communication, people likewise vary in the quantity of talking in which they decide to engage when using a foreign language. For this reason WTC is now considered an extremely influential variable underlying the second and foreign language learning processes. It is hereby defined as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al. 1998: 547), or "an individual's volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation, which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables" (Kang 2005: 291). In spite of the apparent similarity between L1 and L2 WTC concepts, there exist certain differences. Aside from social factors affecting L2 communication, there are greater differences in communicative competence in most foreign language learners (MacIntyre et al. 1998). This means that in spite of the trait-like nature of the WTC construct, a change of language imposes a "dramatic" transformation of the communication setting (MacIntyre et al. 1998: 546). For this reason, the initiation of communication—when a learner actually assesses an opportunity to communicate as suitable and enters the communication act (Cao and Philp 2006)—is greatly shaped by regular trait-like characteristics, as well as by the situational aspects of each particular communicative act involving L2 use. Among the most influential situational variables are: context, topic or conversation partner, each of which underpins the importance of psychological conditions of excitement responsibility, and security (Kang 2005). In other words, the student's decision to initiate verbal exchange follows three stages: hesitation, preoccupation, and volatility (MacIntyre and Doucette 2010). At the first stage, the individual assesses their ability to begin a task. In the second they decide if they are able to focus on it. In the last stage they consider their ability to follow the task through to its completion (action control system).

These influential situational factors are influenced by wide competence variations and inter-group relations (MacIntyre et al. 1998). Quite understandably, changeability of situational variables results in WTC fluctuations, even in a single

dialogue with the same conversation partner (Kang 2005). Consequently, although the trait-like nature of WTC is responsible for the individual's overall inclinations towards communicating in L2, state-like WTC actually shapes verbal behavior at a particular moment within a particular situation. Hence, considering the interplay of the state-dependent and dynamic fluctuations of WTC (influenced by situational variables and the stable trait-like nature of WTC) enables us to gain a deeper understanding of the WTC phenomenon (MacIntyre and Doucette 2010).

This range of decisions regarding L2 communication, strongly affected by a spectrum of trait-like and situational factors, is revealed in a heuristic model comprising WTC antecedents arranged in a proximal-distal continuum of six layers (MacIntyre 2004). Enduring and trait-like influences are placed in three bottom layers: the social and individual context (intergroup climate and stable personality characteristics), the affective-cognitive context (intergroup attitudes, social situation, and communicative competence), and motivational propensities (interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation, and L2 self-confidence). Situated antecedents include the desire to communicate with a specific person and state communicative self-confidence, together with behavioural intention (the actual construct of willingness to communicate representing the final psychological step in preparation for L2 communication) and communication behaviour. The culmination of the interplay of these factors is direct L2 use.

The empirical research on L2 WTC undoubtedly shows that greater willingness to communicate is associated with higher self-perceived competence in the mother tongue (Barraclough et al. 1988) and foreign language (e.g., Yashima 2002), though this may be not applicable to proficient learners (Alemi et al. 2011) or those with lower levels of communication anxiety (Baker and MacIntyre 2003; MacIntyre 1994). Students who have a higher level of L2 WTC are found to use the language more frequently in the classroom (e.g., Hashimoto 2002). Also, in the context of the Polish secondary grammar school students with higher WTC display greater foreign language achievement and higher self-perceived skill assessment (speaking, listening, writing, and reading) (Piechurska-Kuciel 2011). Moreover, in the Polish context L2 WTC can also be reliably predicted on the basis of a student's final grades in the foreign language course (Piechurska-Kuciel in press). Among other influential predictors are various personality, affective, and social psychological variables (Cao 2011; Peng and Woodrow 2010). Other salient ones are motivation (Hashimoto 2002; MacIntyre et al. 2001), personality (MacIntyre and Charos 1996; Yu et al. 2011), international posture (Yashima 2002; Yashima et al. 2004), gender, and age (Cao 2011). L2 WTC in the classroom can also be predicted by situational variables, such as: group size, familiarity with the interlocutor(s), interlocutor participation, familiarity with topics under discussion, self-confidence, the medium of communication, and cultural background (Cao 2013; Cao and Philp 2006). Others include access to native speakers of the target language and opportunities for authentic community participation (Mady and Arnott 2010).

To date, one of the primary interests of EFL pedagogy has become the investigation of interacting linguistic and psychological variables defining WTC as a trait and situational construct. As it is still unclear why some learners are willing to

communicate in a foreign language while others are disinclined to do so, the main purpose of this paper is to investigate the testimonials of Polish students with persistently low or high L2 WTC scores obtained during secondary grammar school. This way it may be possible to shed more light on the role of WTC in second language acquisition, especially regarding formal language instruction.

3 Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 609 students from 23 randomly selected classes of the six secondary grammar schools in Opole, southwest Poland. Altogether, there were 396 girls and 225 boys (mean age: 16.50, range: 14.5–18 at the beginning of the 3-year research project). These students were in the first year of their schools, where they had 3–6 h a week of English instruction. Their level of English proficiency was elementary to intermediate, depending on the class they attended. The average length of the English language experience was almost 9 years. A vast majority (91 %) had been learning English for 5–15 years. Apart from English, they also studied French or German as the other compulsory foreign language (two lessons a week). The participants came from different residential locations, mostly urban (286 of them from the city of Opole, 122 from neighboring towns, and 213 from rural regions).

On the basis of WTC levels obtained at the beginning and end of the participants' secondary grammar school education (their first and third year at school), four students with extreme WTC scores were selected for further qualitative analysis. Two of them declared persistently lowest L2 WTC in and out of the classroom levels (Rafał and Natalia), while the other two—highest (Aga and Aneta). In the first year of the research Rafał obtained 29 pts on the WTC in the classroom scale (WTCI) and 27 pts out of the classroom (WTCO). At the end of the study his WTCI and WTCO levels were even lower: 27 and 27 pts. Like Rafał, Natalia also declared low WTCI and WTCO levels at the beginning of the study: 27 and 27, respectively. At the end of the study, both her WTC scores remained equally low. As far as the high WTC participants are concerned, in Year 1 Aga scored 129 and 133 pts on the WTCI and WTCO scales. In Year 3 the scores were, respectively, 135 and 135. Likewise, Aneta scored high WTC in Year 1 (126 and 129), which turned out to be even higher towards the end of her secondary grammar school education: 134 and 135.

3.2 Instruments

There were two basic instruments adopted for the purpose of this study: a questionnaire and interview. The questionnaire explored demographic variables, such as: age, gender (1—*male*, 2—*female*), and place of residence (1—*village: up to 2,500 inhabitants*, 2—*town: from 2,500 to 50,000 inhabitants*, 3—*city: over 50,000 inhabitants*).

Also used was a scale called *Willingness to communicate in/out the classroom* (MacIntyre et al. 2001). It included 27 items, measuring students' willingness to initiate communication during and outside of class. Eight items measure WTC in speaking, six in reading, eight in writing, and five in comprehension (listening). Sample items in the scales were: *A stranger enters the room you are in, how willing would you be to have a conversation if he talked to you first?*—and—*How often are you willing to read personal letters or notes written to you in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions?* The participants indicated when they would choose to use English on a Likert scale, from 1 (*almost never willing*) to 5 (*almost always willing*). The minimum score was 27, the maximum: 135. The scale's reliability was measured in terms of Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .94$ in the case of in-class language use, and .96 in the case of out-of-class language use). Similar reliability results were found at the end of the study.

The next part of the questionnaire consisted of the *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale* (Horwitz et al. 1986), which assessed the degree to which students feel anxious during language classes. Sample items on the scale are as follows: *I can feel my heart pounding when I'm about to be called on in language class*—and—*I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.* The positive items were key-reversed so that a high score on the scale represented a high anxiety level. The minimum number of points that could be obtained on the scale was 33, while the maximum was 165. The scale's reliability was assessed in terms of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, equaling $\alpha = .94$ in Year 1.

The study used two other types of assessment tools: external (grades), and internal (self-assessment of the foreign language skills). As far as *grades* are concerned, the participants declared the final grades they received in *gymnasium* (lower secondary school), and the first semester of the secondary grammar school. They also included the grade they expected to receive at the end of the school year. These grades were assessed on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*unsatisfactory*) to 6 (*excellent*), and later aggregated ($\alpha = .87$ in Year 1 and .88 in Year 3).

The last measurement used in the study was a scale calculating *self-perceived levels of FL skills* (speaking, listening, writing, and reading). It consisted of an aggregated value of independent assessments of the FL skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*unsatisfactory*) to 6 (*excellent*). Its reliability was $\alpha = .86$ in Year 1, and .87 in Year 3.

The interview featured five broad questions focusing on talking preferences and ways of studying and using English, some of which were based on Schneider (1999):

- *Do you like talking a lot? What about?*
- *What is your favourite/most hated school subject and why?*
- *What is easy/difficult in English?*
- *What would you like to change in English (the teacher, your classmates, yourself)?*
- *What could make you want to speak English?*

3.3 Procedure

As far as the quantitative data is concerned, the data collection procedure took place over the months of December 2008 and January 2010. In each class, the students were asked to fill in the questionnaire. The time designed for the activity was 15–45 min. The participants were asked to give sincere answers without taking excessive time to think. A short statement preceded each part of the questionnaire, introducing a new set of items in an unobtrusive manner. The qualitative part of the research (interviews) took place in March and April 2010. Each interviewee responded to a set of questions, their performance was recorded, and the data were later transcribed and translated into English.

The research method adopted for the purpose of this paper was a mixed, applying a sequential explanatory strategy. Having collected quantitative data, the results of statistical procedures were used to inform the subsequent qualitative phase; i.e., on the basis of WTC levels gained at the beginning and end of secondary grammar school instruction, the students with highest and lowest WTC scores were selected for interviews.

The quantitative data (descriptive: arithmetic means) were computed by means of the statistical programme STATISTICA.

4 Results and Discussion

As far as the low WTC students are concerned, at the beginning of the study Rafał scored 33 (WTCI) and 29 (WTCO) pts. His language anxiety levels were very high (132), while his self-assessment of the foreign language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) was quite high (3.75), and grades (last year's, the current semester's, and the prospective final grade) fairly low (2.67). At the end of his secondary grammar school education the WTCI and WTCO levels were even lower (27 and 27 pts, respectively). He still assessed his FL skills quite highly (4.0), while his final grades got slightly lower. Similarly to Rafał, Natalia also demonstrated low WTCI and WTCO levels in the beginning of the study, as well as an extremely high language anxiety score (132). Her self-assessment of the four skills was exceptionally low (1.75), unlike her final grades (4.33). At the end of the study both her WTC

scores remained equally low, and her self-assessment of FL skills decreased even more (1.0) together with her final grades (2.66).

On the other hand, in Year 1 Aga obtained a very high score on the WTCI and WTCO scales (129 and 133), and her language anxiety was weak (41). She self-assessed her skills at a good level (4.0), while her final grades were quite elevated (5.33). In Year 3 (towards the end of her secondary grammar school experience) she declared very high WTCI and WTCO levels (135 and 135, respectively) with low levels of language anxiety (38). Moreover, her self-assessment of FL skills rose to 5.75, and her final grades remained high (5.0). In the case of Aneta, initially her WTC scores were very high (WTCI: 126, WTCO: 129), language anxiety score low (45), and self-assessment very high (5.0 for FL skills and for final grades). In the final phase of the research the results were similar (WTCI: 134, WTCO: 135, language anxiety: 37, FL skills: 5.75, final grades: 4.33). A summary of these quantitative data can be found in Table 1, below.

In the interview, the respondents first spoke about their general attitude to talking. Natalia and Rafał, both with the lowest WTC scores, stated that they liked talking in everyday situations (in Polish):

> I talk a lot – that's my problem – during a lesson, with people at a bus stop... I like talking to everyone. I am open, I can talk about anything. I have many friends, people like me. I don't have enemies. (Rafał)

On the other hand, Natalia had some reservations:

> I talk a lot, especially with friends... about current affairs, school, like everyone. I am sociable, but I also like to be on my own, sit at home, read, and take the dog for a walk... I don't like talking to just anyone. There are people I consider superficial – conversations with them don't offer anything new. I can easily start talking to people I don't know, but I hate talking to someone who has nothing to say... I do talk to people I care about.

In the case of the two high-WTC students, they also talked a great deal. Aga liked talking to anyone she could, especially to her mother and friends about everyday matters.

> I like talking to a person I like. When I don't know someone, I can exchange a few sentences – it depends on the situation. I am quite open to other people.

Also, Aneta liked talking a lot. However, when she met someone for the first time she often appeared reserved. But after some time she admitted that she talked incessantly.

It seems that in everyday situations the students with extremely high and low WTC scores did not differ in their approaches to communication in the native tongue—they were either not afraid to talk or they might have some reservations about talking to strangers, with whom they were not ready to communicate immediately. However, in L2 communication high WTC levels appeared to constitute a strong sign of communication avoidance. Comparing their statements and the L2 WTC scores, the change of the mode of communication (switching from Polish into English) brought about a 'dramatic' difference. This disparity is clearly visible in the participants' attitude to their school subjects, especially English. These results

Table 1 Quantitative characteristics of the sample (N = 4)

Variables		Rafał	Natalia	Aga	Aneta
Year 1	WTCI	29	27	129	126
	WTCO	27	27	133	129
	Language anxiety	132	132	41	45
	FL skills	3.75	1.75	4.0	5.0
	Final grades	2.67	4.33	5.33	5.0
Year 3	WTCI	27	27	135	134
	WTCO	27	27	135	135
	Language anxiety	159	93	38	37
	FL skills	4.0	1.0	5.75	5.75
	Final grades	2.33	2.66	5.0	4.33

were further confirmed by language anxiety levels, which were very high in the low-WTC students, and very low in the high-WTC ones.

When the participants enumerated their favourite and most hated school subjects, both students with low WTC levels mentioned history as their preferred subject. Rafał was interested in dates and historical events, so his pursuit of logic and order was satisfied by learning history. Natalia also liked this subject, mostly due to the fact that she loved her teacher. She also stressed the ease with which she studied it, and the logical connections between different events:

> . . . My favourite subject is history, because in junior high school I had a good teacher. I like listening to accounts of various historical events. I like learning history because it comes easily. I can analyze events and draw conclusions.

Surprisingly, she also loved French, the other compulsory foreign language, because she had a good teacher, and liked the sound of it. She stressed the fact that she did not have to spend a long time studying it; French just popped into her head during the lesson, so she did not have to invest a lot of time in learning it.

> I love everything about French. I chose this class even though I didn't speak French – now I have 5 hours of it a week. I have chosen it on my graduate exam and there is a place for it in my future. I love this subject, I have a very good teacher, I like its sound, and learning it is easy, although it is one of most difficult languages. I don't have to cram, as I learn everything during the lesson. . . It all comes by itself. I don't know why. I have a gut feeling that this is the language I want to study. When there is a test, a day before I just write all the words I need for it, and that's it.

However, for Rafał English, like French, was totally incomprehensible. He mentioned English was his most-hated school subject, though he was able to tolerate it due to a longer learning experience:

> I dislike French even more because I have been learning English since my elementary school days, so I already knew some English when I came here. They threw me in at the deep end – French pronunciation throws me. (. . .) At home I speak Silesian, so it has some influence on how I pronounce English words. I am very poor at languages, but I am good at science. Languages are not logical. . . English has no logic, it's a waste of time. Perhaps it's because of dyslexia?. . .

Natalia was even more negative about English:

> I disliked English all through the secondary grammar school because the teacher did not suit me, or most of my classmates, either. I have never loved this language, but in this school it got even worse. . . In first grade I used cribs all the time – I never studied because I had come to the conclusion that it's a waste of time. But in third grade I started learning words because we had vocabulary tests. And I got good grades! Now it is different because I have a new teacher. . . Now it does not disturb me so much. I can sit in class and do something, although previously I focused on something else. . . I have never loved English, but my grades were good. . . I knew I had to study it, because it is everywhere.

In the case of both high-WTC students, English was their favourite subject. As Aga pointed out:

> It's because I can do well in that language. I am successful; I take part in language contests. . . English is easy, it is logical. Besides, I have no problem learning it.

On the other hand, she admitted that she liked all the school subjects, and she liked studying in general. Aneta also enjoyed all of her school subjects, especially languages. However, both were less inclined to study science subjects diligently, because they perceived no need for science in their future careers.

Again, it can be pointed out that for the low-WTC interviewees English induced a strong negative effect, augmented by high language anxiety levels. Both blamed the language's complexity and lack of logic enabling them to understand it. However, they also stated other reasons. In the case of Rafał (who persistently assessed his English skills highly) the reason could have been dyslexia, which was again confirmed by his dislike for all the foreign languages he studied. However, Natalia had a knack for languages, which could be ascertained by her positive attitude towards French. Still, she strongly blamed her teacher for generating her negative feelings towards English. It is also worth pointing out that they both agreed that learning English was a waste of time—Rafał studied for hours without any effect, while Natalia openly drew a line. She declared her hatred, which sprang from her once indifferent approach to the language, and became a negative force that prompted her to consciously avoid the subject and language use. All this finally brought her to the point where any voluntary encounter with English was unthinkable—even her presence during an English lesson was marked focusing on other things. In the case of the high-WTC participants, English was their favourite subject. They both liked learning and using it. Aga mentioned English specifically, while Aneta loved all languages. Importantly, for them language learning was connected with pleasant experiences (pleasant sounds, joy, and satisfaction). Even more, learning did not require much effort on their part, hence a study session was most welcome.

The next interview question focused on aspects of English that the respondents considered easy/difficult. Surprisingly, Natalia (low WTC) had no feelings about English at all. For her it is just another school subject imposed on her. Therefore she did not pay much thought to it:

> There is nothing easy or difficult in English – I don't know. Now English doesn't bother me – now if I had to study it, I would manage. When I care about something, I will do everything to get it. English is not a language I will use. I will stay away from English. I

must be willing to study – I must have a good teacher and a desire to learn. I can learn anything.

The other low-WTC student, Rafał, pointed out several aspects of English that he found difficult: lexis, grammar, and speaking in public.

Tenses are difficult – I don't know when to use which one... Words are most difficult, because they are hard to learn. There is nothing easy in English. Sometimes I study for a vocabulary test for 5 hours and nothing happens. I don't see a point in studying English.

His lack of success following really hard work crushed his motivation and made him especially passive:

I should have started learning English in Kindergarten. I have too little knowledge. I don't like languages in general, but I don't know why.

On the other hand, Aga, one of the high-WTC students, was convinced that English was a very simple language and she could study it without any problems.

English just pops into my head. It is concise and logical; I can easily remember all the rules. Even if there is something difficult, I just spend more time on it. English has always been my passion; I have loved it since childhood, and everything I will do in future will be connected with it.

The other high-WTC student, Aneta, was of a similar opinion. She had a feeling that during a lesson everything just got imprinted in her brain, so she did not have to work on her English after classes. However, English did pose some difficulties:

I may have problems with tenses sometimes, because I never think about them. I just use them instinctively. But whenever I need to think of which tense to use – it is harder. When I start thinking, I tend to make mistakes.

It is difficult to deduce the level of difficulty of English for both low-WTC students, as one of them (Rafał) considered himself generally poor at languages, probably due to his language impairment. For him nothing was easy; English sounded strange and he appeared stupid when using it, while Natalia consciously did not give much thought to it. This fact might be attributed to her strong avoidance behavior. However, with her talent for languages she successfully managed to pass her vocabulary tests. Again, their negative experienced identified with the process of learning and using English prevented any further positive experiences. Conversely, the high-WTC students accepted any inconveniences connected with English, and treated them as minor bumps on the road to language mastery. Aneta, who had problems with tenses, relied on her instinct, which aided her in correct language choices. That would be unthinkable in the case of the high-WTC students, who never approached English with ease.

What would you like to change in English (the teacher, your classmates, yourself)? was the next question in the interview. The low-WTC students were of mixed opinion: Natalia found fault with the teacher, while Rafał with himself:

I wouldn't change anything – my friends are fine, the teacher is good, only I don't fit. Perhaps I will have to use English in future, when I am in the army, but then I will be forced and somehow I will have to manage.

As far as the high-WTC respondents are concerned, they pointed out that everything was fine with their English instruction. Aga and Aneta accepted everything about their experiences with English. It seems that negative affect towards a foreign language was a strong obstacle in accepting learning experiences that were not always positive. The low-WTC participants found a reason for failure either in themselves (Rafał), or somebody else (Natalia). According to them, that agent was powerful enough to rob them of motivation and push them away from studying English. On the other hand, the high-WTC students agreed that learning English at school was generally a positive experience. They did not find fault anywhere, and enjoyed every opportunity to speak English in and outside school.

The last interview question focused on the practical use of English: *What could make you want to speak English?* Both low-WTC students stated that such a case did not exist at all. Natalia was sure she would always resort to French, no matter what happened. This notion indicated her desire to communicate with foreigners on her own terms (*I never speak English willingly. Nothing could push me to speak English*). Rafał, considering himself 'bumbling' and deprived of any language talent, again passively relied on external circumstances forcing him to use English:

> I speak English when I have to – my English is hopeless. When I speak it, I feel stupid, I feel strange… I am dyslexic, and when I have to speak in front of the class – I feel terribly embarrassed… I use English in group work, but I cannot speak in front of the class… I never want to use English. I cannot think about a situation in which I would want to use English… Perhaps in the future in the army I will have to use it, but then I will have to manage somehow.

Unlike the low-WTC students, the high-WTC ones loved the language and looked for any opportunity to polish their English.

> I attend a private language school. I use a lot of English there. When I go abroad to any country, I speak a lot of English, too. I like the sound of it, it is spoken all over the world, you and communicate can with everyone. English is a modern language because everyone knows it. (Aga)

During the class they loved group discussions, and felt open to every topic. They perceived no barriers as far as communication in English was concerned, and they even created their own communication opportunities by watching films in the original language, attending private English classes, and communicating in English with friends after school.

> Sometimes my friend and I communicate only in English just for the fun of it. We develop our knowledge by correcting mistakes… I even think in English! Sometimes because of English I cannot a word in Polish.

This final interview question focused on possibility of changing the respondents' attitude to using and learning English. The low-WTC interviewees were adamant about there being no chance that they would change their attitude to English. At the beginning of their adult lives they were already convinced that the language was not their priority and that in their future careers there was no place for it at all. However, Rafał admitted that he would use it when forced to, which unveils the powerful effects of negative affect—passivity, even learned helplessness. The high-WTC

students, on the other hand, identified only positive experiences with English and enjoyed every chance to use it. They even created their own opportunities for language mastery, and elaborated future scenarios that would allow them steady contact with the language in their adult lives.

The results of the research on the high- and low-WTC students' statements undoubtedly show that the common root for their attitude to communication in a foreign language is strong affect—positive in the case of high WTC scores (approach), and negative in the case of low-WTC students (avoidance). Although high- and low-WTC students may not differ in the communication profiles they present in their native language, their use of English brings about a dramatic change of affect. Those with positive affect feel secure and have strong mastery goals: they manage their learning process most effectively and create their own opportunities for learning and using the language they consider pleasant, logical, and satisfying. They have no barriers and are ready to enter a communicative act at any time. Conversely, students with low WTC levels feel coerced to learn and use the language—for them it is just another subject either not worth their interest, though unavoidable because it is imposed on them by the official study program. For them the language is no more an opportunity, but a powerful barrier connected with their language impairment, or a barrier they manufacture themselves due to negative experiences with the language teacher. With their overwhelming language anxiety levels, the types of goals they present are typically learning ones—they study English not to appear foolish and to merely pass on to the next grade. They adamantly choose to stay away from English in the future, or they have already prepared themselves to give into any given external power forcing them to use it. Sadly, although they are perfectly aware that English is a lingua franca, they will do their best to avoid it.

The general aim of this paper was to shed more light on the understanding of the role of WTC in second language acquisition from the point of view of formal language instruction. As well, it was an attempt to establish why some learners are willing to communicate in a foreign language, while others are disinclined to do so. The qualitative results of the study appear to demonstrate that, aside from the individual's general predilections towards communication, the basis for one's willingness to communicate in a foreign language is their affective bias. Low levels of WTC are generally connected with passivity, helplessness, and overwhelming fear—excluding any voluntary attempts to initiate communication in L2. On the other hand, high WTC designates language freedom, satisfaction, and security— imprinted in L2 use.

5   Conclusions and Implications

As WTC focuses on the volitional process of initiating, maintaining, and terminating communication, in the case of negative affect it is extremely difficult to count on one's free choice of initiating events endangering well-being of a language

student. For this reason it seems vital for the language teacher to create opportunities of positive experiences with English.

One of the key strategies is providing a stress-free environment that allows students to encounter more positive experiences. This can be achieved by providing emotional support, which is extremely important in threatening situations because it helps students work on their positive affect in the language learning process, and hence increase their WTC in L2. A warm and friendly teacher who is the focal point in the language learning process should be genuinely interested in students' problems, help them to effectively manage their learning, thus facilitate their communication attempts.

The teacher may also allow students to take control of their own learning. For example, the learners may be advised to choose tasks or strategies that they will apply while working on an activity. Furthermore, students should be encouraged to set goals for themselves, immediate and distant. At the same time, they should be instructed on how these goals may be achieved, what strategies to use, and in what groupings. This may also give teachers a chance to get to know students on a more personal level.

Moreover, implementing behaviours that induce higher WTC levels directly is of great importance. This can be done through creating more opportunities for learning and using a FL within the Polish cultural context. The importance of such efforts cannot be questioned due to the fact that opportunities of authentic communication outside the school context are still very rare. That is why it would be worthwhile to introduce foreigners to classes, or organize TV or Internet surfing sessions that allow the students to become better acquainted with the language. Another promising option is partner school exchanges, which may enable every student to find their own pen pal or friend whom they can visit. Pursuing intercultural communication focusing on enhancing students' interest in different cultures and international affairs should be the teacher's other goal.

This study has some limitations that need to be addressed. Although its strength lies in triangulating data and incorporating qualitative with quantitative analyses, it seems that the inclusion of other important variables could explain the formation of willingness to communicate. One of such enduring influences would be the personality dimension, which may shed more light on the participants' inclination to talk in general. Situational variables are also worth enumerating. Hence, the inclusion of more specific questions connected with the students' language biographies, or their past experiences with English would create a more elaborate picture of the origins of their positive or negative affect towards the foreign language. Another interesting option would be connected with classroom observation, focusing on recording the behaviour of specific students during the whole lesson or during specific communicative tasks. However, willingness to communicate as the immediate antecedent of L2 use definitely deserves more study, which will ultimately broaden our knowledge and understanding of psychological readiness to use foreign languages, and better enable successful language acquisition.

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Researching *Phonetics Learning Anxiety*: A Qualitative Approach

Małgorzata Baran-Łucarz

1 Introduction

Among the obligatory courses that Polish students majoring in English take is the course of phonetics,[1] aiming mainly at improving their pronunciation. Usually most of the learners declare a high level of desire to approach a native-like accent, be it Received Pronunciation (RP) or General American (GA). Throughout the course the students are provided with basic phonetic/phonological information, which they seem to acquire at an acceptable level, achieving satisfactory scores in theoretical tests. Most importantly, they receive intensive exercises at both perceptive and articulatory levels, being given a chance to practise pronunciation via controlled tasks (e.g. chorus, pair and individual imitation and reading of words, sentences and dialogues) and more meaning-focused oral exercises (e.g. role-plays). The students are also shown pronunciation practice strategies and reminded that usually effort and systematic practice are needed to raise the level of pronunciation. Still, among the learners there are always some who make very little, if any, progress. To be able to provide them with effective assistance, it is necessary to identify the sources of problems in the first place.

It appeared to me that among the possible explanations for this phenomenon may be anxiety. Numerous studies (e.g. Aida 1994; Bailey 1983; MacIntyre and Gardner 1989; Phillips 1992; Piechurska-Kuciel 2008; Saito and Samimy 1996; Spielman and Radnofsky 2001) have proven a negative correlation of moderate strength between language anxiety (LA) and success in foreign language (FL) learning, represented either by final course grades or test scores from various FL aspects and

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[1] At my department the course aiming at raising students' level of pronunciation with basic elements of phonetics and phonology is called 'Phonetics'. However, at other institutes it may be called a 'Pronunciation course'.

M. Baran-Łucarz (✉)
University of Wrocław, Wrocław, Poland
e-mail: mbaran-lucarz@ifa.uni.wroc.pl

skills. Some (e.g. MacIntyre 1999) even consider LA to be the strongest determinant of success in FL learning. It is also vital to add that the most anxiety-generating tasks are those demanding oral performance, particularly when taking place in front of other students. Moreover, the aspect learners are most anxious about, due to the fear of appearing foolish in the eyes of other learners, is pronunciation (Phillips 1992; Price 1991; Young 1992). Taking into account the data presented above and the fact that a class of phonetics run with a group of 15–20 students in a traditional classroom (rather than a language or computer laboratory) can be considered by some a stage at which they are constantly viewed and assessed by others, a project was launched to verify whether anxiety, more specifically—Phonetics Learning Anxiety (PhLA), can be an explanation for some students not benefitting from a course of phonetics or making hardly noticeable improvement.

The project had two main phases. The first one was quantitative in nature. It allowed to examine the potential subcomponents of PhLA and its relationship between the pronunciation level of the students after the course of phonetics. The second phase was qualitative, aiming at verifying the achieved numerical data with the use of various techniques. Although it is the qualitative phase that is of major concern in this paper, the basic outcomes of the quantitative study will be briefly outlined to provide a more comprehensive picture of the nature of PhLA.

2   The Definition and Model of Phonetics Learning Anxiety

The construct of Phonetics Learning Anxiety can be defined as an apprehension or fear that learners experience specifically during a class of practical phonetics, aimed mainly at improving their pronunciation and raising their basic phonetic/phonological competence, evidenced by cognitive, physiological/somatic, and behavioral symptoms. As Fig. 1 presents, it has been initially assumed that the key component of the construct is fear of being negatively evaluated by other members of the group and/or the teacher. This central element was, in turn, believed to be shaped by pronunciation self-concepts (i.e. pronunciation self-image, self-assessment and self-efficacy) and personality (i.e. a general apprehension for oral performance and concern over pronunciation mistakes). Having in mind the fact that during the phonetics course the ability to transcribe using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is taught and required from the students, anxiety related to taking tests diagnosing this ability was suggested as another potential source of apprehension accompanying these classes. Finally, it was forwarded that students' beliefs regarding the difficulty of learning pronunciation of English by Poles and the general sound of the target language would also contribute to the general level of PhLA.
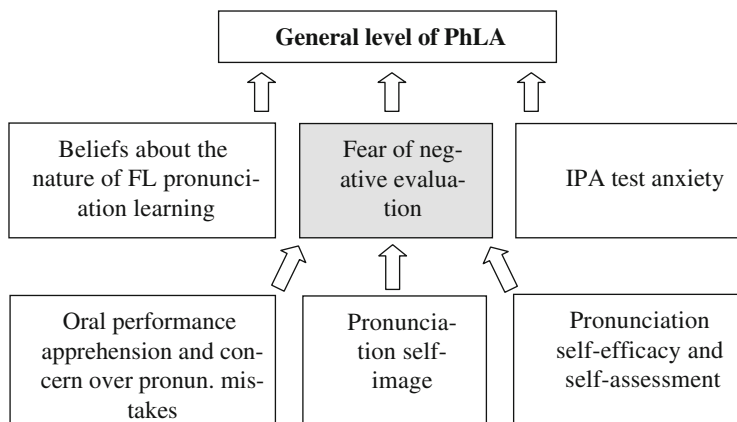
Fig. 1 A hypothetical model of Phonetics Learning Anxiety (Baran-Łucarz 2013a: 62)

3 Results of the Quantitative Study

The application of a self-report questionnaire—Phonetics Learning Anxiety Scale (PhLAS)—and a Pronunciation Attainment Test, allowing to assess the achieved habits of pronouncing particular aspects of the English phonetic system and word pronunciation after the course of phonetics, made it possible to examine the relationship between students' PhLA and their level of pronunciation represented after the course of phonetics. The results of Pearson correlation showed a statistically significant negative relationship of moderate strength ($r = -.44$ at $p < .005$) between the two variables in the case of pronunciation habits. However, when word pronunciation is concerned, the correlation proved non-significant. The link between anxiety and pronunciation skills after training was also supported by *t*-test results, which proved the pronunciation of high anxiety students to be at a lower level than that of low anxiety learners. This time, however, the scores were found to be statistically significant in the case of both pronunciation habits and word pronunciation, though the differences were more meaningful in the case of the former than the latter.

The design of the PhLAS, whose items addressed the general level of PhLA and all its hypothetical subcomponents, drew some light on the nature of the construct. As presupposed, the strongest correlate of the general level of PhLA was fear of negative evaluation ($r = .82$), with pronunciation self-image ($r = 70$), personality ($r = .65$) and pronunciation self-efficacy/self-assessment ($r = .60$) being just behind (all at $p < .005$). It is also beliefs of learners that showed a statistically significant correlation with the level of anxiety ($r = .46$ at $p < .005$). Finally, although IPA test anxiety was not found to be linked to the anxiety degree, the outcome needs to be viewed with caution due to low internal consistency of this potential subcomponent of PhLA, which might have resulted from ambiguous wording of a few statements addressing this category in the self-report questionnaire.

4 Qualitative Data

The nature of the construct of PhLA and its role in FL pronunciation learning are illuminated by rich qualitative data collected with three different tools, i.e. written answers to open questions, semi-structured interviews, and think alouds. All the qualitative data were gathered in the period from February to May 2013 among two groups of extramural students[2] (N = 28) majoring in English, who had just begun their second semester of the course of phonetics at the Department of English Studies, University of Wrocław. The techniques applied for collecting the data and discussion of the gathered information will be presented respectively in this subsection.

4.1 *Written Answers to Open Questions*

After the first semester of the phonetics course, the level of students' PhLA was diagnosed with the pen-and-pencil Phonetics Learning Anxiety Scale, distributed to them during one of the classes of phonetics. The self-report questionnaire was followed by two written open questions, which most of the students responded to. Although their main aim was to learn more about the phenomenon of anxiety accompanying pronunciation practice, they were also a means of encouraging reflection in the learners about possible sources of their apprehension, ways of dealing with it and overcoming it.

The first question enquired directly about the possible sources of anxiety experienced during the classes of phonetics. It had the following form: *"What makes you/might make you anxious during a class of phonetics?"* The answers provided by the respondents are quoted below, grouped into a few categories.

Low perceived phonetics competence/low pronunciation self-assessment and self-efficacy:

- *"Lack of knowledge on how to pronounce certain words."*
- *"Being unprepared to the class."*
- *"I feel anxious when I keep mispronouncing the sound despite the articulatory description I get from the teacher; when I can't position my articulators the way they should be positioned to pronounce a sound properly."*
- *"Being unprepared; not having practised at home."*
- *"Although I practise reading the texts at home, in class my pronunciation is much worse than at home."*
- *"Difficulties with hearing word stress, identifying sounds, reading aloud."*
- *"Difficulties with pronouncing some sounds, e.g. the 'th' sound."*

Fear of negative evaluation (negative self-image/low self-efficacy):

- *"Reactions of other students to my pronunciation mistakes."*

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[2] Many thanks to the students participating in the research.

- *"Having to read in English in front of classmates; I often compare myself with them."*
- *"Knowing that my pronunciation is Polish-like."*
- *"It depends on who is in the group. Now I am not afraid of my friends' reactions but next semester when other students join our group, I will definitely feel more anxious."*
- *"My pronunciation is at a lower level than that of my classmates; besides I think I look silly when trying to articulate some sounds."*

Personality:

- *"I get stressed because I feel the pressure to achieve the highest grades."*
- *"My tendency to get easily anxious."*
- *"My shyness."*

Others:

- *"Fast pace and fear of 'getting lost'."*

Most explanations were easy to classify, since they were precise and referred directly to a certain type of cause, i.e. *"My shyness."*—personality; "*I think I look silly . . .*"—negative pronunciation self-image; "Reactions of other students. . ."—fear of negative evaluation. However, some responses were more general or ambiguous, implying a few potential sources of apprehension, e.g. "*Being unprepared; not having practised at home.*" might indirectly be related to worry caused by considering one's phonetic competence low and/or one's pronunciation poor, due to not having practised at home. Feeling concerned about this fact being revealed to classmates might, in turn, be related to the fear of negative evaluation.

The second question aimed at examining students' ideas on what might be done in the classroom to lower their PhLA. It was put in the following way: "*What could reduce your anxiety experienced during a course of phonetics?*" As in the case of responses to the first question, an attempt was made to group the answers provided by the students, so as to make it easier to see any tendencies in the responses.

Intergroup relationships/classroom atmosphere/rapport with the teacher:

- *"Getting to know better the other members of the group; improving the group atmosphere."*
- *"Better rapport among the students."*
- *"Music and laughter."*
- *"A smiling teacher."*
- *"Good contact with the teacher, gentle correction with a smile."*

Low level of competence/skills:

- *"More classes of phonetics and more practice."*
- *"Better competence and pronunciation skills."*
- *"Fewer transcription tests."*
- *"More practice at home."*
- *"Practice, practice, practice. . ."*
- *"Improving my pronunciation."*

Fear of negative evaluation:

- *"It is less stressing to work with people you know well."*

- *"Individual meetings could help me eliminate my pronunciation mistakes more effectively and then I wouldn't be so stressed."*

Personality:

- *"There is no remedy; it's my fault – I expect best results from myself."*

Affective and metacognitive strategies:

- *"Learning to accept the stress and becoming friends with it."*
- *"Laughing from your mistakes."*
- *"Not losing the materials distributed by the teacher."*
- *"Having my homework done."*

As the quotations above reveal, some students pointed to external remedies, i.e. those they cannot easily influence but that can be introduced by the teacher/ institution, such as improving the classroom atmosphere and dynamics, reducing the size of the group, or fostering good teacher-student rapport. However, many remarks of the learners seemed to refer to internal remedies, i.e. those they believe they can introduce and take control of, such as raising phonetic competence, improving pronunciation via systematic practice out of class, and employing affective and meta-cognitive strategies. What captivates attention is the remark of an unhealthy perfectionist, who expects perfect performance from him-/herself and sees no effective remedy, rejecting any help and assistance from the outside.

4.2 Semi-structured Interviews

Another technique applied to shed more light on the nature of anxiety accompanying FL pronunciation practice run in a traditional classroom was an interview with a pre-set structure. The subjects invited to take part in this stage were those who achieved very high scores on the PhLAS, and thus were considered highly anxious. The participation in the interview was voluntary; consequently, the objection of a few students to take part in it was respected. The interviews had the form of face-to-face conversations taking place with the phonetics teacher (author of this paper). The language of the interview was the learners' mother tongue. Having received permission of the subjects, the conversations were recorded, which freed the interviewer from taking notes and gave the talk a more natural unobstructed flow. The interviews lasted approximately 20 min each.

An attempt was made to introduce an informal atmosphere of the conversation. Therefore, the talk began with a short opening, which was directed more by the interviewee than the teacher. The learners would usually talk about a test they had just taken or plans for the coming weekend. They were assured of anonymity and confidentiality and explained that the point of the conversation was to find out more about their feelings accompanying FL pronunciation practice, which would hopefully contribute to making the phonetics classes less stressing and more effective. In the main body of the interview, the subjects were guided to share thoughts about

their motivation, potential reasons for feeling anxious, and suggestions on how to lower anxiety during the lessons of phonetics. The interviews closed with discussing and deciding together on strategies that could be used by the students to improve their pronunciation at home and to reduce stress accompanying learning this aspect in the classroom. Below are summaries of interviews conducted with three highly anxious students.

Student A scored over 2 standard deviations above the mean on the PhLAS. She eagerly shared her opinions and feelings with me, showing a high level of involvement and emotionality. Here are examples of her responses concerning particular matters:

Motivation:

"I want to be communicative, but I don't have to sound like a native speaker."

Beliefs:

"Pronunciation is one of the most difficult aspects for FL learners to master. Maybe even the most difficult. I can't just learn it in a few hours like some new vocabulary. I know it requires regular practice."

Self-assessment:

"I perfectly realize that my pronunciation is at a lower level than that of my friends."

Self-image/fear of negative evaluation/personality:

"I look unnatural when producing the 'th' sounds. We don't have them in Polish so they seem a bit 'abnormal' to me."
"I like to speak English but only to myself. When I read or say sth. in English in the classroom, I have the feeling that the level of my pronunciation is lower than when I speak to myself. Probably, it's because I get so nervous. Why? Because I know others are looking at and listening to me, and I don't like to be 'in the center of interest.' I generally, don't like to perform in public, particularly when I know my performance is poor."

Self-efficacy/cognitive style:

"I don't have a talent to pick up pronunciation and I have to practise a lot to progress. I acknowledge that I don't work hard enough."
"I'm not an auditory type of learner. When I listen to a lecture, e.g. from literature, I don't remember much of it."

Transcription anxiety:

"As you know, I'm not good at transcription, but . . . no . . .writing a test is less stressing than reading aloud individually. But I don't mind reading in chorus."

Remedy:

"Systematic individual practice should facilitate progress. A higher level of pronunciation would probably make me less stressed."

What strikes in these responses are the student's low pronunciation self-perceptions, i.e. she believes her pronunciation is at a much lower than that of her friends, and that she has no talent for learning this FL aspect, which, according to her, is particularly difficult by definition. Moreover, she does not seem to accept

herself pronouncing certain segments, which she assumes have features that make them sound as if "abnormal". Finally, the student is aware of experiencing the feeling of apprehension, blaming her personality for it. Although the interviewee does not mention directly her fear of being evaluated by others, such an explanation for her apprehension can be read between lines. Finally, the learner assumes her anxiety accompanying pronunciation learning would drop if her pronunciation was at a higher level.

Student B was another female student. She scored 1 standard deviation above the mean in the PhLAS, proving to be among the more anxious students. Just as Student A, she claimed achieving a native-like level of pronunciation was not her priority. Instead, she said: "*I want to be communicative.*" Below are her responses to further questions, grouped into separate categories.

Self-assessment:

"I am among those students whose pronunciation is poor."
"I am not satisfied with my level and I don't think I've made too much progress."

Level of anxiety/source—low competence/fear of negative evaluation:

"I feel discomfort related to stress. Sometimes it's caused by the fast pace of the lesson. I'm worried I may get lost having too little time to rewrite something from the board or take notes of sth. explained orally."
"I feel stressed when I have to read aloud, I feel much better reading with my friend in pair work….Why am I stressed to read aloud? Because I am afraid I can make a mistake… And? . . . And all my friends will hear it."
"I feel stressed because I fear what the others will think of me, although I know them well and like them. I simply fear the reaction of my classmates."

Self-image:

"I don't think I look different when I speak English. Some sounds are funny, but not in the negative sense."
"I like to sing to myself and sometimes talk to myself aloud in English."

Remedy:

"The group could be smaller and the pace slower."
"It would be great if we could meet individually every week or at least month."
"I should definitely practise pronunciation more at home. Then probably I would feel more confident and less anxious."

Similarly to Student A, Student B was not satisfied with her level of pronunciation. When asked about her feelings accompanying pronunciation practice during the course of phonetics and possible explanations for them, she mentioned feeling worried and stressed, blaming the fast pace of the lesson and referring directly to being afraid of the reaction of her classmates to the mistakes she might make. Interestingly, however, this student has a positive pronunciation self-image, i.e. she entirely accepts the way she sounds in English. Thus, her fear seems to arise more from mispronounciations at a word level than improper articulation of the phonetic system, e.g. of particular segments practised during the course. Finally, as Student A, the learner believes her anxiety would be lower if her pronunciation

became better. This time, however, improvements related to course organization and management were also offered.

Student C was particularly interesting to me, since during the course he evidently showed typical symptoms (behavioral, somatic, cognitive) of being anxious. For example, he would avoid eye contact with the teacher, and when asked to read aloud, he would read quietly and quickly, as if 'wishing to have it done' as fast as possible, paying little attention to accuracy. Moreover, he would giggle in situations which did not seem funny, perspire and blush when asked to perform any task in public. Finally, he was reluctant and sometimes even objected to take part in such activities as articulatory gymnastics or reading in English pretending to be a native speaker of Polish, which, as further data showed (Baran-Łucarz 2013b), appeared to be highly anxiety-provoking. Finally, it is important to add that the pronunciation of the student was rather poor. Among the sounds that the learner was mispronouncing and whose improvement was very difficult, slow and hardly noticeable after the second semester of phonetics were interdentals. At the same time, the student's number of points obtained on the PhLAS (0.8 standard deviation above the mean) did not seem to represent well and correspond to the level of anxiety as expected from his reactions observed in the classroom. Although the learner was not too eager to take part in the interview, being convinced about the practical benefits resulting from the conversation, he agreed to talk to me. Here are the most important fragments of his responses:

Motivation:

"Yes, pronunciation is important." [3/4 on a scale from 1 to 5]
"I want to be communicative, but not only, I would like to speak like an English NS."

Beliefs:

"Pronunciation and listening are the most difficult skills to acquire by a FL learner."

Self-assessment/self-efficacy:

"I don't have particular difficulties with learning pronunciation. It's rather easy for me."
"I'm among the good students, I would say I'm a 7/8." [On a scale from 1 to 10]
"I have made progress this year; I am satisfied with my level of pronunciation, though, of course, it could be better."

Level of anxiety/source—low competence/fear of negative evaluation:

"I am relaxed at the classes of phonetics."
"Sometimes I feel a bit stressed ['lekki stresik']."
"When am I stressed? When I mispronounce something."
"No, I don't mind reading aloud." [A few seconds later] ... *"Today I didn't want to read aloud because I felt a bit embarrassed. Why?* [longer period of silence] *Difficult to say...I think that's just the way I am ... What am I like? A bit shy, I guess."*
"I don't feel any discomfort reading aloud the dialogues with interdentals." [the sounds he has most problems with] ... *"I know that when I mispronounce something you will provide the correct version."*

Self-image/sound of English:

"I think when people speak a FL they change."
"Interdentals are a bit different than Polish sounds."

Remedy:

"I can't think of anything."
"Yes, individual practise is always better because it's adjusted to the student's needs."
"The size of the group is not that important. But … in a smaller group you get more practice. Besides, I prefer my group because I know everybody in it."

The first thing that strikes in the answers of this student is lack of consistency (sometimes contradictory responses are provided) and his indecisiveness. Secondly, as in the pen-and-pencil test (PhLAS), the answers do not seem to reveal a learner with a particularly high anxiety level. Surprisingly, the student directly states, "*I am relaxed at the classes of phonetics.*" The question that arises is the extent to which the answers provided by the subject are candid. Among the explanations for hiding the truth may be his trying to please the phonetics teacher, which the sentence "*I know that when I mispronounce something you will provide the correct version.*" seems to imply. However, what seems more probable is that building such a false picture and rejecting to acknowledge to oneself and significant others (teacher, classmates) the existence of the feeling of apprehension is a defensive type of reaction. What might be a way of protecting his ego is also perceiving his pronunciation at a higher level than it actually appears to be. It is only further questions that lead to his confessing that he does experience stress and embarrassment during the course of phonetics, which, as the learner assumes, is mainly due to his personality (shyness). His short remarks on self-image, the sound of English, and his preference to work with people he knows well imply that his practice of pronunciation is not anxiety-free. Finally, it is worth adding that the case of Student C shows how reflecting on one's emotions and admitting the existence of apprehension might be difficult.

4.3   Think Alouds

The last type of qualitative data described in this paper are those gathered by a think aloud technique. Its main procedure outline was inspired by Gregersen and Horwitz (2002), who observed symptoms of perfectionism among anxious students. The aim of this technique was to elicit more information from high and low PhLA students about the pronunciation self-concepts, particularly self-image and its acceptance, and perceptions of the level of pronunciation skills.

The think aloud had two main stages. In the first one, students were video recorded with the use a laptop and ECap in the teacher's office while performing two tasks, i.e. (1) a controlled activity consisting in reading aloud short texts with interdentals, post-alveolars and velar /n/, well-known to the learners, and (2) a free speaking task, i.e. a conversation with me about either their plans for holidays, future job or interests. In the second phase, the subjects were asked to talk aloud about their feelings and whatever came to their mind and they wished to say while

watching short fragments of their performance recorded in the first stage. Occasionally, in the case of longer periods of silence, the learners were prompted with questions posed by the teacher. This time their talk was audio recorded with the use of an mp3 IC recorder (SONY ICD-UX300) and then transcribed for further analysis. Each stage took approximately 10 min, although some students were eager to talk longer after having seen and heard their performance.

Although five students participated in this part of the project, due to space limitations of the paper the results of think alouds conducted with two students— one non-anxious and one highly anxious—will be discussed. As in the case of the earlier stages of the project, the learners had the right to pass, i.e. could reject cooperating. However, all the invited subjects agreed to take part in the activity.

Student D was a non-anxious learner, who scored approximately 2 standard deviations below the mean. She participated most eagerly in the task and reacted to it with true interest. While listening to and watching herself, the first thing that captivated her attention was her slight speech impediment (also in L1), which she had not been aware of earlier. Moreover, she focused on identifying those aspects of her English pronunciation that she still had problems with, revealing a neutral or even positive attitude to her mispronunciations and promising herself to work on these features. She also observed that when she was focusing on pronunciation during performance, it was much better than when she was concentrating on meaning or other aspects. Finally, she concluded that she generally needed to practise more to make her pronunciation accurate in all kinds of oral tasks and contexts. Despite all the deficiencies the student became aware of, she did not reveal a negative attitude towards her observed self-image. She was grateful for having participated in the activity, claiming she had benefitted a lot from it.

Student E was a male student, who scored 1.5 standard deviations above the mean, proving to be a highly anxious PhLA learner. Below are some fragments of the second stage of the think aloud conducted by him.

> "...I am slowly getting used to my voice because for some while I've been recording and listening to myself on Youtube. But even now, I still think I sound a bit unnatural and I don't quite like my voice when I speak English. I find it kind of odd and sometimes unpleasant."
>
> "...I am surprised I am talking at all. That's why I came to study here...I mean ...I was hoping I would finally open and start speaking. I can see that now it's much better. But I am still stressed particularly at conversation classes. Why? I have no idea. I guess it's the matter of my personality."
>
> "I find it interesting that when I record myself at home my performance is much better than in the classroom."
>
> "I look strange saying the voiced and voiceless interdentals. I keep moving my tongue strangely around [wywijam i świruję tym językiem]. Don't you think I look odd? ...I'm still not sure if my velar /n/ is articulated properly. I think it doesn't sound well."
>
> "(laughter)... If only my teeth were different. I would rather not show them. They look terrible."

What evidently differentiates the content of the think aloud provided by Student E from that of Student D are comments on his self-image, which usually have a negative connotation. The subject mentions disliking his voice when speaking English, seems uncomfortable with his visual image both when speaking English

and generally (comments about his teeth). He also shows he is aware of the apprehension and discusses its possible sources (personality, classroom context). Finally, he seems to lack confidence and views his speaking/pronunciation skills as rather poor. It is vital to add that the pronunciation of this student when taking part in this project was at a good level and that he was underestimating his pronunciation skills.

5   Conclusions

The qualitative data described in this paper gathered with three different techniques corroborate to a large extent the quantitative outcomes achieved and presented earlier on the importance and nature of Phonetics Learning Anxiety (Baran-Łucarz 2013a). The students revealing a high level of PhLA, unlike their low PhLA classmates, were found to be particularly concerned about their pronunciation self-image, which was usually negative. The subjects also proved to perceive their pronunciation at a low level and often believed that pronunciation was a very difficult aspect to master and that they had no talent to pick up or learn this FL aspect. Moreover, most of the anxious students participating in the qualitative part of the project confessed they were indeed afraid of the reactions of their friends, whom they considered to have better pronunciations than they. It is worth reminding that the fear related to transcribing and writing IPA tests was mentioned only marginally by some subjects, implying that this ability is indeed less anxiety-provoking than oral performance in the classroom.

The observations not only validate the componential character of the construct of Phonetics Learning Anxiety. The remarks of the anxious students seem also to show that the learners are very much aware of the feeling of apprehension accompanying their pronunciation practice and its negative effect on their efforts and progress. Thus, finding effective ways of assisting these students in reducing their apprehension appears to be of utmost importance. To start with, it may be worth considering the suggestions provided by the subjects of this study on how their anxiety experienced during a course of phonetics or pronunciation can be lowered. Many practical ideas addressing this issue can be found in Gregersen and MacIntyre (2013), Horwitz and Young (1991), and Young (1999).

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A Qualitative and Quantitative Investigation into the Relevance of Pronunciation Instruction: Piloting Data Collection Tools

Ewa Czajka

1 Introduction

The necessity of implementing pronunciation instruction into foreign language teaching is uncontroversial. However, a closer look at the school reality in Poland suggests the opposite. During regular English lessons the aspects of pronunciation receive little, if any attention. Teachers' and learners' focus is rather on mastering knowledge of grammatical structures and developing English lexicon. The outcome of this neglect, particularly visible in upper-secondary level of education, is a substantial discrepancy between the learners' poor command of English pronunciation and other language areas, especially vocabulary knowledge. A direct consequence of this pattern is that in their 3-year upper secondary school education, during which students learn hundreds of semantically related words, they are also making a continuous progress in *mispronouncing* more words.

1.1 Reasons for Neglecting Pronunciation

Marginalization of pronunciation is a worldwide phenomenon (Levis and LeVelle 2010), with Poland being no exception. One of the possible reasons emerging from the literature on the subject is the instructors' lack of knowledge and skill, both necessary for including pronunciation element in their teaching. Several authors (e.g. Baran-Łucarz 2006b; Fraser 2002; Gilbert 2010; Henderson et al. 2012; Levis and LeVelle 2010; MacDonald 2002) claim this incompetence to be the result of an inadequate and insufficient teacher training in which pronunciation instruction is usually overlooked, and limited amount of practical phonetics in upper education curricula. Furthermore, Baran-Łucarz (2006b) points to the lack of pronunciation

E. Czajka (✉)
University of Wrocław, Wrocław, Poland

teaching guidelines in methodology books, and Gilbert (2010) highlights the importance of unavailability and impracticality of the research reports, which fail to offer clear, practical classroom implications.

Another important factor is the absence of pronunciation in school curricula (Gilbert 2010; Levis and LeVelle 2010). It is most likely caused by the backwash effect of final examinations in which phonetics is of limited importance (Baran-Łucarz 2006a, b; Dłutek 2006). Dłutek's (2006) analysis of Maturity exam assessment criteria reveals that in the case of lexis and grammatical structures, learners are expected to exhibit different levels of proficiency, depending on whether they are taking basic, or higher form of the test. However, in reference to pronunciation production abilities, the same level is expected regardless of the form of the examination. This absence of pronunciation assessment framework means that there are no developmental steps to aim at and direct the learners' progress in this area (MacDonald 2002).

Thirdly, there exists a scarcity of appropriate pronunciation teaching materials (Baran-Łucarz 2006a, b; MacDonald 2002). It has been noticed that pronunciation, even if included in the course book's content, is usually offered as an additional material, not integrated with the rest of the unit (Tennant 2007; Gilbert 2010; Underhill 2010). Not embedding the element of pronunciation in a manner that would create a cohesive whole makes it likely to be viewed as optional, and therefore, to be skipped in the course of the lesson.

Last but not least is the perceived ineffectiveness of pronunciation instruction. As Baran-Łucarz (2006a) explains, teachers consider pronunciation instruction to be a waste of time since the learners' progress is rarely visible. It seems that language instructors fail to recognize the necessity of devoting time and ensuring instructional consistency to allow for their students' development of pronunciation skills. Not seeing the results immediately leads to the assumption that pronunciation instruction is simply not beneficial.

1.2 Teacher Cognition and Pronunciation Instruction

Despite the interest in the subject matter there is limited number of reports on in-service teacher cognition with regard to pronunciation instruction. One of the two studies conducted heretofore in Poland is Szpyra-Kozłowska et al.'s (2002) quantitative research. Its aim was to investigate which elements of phonetics are covered in upper secondary school English class. The data was gathered by the means of questionnaire, which comprised 35 different aspects of pronunciation. Among the respondents were a 100 upper secondary school teachers who were asked to mark the aspects they had taught.

The same year Wrembel (2002) conducted a research on teacher cognition with regard to pronunciation instruction. The author utilized a questionnaire with open and close-ended questions, so the data gathered were both qualitative and quantitative in nature.

Table 1 Comparison of the research into Polish teachers' cognition in reference to pronunciation instruction

	Szpyra-Kozłowska et al. (2002)	Wrembel (2002)
Method	Quantitative	Quantitative/qualitative
Main instrument	Questionnaire	Questionnaire
Respondents	Upper secondary school teachers and learners	Primary and upper secondary school teachers
Authors' comments	Lack of correspondence between the teachers' and the learners' answers	Lack of correspondence between the results of the questionnaires and the informal, introductory interviews

The two studies (summarized in Table 1) are valuable not only because of the issue they address, but also because they both provide some interesting comments on their results, revealing useful information about the validity of the data collection tools. Szpyra-Kozłowska et al. (2002) notice that although teachers reported on introducing a wide array of aspects of pronunciation, it was only partially supported by the results gathered by the means of the questionnaire for learners, in which case, the number of aspects was smaller. It is impossible to ascertain which group of subjects, teachers or learners, provided more reliable answers. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to assume that due to the social desirability bias (as defined by Dörnyei 2010), language instructors were prone to report on introducing many aspects of pronunciation because they considered this behavior to be appropriate.

A similar observation questioning the validity of the research instrument was made by Wrembel (2002). The participants were asked, inter alia, to enumerate the aspects of pronunciation they considered to be the most important. The results of questionnaire suggested that these were mostly suprasegmental features, with intonation being mentioned most frequently. However, as the author points out, according to informal interviews administered prior to the research, these were mostly chosen aspects of segmental pronunciation. The lack of correspondence between the results seems particularly striking in this study, as the contradicting answers were provided by the same group of subjects. It also indicates that the dubious outcome of the question was the effect of a particular data collection method utilized.

2 Rationale and Experimental Design

The author recognized the need for conducting a study that would provide teachers with the opportunity to share their views on the relevance of pronunciation instruction in upper secondary education in Poland. As manifested in the contributions referred to above, investigation into teacher cognition, largely based on the participants' reflection and self-evaluation, is particularly susceptible to response distortion. Obtaining reliable data in a comprehensive research requires a thorough,

preliminary analysis of the instruments to be utilized. Therefore, the main aim of the reported study was to design and pilot data collection tools. The procedure employed allow for the comparison of the validity and richness of the information obtained by the means of qualitative and quantitative methods.

2.1 Research Tools

The research employed two types of instruments. Firstly, a specially designed, *written questionnaire* was administered for the collection of *quantitative* data. This was followed by individual *interviews* with the teachers used as a *qualitative* research method, which allowed for a more direct interaction with the subjects of the study.

2.1.1 Designing and Piloting the Questionnaire

Before administering the questionnaire to the subjects' group intended, the instrument was piloted in February 2013 with four participants; two upper secondary school teachers, and two applied linguists. The author of the study was not present during the completion of the questionnaire; however, the participants included a considerable number of comments on the sheet's margins and elaborated on them extensively during the meeting that followed. Implementing this procedure allowed for the first draft of the questionnaire to be assessed not only through the analysis of its results, but also through discussing and negotiating.

Piloting the instrument revealed that upper secondary school teachers did not understand terminology used in the questionnaire (e.g. implicit, explicit, segmental, suprasegmental). They also reported difficulties marking statements that referred to pronunciation teaching methods, as they claimed that they did not know any. In order to avoid the participants answering questions, which they might not understand, some extensive changes had to be implemented in the content and form of the questionnaire used in the following stage of the study. Firstly, a few statements had to be deleted completely. Secondly, if possible, additional explanations and/or examples were included.

The final version of the instrument was administered in March 2013. It comprised of three parts. The first part of the questionnaire included 13 attitudinal statements and was used to gather information about the teachers' opinions and attitudes towards pronunciation teaching. The participants were asked to mark the statements on a five-point Likert scale. The response options provided were: *Strongly agree (1)—Agree (2)—Neither (3)—Disagree (4)—Strongly disagree (5).*

The second part of the questionnaire was devoted to pronunciation teaching practice. It comprised of 23 behavioral statements. Again, a five-point Likert scale was used, with the response options: *Always (1)—Often (2)—Sometimes (3)—Rarely (4)—Never (5).*

Table 2 Participants' profiles

Participant	Sex	Age	Teaching experience	Educational background
1	f	28	2	University
2	f	33	9	University
3	m	33	11	University
4	f	37	12	University
5	f	40	13	Philological School of Higher Education (retrained)
6	f	–	14	English proficiency exam (retrained)
7	f	42	17	University
8	f	43	17	University
9	f	–	20	Teacher Training College

The final part of the questionnaire included factual information used for delineating the subjects' demographic profiles, which are presented in Table 2 in the following section of the paper.

2.1.2 Interviews

After administering the questionnaire, the author of the paper interviewed every participant individually. The interviewing was conducted in April 2013. The main objective of this stage was to ensure a conversational, informal character of the situation and allow the teachers to express their opinions in an uninhibited manner. The participants could provide responses using either Polish or English, which in practice was a mixture of the two languages. Firstly, the interviewees were encouraged to comment on the questionnaire statements and elaborate on anything that had drawn their attention. A list of predetermined questions was used only as an aid whenever the respondents had nothing to say. Rather, the researcher tried to direct the conversation towards the subject matter under investigation.

2.2 Subjects of the Study

The study was conducted with nine (N = 9) teachers of English (Table 2 delineates the participants' profiles). All instructors had been working in the same upper secondary school in Wrocław, and were all Polish native speakers. There were eight females (f = 8) and one male teacher (m = 1), aged from 28 to 43 (two teachers were reluctant to share their age). Their teaching experience varied from only 2 to 20 years. Most had studied at the University, one was a Teacher Training College graduate, and there were two participants (no.5, no.6) who had been retrained. Participant no.5 used to be a music teacher, and no.6 a teacher of Russian.

3 Results of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered in March 2013. Table 3 delineates the results of the first part of the instrument, which was to gather data on the participants' opinions towards pronunciation teaching. Generally, the teachers did not supply contrastive answers, and were prone to select options close to the middle of the scale. They presented no definite attitudes towards their or their students' likes (statements 2, 4 and 5). They claimed that as instructors, they are good pronunciation models for their learners (statement 3). Furthermore, *good pronunciation* was considered to be the factor influencing the learners' results in Maturity exam (statement 8); however, not indispensable for passing it (statement 7). The fact that the answers chosen for statements 9 and 10 were almost identical suggests that teachers equate comfortable intelligibility with native-like pronunciation. Finally, the participants referred to their students' abilities as being adequate for communicating in English with other Polish speakers and foreigners (statements 12, 13), but refrained from judging the learners' abilities as far as communicating with English native speakers was considered (statement 11).

Table 4 presents the outcome of the second part of the questionnaire, which was to gather information about the teachers' classroom practice. This time, a greater variety in the participants' responses can be observed. Analyzing the outcome of the statements 1, 2, 3 and 4 suggest that pronunciation is taught more often to advanced students. This result does not correspond to Szpyra-Kozłowska et al.'s (2002) findings, which report on pronunciation being introduced mostly to students of lower level of English proficiency. Most teachers admitted that they had not been using any additional materials (statement 6), or materials of their own design (statement 7). Also, the results revealed that segmental and suprasegmental aspects receive moderate attention in the classroom (statements 8, 10). The teachers pointed to word stress as being taught *often* (statement 9). Furthermore, the data obtained suggest that pronunciation production is practiced more frequently than perception (statements 11, 12). Presenting articulatory charts (statement 15) or instructing students on articulatory gestures (statement 16) in not a common classroom practice. Teachers *often* correct their students' mispronunciations (statement 19) and provide extra help for the weaker learners (statement 20). They *sometimes* introduce phonetic alphabet (statement 17) and refer to it during the lesson (statement 18). Students are *rarely* tested on pronunciation (statement 21), but it is taken into account when grading (statement 22). Lastly, the teachers claimed that they *often* use English when conducting lessons (statement 23).

Internal consistency of the instrument was confirmed using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient, and yielded a .787 for the first part, and a .881 for the second part.

Table 3 Results of the first part of the questionnaire; attitudinal statements

	Median	Mode	Range	Inter-quartile range
1. I feel confident in teaching pronunciation	3	3	2	1
2. I like teaching pronunciation	3	3	2	0.5
3. I am a good pronunciation model for my students	2	2	3	1.5
4. My students like learning about pronunciation	3	3	3	1.5
5. My students like practicing pronunciation	3	3	3	2
6. Pronunciation is teachable	2	2	2	1
7. Good pronunciation is necessary for passing Maturity exam	3	4	2	2
8. Students with good pronunciation achieve higher results in Maturity exam	2	2	1	0.5
9. Students should aim at comfortable intelligibility	2	2	1	0
10. Students should aim at native-like pronunciation	2	2	2	0
11. Students who pass Maturity exam are able to communicate successfully with English native speakers	3	3	2	1
12. Students who pass Maturity exam are able to communicate successfully with foreigners, who are not English native speakers (e.g. Germans, French, Italians etc.)	2	2	1	1
13. Students who pass Maturity exam are able to communicate successfully with other Polish speakers using English	2	2	1	0.5

4 Results of the Interview

The interviews generated large quantity of data on the teachers' practice and views towards pronunciation teaching. There was a substantial disproportion between the amounts of information provided by different participants. Some teachers (e.g. participants no.2 and no.8) had little to say on the subject. Others, especially no.7, were very keen on sharing their opinions. Therefore, the length of every interview differed considerably; from only 5 to about 45 min.

As the main aim of the study was to compare usefulness and validity of the research instruments utilized, this section of the paper presents *qualitative results of the interview* and juxtaposes them with the *quantitative data gathered by the means of the questionnaires* submitted by particular research participants. Due to limited space only a sample of the amassed data is reported.

The interviewee no.7 began by admitting: "We don't teach pronunciation", and continued:

> I don't particularly like teaching pronunciation. I do it during private lessons, but it's a completely different situation, our students are not intelligent enough, too stupid to benefit from it (participant no.7).

Despite a clear indication that this participant feels reluctant towards implement pronunciation element in her teaching, to the questionnaire statement: *I like*

Table 4 Results of the second part of the questionnaire; behavioral statements

	Mean	Mode	Range	Inter-quartile range
1. I teach pronunciation to pre-intermediate students	3	3	2	1.5
2. I teach pronunciation to intermediate students	2	3	2	2
3. I teach pronunciation to upper-intermediate students	2	3	3	2
4. I teach pronunciation to final-year students	2	2	4	1
5. I use course book when teaching pronunciation	2	2	3	2.5
6. I use additional materials when teaching pronunciation	4	5	4	2.5
7. I devise my own pronunciation teaching materials	4	5	2	1.5
8. I introduce segmental aspects of pronunciation (individual sounds)	3	3	3	2
9. I introduce word-stress	2	2	3	1.5
10. I introduce suprasegmental aspects of pronunciation (e.g. intonation, weak forms, elision etc.)	3	3	3	1.5
11. I provide my students with the opportunity to practice pronunciation production (e.g. repeating after the model)	2	2	3	1
12. I provide my students with the opportunity to practice pronunciation perception (e.g. minimal pair discrimination tasks)	3	3	3	1
13. I draw my students' attention to differences between Polish and English phonological systems	3	3	3	0
14. I introduce pronunciation rules	3	3	3	1
15. I present articulatory charts	4	5	2	1.5
16. I instruct my students on articulatory gestures (e.g. position of the tongue)	4	4	3	1.5
17. I introduce phonetic alphabet (e.g. cat/kæt/)	3	3	4	2
18. I use phonetic alphabet during lessons (e.g. when introducing new vocabulary)	3	3	3	1.5
19. I correct my students' pronunciation errors	2	2	2	0.5
20. I provide extra help for the students who have problems with pronunciation	2	2	3	1
21. I test my students on pronunciation	4	4	2	1
22. When I grade my students I take pronunciation into account	3	3	3	2
23. I use English when talking to my students in class	2	2	1	1

teaching pronunciation she had chosen the option: *Neutral*. Furthermore, when asked about reasons for neglecting pronunciation, the teacher replied:

> ...Simply because there is nothing on pronunciation in the course books. There are so many other things that we have to do; designing and assessing progress and short tests takes loads of time. We are simply snowed under with work so I don't have enough time to be bothered with looking for additional materials, or preparing something myself. If there was something in the course books, I think I'd probably do it. Maybe (participant no.7).

The participant continued by saying: "I don't think I've ever prepared pronunciation teaching material. Never". However, in the questionnaire, the statement: *I devise my own pronunciation teaching materials* was marked by this participant:

Rarely. Furthermore, when asked about the importance of pronunciation teaching in light of the Maturity exam requirements, the teacher remarked:

> Obviously our job is to prepare our students for the Maturity exam. Teaching pronunciation and teaching writing is futile. Students don't need it to pass the exam. What they need is a lot of vocabulary (participant no.7).

This time, the answer provided in the interview corresponds with what the participant had declared in the questionnaire, as to the statement: *Good pronunciation is necessary for passing Maturity exam,* she had chosen the response option: *Disagree*. The teacher continued:

> Pronunciation is not taken into account. A learner has to be completely unintelligible not to get the points and as far as I remember, it happened only once (. . .), although I'm not entirely sure if he didn't get the points eventually (participant no.7).

This response invalidates the result of the questionnaire as to the statement: *Students with good pronunciation achieve better results in Maturity exam*, the teacher had selected the option: *Agree*. Next, the participant was inquired about the students' ability to communicate:

> I do realize that our teaching doesn't prepare students for real life communication. There is no way they'd be able to talk to a native speaker. They wouldn't be understood and wouldn't understand anything. I seriously doubt they'd be able to buy a roll in a shop (participant no.7).

However, to the statement: *Students who pass Maturity exam are able to communicate successfully with English native-speakers,* the response chosen was: *Neutral*.

Participant no. 6 began by saying: "My pronunciation is rather poor, so I don't do it", although in the questionnaire, she had marked the statement: *I feel confident in teaching pronunciation* as *Neutral*. When asked about the importance of pronunciation in the Maturity exam, the teacher elaborated:

> We obviously have to be focusing on Maturity exam. It means teaching grammar and vocabulary. According to the Maturity exam assessment criteria, there are some points for pronunciation, but since we [teachers] always understand what they [students] are saying, they always get the points. A student has to be completely unintelligible not to get them, but it rarely happens. During oral exam we [teachers] are able to help them a little bit because it doesn't go outside the school, so it doesn't matter that much. What is important is the written part of the test (participant no.6).

Although the interviewee's reflection clearly devaluates pronunciation in reference to the Maturity exam requirements, in the questionnaire she had marked both statements: *Good pronunciation is necessary for passing Maturity exam* and *Students with good pronunciation achieve better results in Maturity exam* selecting the option: *Agree*. Next, the teacher was inquired about different ways of incorporating pronunciation teaching into regular classes, and replied: "I guess my pronunciation teaching is mostly correcting students' errors, but I don't do it very often". However, she had selected the response option: *Often*, when marking the questionnaire statement: *I correct my students' pronunciation errors*.

Participant no.4 expressed similar view:

> My pronunciation teaching is mostly correcting students' mistakes, but I don't do it very often. It would be too stressful for them. Paying attention to their pronunciation would mean pointing to their errors all the time, correcting every single word they utter. They have to speak, and pronunciation accuracy is of little importance here. If I were to correct their mispronunciations and grade it, they would rather say nothing and get an F, than say something and be corrected (participant no.4).

Despite the teacher expressed a strong opinion against correcting the learners' mispronunciations in the interview, in the questionnaire she had marked the statement: *I correct my students' pronunciation errors* with the response option: *Often*.

Participant no.5 remarked:

> I really like teaching pronunciation. I used to do it, but not anymore. There is nothing in the course books. There are no materials I could use. I don't know where and what to look for (...) I used to teach phonetic alphabet, but I only mention it now. I don't think my students actually know and are able to use it (participant no.5).

This comment does not correspond with what the participant had declared in the questionnaire, as to the statement: *I introduce phonetic alphabet* she had chosen the response option: *Often*.

Interviewee no.9 admitted:

> I don't teach pronunciation because it's completely irrelevant. First of all, the learners are not proficient enough. Secondly, it is not necessary for passing Maturity exam. There is no time. Our job is to make the students start speaking, say anything. Teaching pronunciation would be absurd (participant no.9).

Once again, this reflection is not in accord with what the participant had reported in the questionnaire. To all four statements beginning with the words: *I teach pronunciation…* she had selected the response option: *Sometimes*.

Participant no.3 reflected:

> Generally, pronunciation is not taught. Firstly, in the course books pronunciation component is non-existent. It would be much easier if we had some materials available. For example recordings of people speaking incorrectly, that the students would listen to and analyze. It would be even better to record the students, but under given circumstances, it's simply impossible (participant no.3).

5 Discussion of the Results

The results of the study reveal that teachers are not unanimous in their opinions on the importance of pronunciation instruction, as about half of the participants did not consider it to be relevant in reference to upper secondary education reality. Some teachers even claimed it to be a detrimental factor influencing the students' willingness to use English in speech. All participants agreed that pronunciation is neglected, and supplied various reasons. Among the most frequently mentioned were:

– Limited time
– The absence of pronunciation teaching materials and resources (including the lack of pronunciation element in course books)
– The absence of pronunciation teaching guidelines and clearly defined aims
– Backwash effect of Maturity exam
– Ineffectiveness of pronunciation instruction (with non-proficient and non-intelligent students).

Furthermore, most participants viewed the students performing in speaking tasks, including reading aloud, as an adequate and sufficient pronunciation practice. This explains why in the questionnaire they had marked pronunciation production as being exercised more often than perception. According to the outcome of the questionnaire, the aspect that receives particular attention in the classroom is English word stress. However, in the interview the participants mentioned: "*reading* as written", interdental fricative, -ed and -ing endings, and some particular words.

Vast amount of information on teacher cognition was amassed by means of both instruments; the questionnaire used for gathering quantitative data, as well as the interview, employed as a qualitative tool. However fruitful both types of data seemed when they were analyzed separately, it was only a direct juxtaposition of the results gather by means of both instruments that allowed for the validation of the information provided by the participants. Even from the short sample presented in Sect. 4 of the present paper, we may proclaim the results of the questionnaire as being largely subdued to distortions. For example, although in the interview participant no.7 admitted straightforwardly: "I don't teach pronunciation alphabet", in the questionnaire she claimed that she had been doing it *Sometimes*. This lack of correspondence between the information provided confirms our previous assumption made in reference to Szpyra-Kozłowska et al.'s results (2002). As evidenced in both studies, the outcome of the questionnaire is heavily affected by social desirability bias, which dispose the respondents to present themselves in a good light and supply answers they consider to be appropriate or expected, though, not necessarily true. Moreover, juxtaposition of the questionnaire and the interview results revealed that in the questionnaire, the subjects were prone to provide overgeneralized answers. For example, participant no.3 marked the statement: *I use additional materials when teaching pronunciation* with the response option: *Sometimes*. However, in the interview, he reported: "I remember doing tongue twisters competition with them once or twice".

In light of the above-mentioned observations, we are forced to conclude the descriptive answers included in the questionnaire (*Strongly agree. . .Strongly disagree, Always. . .Never*) to be of dubious value. Rather, priority should be given to the analysis of the numerical values of the Likert scales utilized. Focusing on the quantifiable data and approaching the questionnaire as a purely quantitative instrument allow us to proclaim, for example, a gradual increase in the amount of attention devoted to pronunciation element to be proportional to the learners' growing proficiency (statements: 1–4 in the second part of the questionnaire).

As for the results of the interview, we can observe the participants' tendency to ascribe responsibility for the neglect of pronunciation to all members of teacher community. Even when asked directly: "Do you teach pronunciation?", the teachers refrained from providing the account of their own actions, and instead supplied very general statements, for example: "Pronunciation is not taught", or "We don't teach pronunciation".

In comparison with the questionnaire results, the interview seems to be the source of a wider spectrum of information of more validity. It might be that the informal character of the situation in which the instrument was administered triggered the participants' willingness to supply more honest answers. It also seems reasonable to assume a positive influence of the possibility to use language of their preference during the interview, in contrast to the completion of the questionnaire written in English, which was not the subjects' native language.

6 Conclusions

The main aim of the study was to pilot data collection tools designed to investigate the in-service teachers' views and practices related to pronunciation instruction in upper-secondary schools in Poland. The analysis of the results exposed certain drawbacks of the instruments utilized. It was confirmed that the declarative character of the gathered information requires a thorough consideration of various factors, which might potentially affect the validity of the outcome and lead to false conclusions. What seems to be of crucial importance is the respondents' tendency to provide answers, which they consider to be correct or appropriate. As was mentioned in the previous section of the paper, in comparison with the questionnaire, the interview seems to be a more reliable source of information, less susceptible to response distortions due to social desirability bias. Nevertheless, it would certainly be unjustified to proclaim one type of the research method better than the other. Firstly, the diversity of the amassed data proves the complementary nature of both, qualitative and quantitative tool employed. Secondly, it is possible that no such result of the interviews would be achieved without the initial administration of the questionnaire. It is the authors' strong conviction that the questionnaires prepared the teachers for the interview, allowing them to become familiar and more comfortable with the subject matter under investigation, and triggering reflective processes that were explicated in the following stage of the research procedure.

In conclusion, the data gathered in this study confirm the results of previous findings on the relevance of pronunciation instruction in Polish schools. It has been shown that teachers of English not only neglect this aspect during regular lessons, but also misperceive some basic concepts connected with pronunciation teaching, e.g. *segmental, intelligibility*. Nevertheless for obtaining generalizable results, further investigation is required. To this end, the present author intends to conduct

a research on a larger scale, utilizing both, questionnaires and interviews, as complementary data collection tools.

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"Toutes Les Langues Ensemble, C'est Tout?" Separated Multilingualism in Minority Language Education in Brittany (France)

Patrick Karl Osterkorn and Eva Vetter

1 Introduction and Research Question

This contribution deals with the students' experience with multilingualism in minority language education in Brittany, France. It will be referring to a 3-month ethnographic study in a DIWAN-school, a private minority school in the western part of Brittany.

Against the background of the Breton-focused profile of the minority school, which has created a linguistic regime, ideologically founded in language revitalisation (Vetter 2005, 2013), and following the separated-integrated continuum, we hypothesize that the students experience a separated kind of multilingualism (Blackledge and Creese 2010).

In our article, we will first contextualise the research question and briefly outline the concept of DIWAN-schools. Second, we will present our theoretical conceptualisation of individual multilingualism in the context of a school. Here we relate to subject positioning, space and multilingualism. Furthermore, we will explain the ethnographically oriented methodology behind this study. In a last step, we illustrate the outcome of the study by walking through school with the eyes of one of its pupils.

2 Contextualisation

DIWAN's private minority schools are a good example for minority schooling in Europe (and maybe as well beyond) (Vetter 2013). They were founded in 1977 as a reaction against monolingual language policy in France. Canadian immersion

P.K. Osterkorn (✉) • E. Vetter
Center for language teaching and learning research, University of Vienna, Wien, Austria
e-mail: patrick.karl.osterkorn@univie.ac.at

schools, which first appeared in 1965 in Ontario, Ikastolas (Basque country) and Welsh language schools (Wales) have been the forerunners for this type of school (Kuter 1999: 178). The Breton language, which is the only Celtic language spoken on mainland Europe, is regarded as one of the worldwide minority languages with official status (Stephens 1992: 349; Breton 2008: 6–7).

Following the presentation of DIWAN on the website, the school's language regime guarantees a secure Breton-only space, along with the teaching of two foreign languages. At the age of 11, pupils enter secondary school and start their English lessons. At the age of 13, they are able to choose between German and Spanish language classes.

It is the goal of DIWAN-schools to implement three different languages of instruction by the end of secondary school, namely Breton, French and English. Additionally, pupils should gain written and spoken language competence in a fourth language, which would be either German or Spanish. Learners may choose Latin as soon as they have reached the third grade. The main language used at school, however, remains Breton in order to achieve total immersion (Christian 1996; Decke-Cornill and Küster 2010). This implies that the school life is completely embedded within the Breton language. It constitutes the instructional and social means of communicating, both in the boarding school's educational and residential sphere (Vetter 2013).

3 Theoretical Concepts and Terminology

By entering school, the students become part of the school space. They are constructed as students and act in this space. Language serves here as an important instrument and is, at the same time, part of themselves. In order to illustrate the relationship between student, language and school space we will refer to the concepts of multilingualism, multilingual subjects and space.

The theoretical concepts described below are closely connected to each other and can be graphically illustrated as a cycle (cf. Fig. 1). Based on the broad definition and the concepts of multilingualism presented below, the production of social space is explained. In school space one can localise multilingual individuals who are, in turn, theoretically linked to the different concepts of multilingualism.

3.1 Definition and Concepts of Multilingualism

We approach multilingualism from a very broad theoretical perspective. For the empirical study we refer to a rather broad definition of the term multilingualism. The term itself addresses the terminological duality of multilingualism and plurilingualism, as established in the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR) (CECRL 2000). We deconstruct the antagonism inherent in this differentiation and refer to multilingualism as a dynamic "continuum".
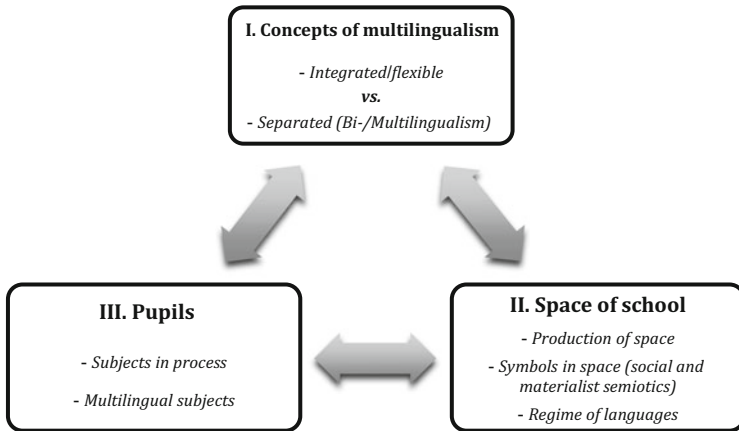
Fig. 1 Theoretical concepts and terminology

We understand multilingualism as a dynamic "continuum" which leaves a distinguishing and dominant impression on an individual's language repertoire. As Weber and Horner (2012) put it:

> [. . .] multilingualism is a matter of degree, a continuum and since we all use different linguistic varieties, registers, styles, genres and accents, we are all to a greater or lesser degree multilingual. [. . .] we will say that the varieties, etc. that we use constitute our linguistic repertoire. Moreover, these repertoires are not static but dynamic, since the resources in them change over time. (p. 3)

This broad approach opens up for a wide range of possible sub-categories and definitions. In order to emphasise our understanding of the individual as an actor in a certain space, we will focus on the language practice and follow the differentiation as suggested by Blackledge and Creese (2010).

Apart from the general definition of multilingualism, the study especially relies on the relevant notion of integrated/flexible and separated (bi-/) multilingualism respectively (Blackledge and Creese 2010). According to Blackledge and Creese integrated/flexible (bi-/)multilingualism is the usage of more languages in a setting. In this respect, the authors also refer to García's definition of the practice of translanguaging (García 2009).

In contrast to the integrated type of multilingualism separated (bi-/) multilingualism is considered to be the independent usage of languages in a setting.

3.2   The Production of Space

In conceptualising the school, we rely on the conception of space and particularly link up to Henri Lefèbvre, a French philosopher and Marxist sociologist, who offered a new theoretical perspective on the production of space. The English

translation, published in 1991, caused uproar amongst scholars in the sociology of space (Lefèbvre 1991, 2000 [1974]). Lefèbvre defines space as a social product, which is constituted of social practices. The social product, then, can be further differentiated between a triad of factors, namely, spatial practice (day to day practice), representations of space (academic discourses about space) and spaces of representations (living space through pictures, symbols, memorials, etc.). The elements of this triad stand in a complex, interconnected relationship to each other and cannot be separated from one another.

According to Lefèbvre's understanding of the social construction of space, the consequence of individuals shaping their space is the development and change of the space they originally stepped into. Kress (2010) analyses symbols in this space with regard to the practices of social semiotics, since symbols are acting as social agents and they characterise social life in space. Additionally, social semiotics reflects space structure through their ascribed function. Blommaert and Huang (2010) clarify this when assuming a set of semiotics that they describe as materialist:

> Sociological, cultural, sociolinguistic and political features of that space will determine how signs look and work in that space, and signs will contribute to the organization and regulation of that space by defining addresses and selecting audiences and by imposing particular restrictions, offering invitations, articulating norms of conduct and so on to these selected audiences. (p. 3)

Furthermore, in a social space we can find a manifestation of one or more language regime. The social space consists of rules and regulations that are positioning language usage in an institutional space (Busch 2013). In sociolinguistics, however, we do not just look at regulations, but also at speakers' habits with regard to the language regime (Kroskrity 2000a; Coulmas 2005).

The distinction between administrative and non-administrative language (Lüdtke 1999) is crucial in this respect. Administrative languages are languages declared by the institution, whereas non-administrative languages do not have the institution's approval but they are nevertheless used in informal situations. This is the reason why the influence of the language regime in the majority of cases affects language at the level of administrative language, and less so at the level of in-administrative language (ibid.).

3.3 The Multilingual Subject

The third part of the theoretical construct relates to the pupil who we perceive as multilingual subject. Claire Kramsch offers a definition of the multilingual subject in her monograph with the same title, published in 2006. Her usage of the term subject refers to Julia Kristeva's subject in process (1977). In an interview in 2012 Kramsch clarifies this further:

> This is something you become. You are not born a subject. Language shapes you become a subject throughout your life in contact with various symbolic systems, including languages. That is why Kristeva talks about the 'subject in process'. By putting the subject in there I was focusing on the subjectivity and the identity of the learner. (p. 75)

Hélot more precisely illustrates the notion of Kramsch' term "multilingual subject", as follows:

> The multilingual subject is not necessarily the person who speaks many languages with equal mastery or with native or near native proficiency, but rather someone who resonates to each language relative to the other, and who has a more acute awareness than usual of the social, cultural and emotional contexts in which his/her various languages have grown and the life experiences they evoke. (Kramsch 2006, cit. by: Hélot 2008:75)

This approach highlights the dynamic character as well as the social contextualization of the individual's linguistic repertoire. It allows for conceptualizing pupils in terms of their unique identity and dynamics as well as with respect to the institution they are part of.

4   Methodology and Data Corpus

Asking about the pupils' experience of multilingualism at school not only calls for a subject-oriented, but also an inductive approach. Hence, we rely on an intensive period of field research (Osterkorn 2013a, b). Within the 3-month triangulated study different approaches are combined: in situ-observation (Lüders 2010; Moore and Sabatier 2010), linguistic landscaping (Landry and Bourhis 1997; Weber and Horner 2012), and language biographical approaches; language portrayals (Gogolin and Neumann 1999; Krumm and Jenkins 2001; Busch 2013) and narrative interviews (Hopf 2010; Talmy 2010).

In total, 76 learners from different classrooms (aged 10–14 years) participated in the production of language portrayals. They were asked to mark their spoken languages into a human silhouette during class. They could use different colours for each language (Gogolin and Neumann 1999; Krumm and Jenkins 2001) (see language portrayal below—Fig. 2a).

Furthermore, the learners were asked to briefly comment on their choices of each language on the silhouette in written (see Fig. 2b).

The language portrayals and the written texts were analysed according to the Qualitative Content Analysis (Mayring 2010).

Based on the language portrayals, 14 narrative interviews were conducted with students at the age of 12–14 years. The latter were also analysed and interpreted by means of the qualitative content analysis (ibid.).

Fig. 2 (**a**, **b**) Youenn's language portrayal (Osterkorn 2013a)

5 Results of the Empirical Study: A Walk Through School Through the Eyes of a Pupil

We are now putting ourselves in the role of a pupil who walks to school and moves through the space of a private DIWAN-school.

We will call him Youenn. He is 13 years old and currently attends third grade in secondary school. He also attends the boarding school and tells us, within the framework of our speaker identification process for the narrative interview, that Breton is his L1. His parents, as well as grandparents, use French and Breton at home. Youenn lives in a small village in the countryside.

This is his language portrayal (cf. Fig. 2a) he created during his German lessons, and next to it is a short text (cf. Fig. 2b), which explains why Youenn assigned which of his languages to which parts of his body:

To Youenn, his head is Breton; he explains that it is "the language of the mind". French and English are located in his arms, left and right: "English is the language of computer games and French is the language of my country."

The German language is taking up a substantially big part of Youenn's portrait. He draws this space in a brown color and it takes up his chest and stomach. To Youenn, the German language signifies "fun" and "general knowledge".

Youenn is attending Latin classes as his free electable course, and the language is located at his legs and feet in his language portrayal because to him Latin is the language of the "ancestors."

Youenn is per definition a multilingual subject, and his language portrayal combined with his narrative interview will indicate this in even clearer terms. He accounts for five languages to be in his language repertoire and actively reflects the social, cultural and emotional context that these languages are embedded in.

In the narrative interview it was Youenn's task to recreate an ordinary school day:

It is a Thursday, he doesn't sleep at the boarding school and Youenn wakes up from a nightmare, muttering in French that he does not want to get up. His father raises his voice in French. Youenn tells us: "Usually, my father speaks Breton, but he swears in French. When he swears in French, he is scaring me." French is also spoken at the breakfast table, because his mother cannot speak Breton "so well", Youenn explains. On the way to school, there is silence in the car between father and son. Close to the school's entrance, Youenn and his father pass bilingual street signs (French/Breton). The city Quimper, which is where the school of our study is located, counts among the cities in Brittany that has bilingual street signs (cf. Fig. 3).

When entering the school grounds, the bilingual street signs are replaced by monolingual signs in Breton. Because there are three DIWAN institutions to be found on the school grounds, the following signs (cf. Fig. 4a, b) are guiding us into the right direction:

Youenn is well aware that "Skolaj" refers to the secondary school, as opposed to "Skol" which is referring to the kindergarten. He takes the right way and enters

Fig. 3 Bilingual street signs (Osterkorn 2013a)

through the entrance gate of his school, above which bold letters proclaim "Skolaj Diwan Jakez Riou"; the school is named after a famous Breton writer.

Once one arrives in the schoolyard, again big, black letters (in the pupils' language portrayals, the color black is often associated with Breton) on a white wall (cf. Fig. 5):

This Breton imperative makes it clear to Youenn that only Breton is spoken in school. However, he tells us that he speaks French with his friends, even in the schoolyard. Breton is primarily spoken in the classroom. He goes on to explain that a lot of his fellow classmates have troubles using Breton, as the majority of the students did not acquire it as their L1. On top of that, Breton is not seen as a language used by the younger generation, but rather thought of as an "old language" which does not feature a lot of youthful words.

Youenn takes the stairs past the bretonized print advertisements and an informational poster, which says to wash one's hands after each bathroom visit (cf. Fig. 6a–c).

Fig. 4 (**a**, **b**) Entering the school (Osterkorn 2013a)

Fig. 5 In the school yard (Osterkorn 2013a)
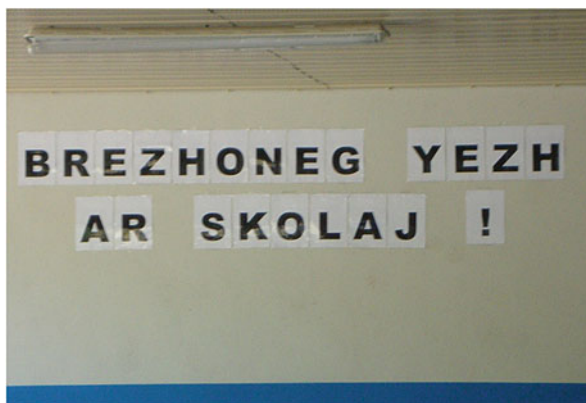
He also passes the rooms where security personnel, secretaries and the school's headmaster have their offices (cf. Fig. 7a, b), before he finally arrives at his classroom's door and steps through it into class (cf. Fig. 8a, b).

Youenn, as a multilingual subject, is situated in a room where a monolingual habitus (Gogolin 1994) is distinctively dominant. Still, he prefers to speak French in the classroom, but only if the teachers and security personnel have no way of overhearing it. At times, he feels the pressure to speak Breton. This is because the school staff readily speaks out a chastising reminder to only use Breton. He also tells us that he sometimes pretends to speak Breton with his friends, especially

Fig. 6 (**a–c**) In the corridors (Osterkorn 2013a)

when they have the feeling of someone from the "institution" listening in, be it at breakfast in the boarding school or at lunch in the dining hall. Youenn explains that this sort of forced language usage is not really helpful, especially when pupils feel inspired to then use a non-target language out of spite.

When asked the question which language is the most important one at this moment, Youenn tells us that it is "German. My goal is to learn German because my cousins are speaking German. They live in Luxemburg and it annoys me when I cannot understand them."

When asked what he thinks about all the signs within school grounds being written in Breton, he notes: "As for me I would mind that there is no translation,
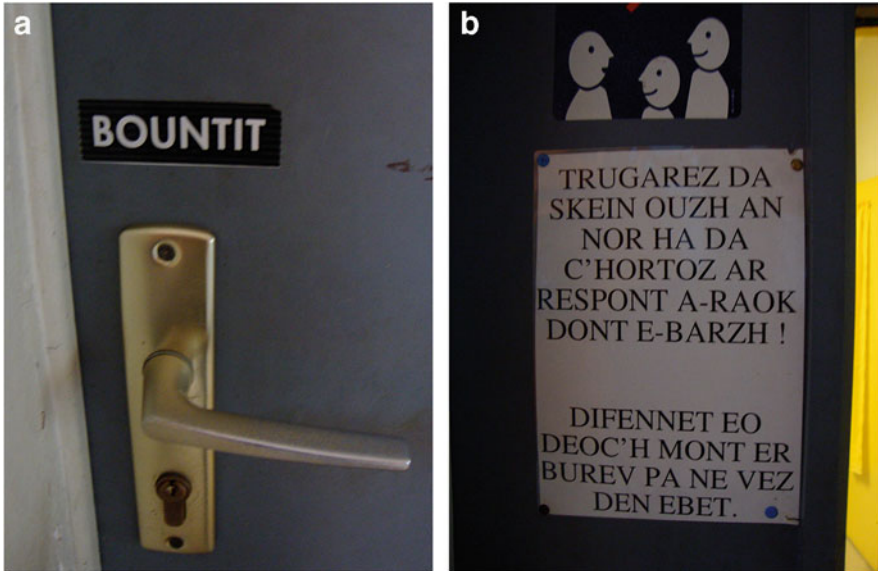
Fig. 7 (**a**, **b**) School staff (Osterkorn 2013a)

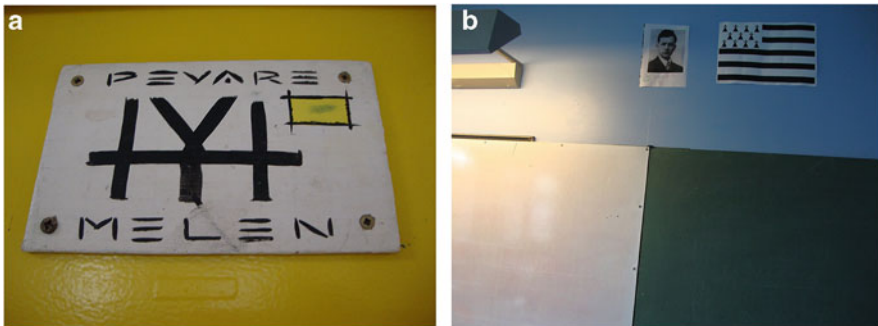**Fig. 8** (**a**, **b**) Classroom (Osterkorn 2013a)

especially for people who don't have sufficient command in Breton. This way, they are forced to understand it and there is no space for errors."

While it is absolutely clear to Youenn in which space with dominant social practices he has to speak Breton, and in which space he has or should speak French, it still happens that a word or phrases of another language are on the tip of his tongue, which then slip out. Another student states in the interview that often in her free time she and her friends create sentences where they start with a language and then switch to other languages: "Well, for example we start in Breton and finish with English words and with a little bit of French. And sometimes we find ourselves adding German." (Osterkorn 2013a: 102)

These examples show that separated multilingualism at the level of administrative language is therefore clearly opposed to flexible/integrated multilingualism at the level of in-administrative language.

6 Conclusion

Our multilingual subject lives in a space that is predominantly dominated by a monolingual habitus. As soon as one steps onto school grounds, one's attention is drawn to this fact.

Youenn often experiences separated multilingualism because he is very aware of when he has to use which language. Specifically at the level of administrative language, mixing languages is not an accepted or tolerated practice. At the level of in-administrative language, however, it still happens that learners do mix languages and they experience integrated/flexible multilingualism. This often happens in the case of spontaneous reactions or when pupils feel that they are far removed from the institution of their school. It also happens when whispering during class, but only if a teacher has no way of taking notice of it.

The goal of the non-profit organization DIWAN is to make Breton the language of its student body. In the course of total immersion, Breton should not only be used during class; Breton should also be the language of socially interaction among the school's community, which should then eventually turn it into a language that is used with joy by the learners. Reaching that goal remains a difficult undertaking, as pupils stop speaking Breton as soon as they have left school grounds and with it its dominant monolingual language regime. The majority of learners does not use Breton at home, which they are well aware of and often simply are tired of using as soon as they have left school for the day.

Why DIWAN promotes Breton monolingualism to such an extent that other languages can only occupy little space is another question that could be asked. One could easily answer it by saying that it is the goal of total immersion; taking a closer look at this complicated issue, however, one could argue with Lefèbvre (1991, 2000 [1974]) and note that historical and societal circumstances are affecting tangible spaces. And with Bachtin (2008) who speaks within the framework of a literary analysis about chronotopos that every speech act refers to different spaces in time. Keeping this in mind while looking at Breton's dark history, its complete ban and the subsequent efforts taken by the association of DIWAN to save this dying Celtic language, one can perhaps better understand the manifestation of his dominating monolingual regime of languages.

Still, one question remains unanswered: Is this form of multilingualism not in direct opposition to a multilingual and multicultural world, which is increasingly shaped by globalization?

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Well I Never!: Formulaic Language as a Pragmatic Resource in Child Entertainment Media

Richard Nightingale

1 Introduction

Despite playing an auspicious role in young children's development when learning another language, it is generally regarded as problematic to effectively teach them pragmatic conventions (sociopragmatics) and supply them with pragmatic resources (pragmalinguistics). The main problem is that the metapragmatic information supplied in focused tasks does not work with very young learners, and in instructional settings it is difficult to recreate the same or a similar context in which pragmatic competence is acquired in natural settings. We know that children are pragmatically aware in their L1 where basic pragmatic expressions are acquired very early on (Fenson et al. 1994), but often when conventions and routines are taught in another language there is little or no context from which a connection between linguistic routine and social situation can be inferred. Furthermore, research has shown that children with experience of interacting language systems become pragmatically aware at an earlier age (Safont in press).

Thus, an issue in young pragmatic development is how to capitalize on this pragmatic awareness, both in the classroom and beyond, where traditional approaches are not effective. As pragmatic competence is culture-specific and therefore dependent on the language routines utilized by particular speech communities, we posit that one option is increased exposure to formulaic language. With this in mind, the current study provides a qualitative analysis of potential exposure to formulaic language in child entertainment media, and how this may be used as a pragmatic resource which not only provides rich and contextualized target language input, but also acts as didactic reinforcement material which can encourage exposure to the target language outside traditional learning environments. In order to do this, we will summarize the pragmatic perspectives which underlie the current

R. Nightingale (✉)
Universitat Jaume I, Castellón de la Plana, Castellón, Spain
e-mail: nighting@uji.es

study; Searle's taxonomy, Politeness Theory, request modifiers, Formulaic Language, and Situation-Bound Utterances. We will then discuss the use of formula in child language acquisition and its relation to pragmatics, before describing our multilingual perspective on early pragmatic development. Finally, we will analyze episodes from two children's cartoons for the appearance of Situation-Bound Utterances and discuss their potential as pragmatic resources.

2 Pragmatic Perspectives

The current study of formula in entertainment media utilizes and is informed by certain definitions from earlier L1 and SLA perspectives on pragmatics; Searle (1976), Brown and Levinson (1987), and Alcón et al. (2005). As the reader will probably be familiar with this work, only a brief explanation will be provided before narrowing the focus to Formulaic Language and Situation-Bound Utterances.

2.1 Illocutionary Acts

Two influential developments in the study of pragmatics are Searle's (1969) *taxonomy*, and later (1976) *classification*, of illocutionary acts and Brown and Levinson's (1987) *Politeness Theory*. Searle's taxonomy divides illocutionary acts (what a speaker means to convey) into five categories: assertives ('true or false' statements), directives (commands, requests, advice), commisives (commitment to future action), expressive (express attitudes and emotions), and declarations (change reality in accordance with the declaration). Brown and Levinson's theory recognizes the 'face-threatening' nature of social interactions and presents a framework to mitigate the damage arising from them. Social interaction can be threatening if we perceive a discrepancy between our social image and others' recognition of the same. In interactions we may impose ourselves or impede others, fluid social interaction often requires us to minimize or mitigate the threat this causes. Brown and Levinson formulated the following politeness strategies: bald on-record (no mitigation), positive (minimize threat to hearer's self-image), negative (avoid imposition on hearer), and off-record (indirect/oblique). Politeness strategies depend greatly on sociological variables, especially social distance, power relationship, and degree of imposition. Scollon and Scollon (1995) expanded this framework in terms of power relationship and social distance by defining three further types of politeness: deference (social distance but no power difference), solidarity (no social distance or power difference), and hierarchical (both social distance and power difference).

Alcón et al. (2005), include the speech act of requesting in Searle's 'directives' category, in so far as they constitute the speaker's attempt to get the hearer to do something. Following Brown and Levinson, Alcón et al. propose that requests are

considered 'one of the most face-threatening speech acts' (2005: 2). Expanding on previous research (Sifianou 1999), they provide a taxonomy of internal and external modifiers which mitigate the face-threatening impact of requests. They also point out that, depending on their purpose, not all requestive acts need mitigation (Brown and Yule 1983). For example, *transactional* purposes (transmitting information) and *interactional* purposes (building/maintaining relationships); the former can remain direct and unmodified whereas the latter usually require the impositive force to be mitigated. Alcón et al.'s typology consists of two principle modifier types: internal and external. Internal modifiers are included in the request itself and can be divided into the sub-types: openers, softeners, intensifiers, and fillers. Softeners can be further sub-divided into understatement, downtoner, and hedge, while fillers can be sub-divided into hesitators, cajolers, appealers, and attention-getters. External modifiers, which do not form part of the actual request act, are further divided into: preparators, grounders, disarmers, expanders, promise of reward, and please. Perhaps the sub-type most relevant to formulaic sequences is 'fillers' which, according to Sifianou, are socio-pragmatic in nature, 'highly formulaic and mostly semantically void' (1999: 179); in other words, their literal meaning is not retained when they are used as fillers.

2.2 Formulaic Language

We know that pragmatic conventions are culturally specific, as such Formulaic Language (FL) plays an extremely important role. FL is a highly salient aspect in natural speech, a large amount of which is 'formulaic, automatic and rehearsed rather than propositional, creative or freely generated' (Wong-Fillmore 1976: 24–25). The occurrence of formulas in normal language use is estimated to stretch as high as 80 % (Altenberg 1998), and it has even been suggested that 'perhaps everything we say is formulaic at one level or another' (Wray 2012: 245). FL has been defined as 'chunks' of language (Wood 2002a) which are learnt, stored and retrieved as if they were 'big words' (Ellis 1996), or 'prefabricated' sequences which bypass grammatical analysis (Wray 2000). FL is difficult for language learners to master (Moon 1992); nevertheless, effective target language communication requires learners to become sensitive to the particular sequences preferred by a given speech community, even though other possibilities may seem equally logical (Wray 2000). Irujo (1986) explains that when addressing language learners FL sequences are frequently omitted, and Wray (2012: 236) expands on this, suggesting that as FL 'marks insider status' within a speech community it can be used to protect linguistic identity but also 'regularized to increase transparency if the exclusion of outsiders becomes socially or economically undesirable'—thus, somewhat ironically, the inclusion of non-native speakers may necessarily require the omission of certain formulaic utterances.

Wray and Perkins (2000) and Wray (2000) have indicated two functions of FL: (1) saving effort in processing, and (2) achieving social-interactional functions.

Regarding the former, Wray argues that 'whole paradigms of potential utterances can be based on a single lexicalized stem', effectively creating, what she terms, 'frames' containing lexical gaps into which 'any semantically plausible member of the word class' may be placed. She concludes that, '[a]lthough there must be some analytical processing involved in slotting words or morphological forms into an established frame, there is . . . less effort involved in this than in creating the whole construction from scratch' (2000: 473–474). Regarding the latter Wray and Perkins propose three distinct social-interactive functions (and their effects): (1) manipulation of others (satisfying physical, emotional and cognitive needs), (2) asserting separate identity (being taken seriously, separating from the crowd), and (3) asserting group identity (overall membership, affirming and adjusting place in a hierarchy) (2000: 14). Wray (1998) has drawn parallels between these functions (especially the first and last) and the functions of holistic human protolanguage, where utterances were linked directly to goal-oriented specific meanings without the necessity for words or rules. Taking this last point into consideration, Wray (2000, 2012) illustrates just how useful FL is in terms of pragmatic development by describing formulas as 'a linguistic solution to the problem of how to promote our own survival interests'. She suggests that human social and psychological complexity renders us unable to fully meet our 'emotional, mental and physical needs without involving others', one way to ensure this involvement is the use of 'wordstrings' currently circulating in our communities in order to minimize misunderstandings and enable social alignment with other community members; in a most rudimentary sense, 'I am like you because I talk like you, so you will want to help me' (2012: 231–232).

A Situation-Bound Utterance (SBU) is a very specific type of formulaic language. Kecskés, who coined the term, describes SBUs as 'highly conventionalized, prefabricated pragmatic units whose occurrence is tied to standardized communicative situations' (2000: 606). The defining feature of SBUs is their 'obligatoriness' and 'predictability' in specific social interactions. In earlier research, Kecskés argued that pragmatic functions are not encoded in the SBUs themselves instead they are 'charged' by the situation in which they are used; it is this 'situational charge' which differentiates SBUs from identical, but freely-generated phrases. SBUs are dynamic in nature, principally because in each speech community appropriate communicative behavior in particular situations is defined by societal conventions and rules. Kecskés (2010: 2897) states that '[t]hrough SBUs interlocutors not only fit their contribution to the given situation but also establish and confirm the social situation'. SBUs differ from other types of FL because they are tied to situational 'frames', which Kecskés describes as 'interpretive devices by which we understand a term's deployment in a given context' (2002: 104). Not to be confused with Wray (2000), a *situational* frame is the general conventional knowledge about a given situation which is highly variable according to sociocultural conditions but, on the whole, is mutually understood within a speech community.

Kecskés (2010) suggests that how frequently different linguistic expressions occur impacts on their 'meaningfulness': the more frequent the occurrence, the

more referential meaning is lost. In such cases he proposes that the 'compositional meaning of utterances often becomes of secondary importance and the functional aspect begins to dominate' (2010: 2893). We can see this with the utterance *How are you?*, used so frequently as a greeting that its compositional meaning as an enquiry becomes overshadowed by its meaning as a pragmatic act of salutation. In a standard greeting situation you would not expect the question to be answered; instead the hearer would be expected to enter into the pragmatic ritual or routine by acknowledging and returning the salutation. With this in mind, Kecskés differentiates between three types of SBU: plain, charged and loaded. Plain SBUs (e.g.: *Can I help you?*) are semantically transparent and have a minimal pragmatic extension. Their meaning can be computed from their compositional structure. Charged SBUs (e.g.: *See you soon*) are semantically ambiguous, their basic function can be extended pragmatically. Both literal and situation-bound meanings are salient, but only the latter is 'charged' by the situation. Finally, loaded SBUs (e.g.: *Help yourself*) have no semantic transparency as the pragmatic function is more important than the literal meaning and takes it over. Their pragmatic function is encoded into the actual utterance itself, which has a strong tie to the situation in which it is deployed.

3   Early Language Acquisition and Pragmatic Development

According to Wood (2002a: 4), early language learners can infer meaning from linguistic sequences in both L1 and L2 contexts and then later analyze them to extrapolate and contextualize the data. This is important because it proposes that children learn and use FL as 'chunks' *before* they develop the faculties of lexicosyntactic analysis necessary to break these units into their composite parts. Referring to Peters (1983), Wood states 'early on the child develops strategies for extracting meaningful chunks from the flow of conversation . . . and remember[ing] them as new lexical units. He or she is then ready to develop an ability to use lexical and syntactic information already acquired to analyze new chunks in the linguistic environment' (2002a: 4). Previous research (Wong-Fillmore 1976; Hakuta 1974; Hickey 1993) has found that the acquisition of prefabricated formulaic chunks was followed by a syntactical and semantic analytical breakdown which helped facilitate and develop overall linguistic competence (Wood 2002b).

   Vygotsky's (1934/1986) insights on thought and language highlighted the development of 'egocentric' and 'inner' speech in children. While inner speech (inside the child's head) is the foundation of thought, egocentric speech (out loud but self-directed) serves 'mental orientation to tasks and conscious understanding of the environment' and helps the young child to overcome difficulty. Egocentric speech 'is evident in young children who imitate speech sequences and structures observed in adult conversation, and use them to talk to themselves during individual play' (Wood 2002b: 41), it stands to reason that these 'sequences and structures' also contain pragmatic conventions which children are able to observe and then

deploy in adequate moments of their play. The Vygotskian concept of declarative and procedural knowledge—knowledge *about* something and knowledge of *how to do* something—can be applied to learning formulas in that a learner's first encounter with an FL sequence is in the declarative range but repeated exposure, both to linguistic and pragmatic stimuli, proceduralize such sequences. Thus, pragmatic conventions are acquired as part of target language (TL) exposure, the learner starts with knowledge about these conventions before transposing this to knowledge of how to 'do' TL pragmatics. The more adept a learner becomes at using a foreign language, the more likely it becomes 'part of the pragmatic system of senses', which include 'context-sensitive shades of lexical meaning'. Just as words become saturated with senses as inner speech develops, for the second language learner, adult or child, 'the standard phrases and strings and sentence or utterance frames of the second language likely become saturated with senses too' (Wood 2002b: 43).

While the above provides an interesting insight into how young learners take advantage of formulas in their linguistic and pragmatic development, it remains a structuralist perspective. As is the case with early pragmatic development which has traditionally been studied from either an L1 or an Interlanguage Pragmatics (IP) perspective. The L1 perspective is characterized by a focus on pragmatic awareness raising in the first language in natural settings, whereas the IP perspective is characterized by a focus on awareness raising in the foreign language in instructional settings. We consider both of these perspectives to have a monolingual bias as they both focus on one language, assume that there is only one 'mother tongue', and that acquisition is consecutive and aims to achieve a native-like 'end state'. In line with more recent, dynamic perspectives on multilingualism (Aronin and Singleton 2008; Canagarajah and Wurr 2011; Cook 1992, 1997; Herdina and Jessner 2002), and the rejection of the 'end state' concept (Larsen-Freeman 2005), the current study adopts a multilingual perspective focused on the interactions of language systems and takes into consideration the exposure to, and the linguistic/pragmatic competence in, all languages in the multilingual environment. In this case the focus is on L3 input in an already bilingual speech community. Several authors (Aronin and Hufeisen 2009; Cenoz and Jessner 2009; Dewaele 2007; Jessner 2006) have argued that multilingualism and multilingual development are both quantitatively and qualitatively different to first and second language acquisition. Part of this difference is the enhanced metalinguistic and metapragmatic awareness inherent in multilinguals due to their prior knowledge and experience of multiple language systems; what Herdina and Jessner (2002) call the 'M [ultilingualism]-factor'. Jessner (2008) argues that the M-factor plays a crucial role in the catalytic effect of bilingualism on third language acquisition. Ongoing research in early pragmatic development has shown the effect of bilingualism on L3 request modification (Safont 2005, 2011, 2012) and that interacting language systems increase young learners' metapragmatic awareness (Safont and Portolés, in press). Furthermore, taking a multilingual perspective, Safont (in press) has shown that interacting language systems make multilinguals pragmatically aware from an early age; something which would not have been picked up from a monolingual perspective.

4 Identifying SBUs in Child Entertainment Media

The goal of this study is to provide qualitative data on the potential for exposure to SBUs in English language entertainment media directed at young children. We propose that child entertainment media comprises rich, authentic, contextualized TL texts, provides exposure to FL and SBUs, and indirectly teaches pragmatic conventions through simultaneous provision of pragmalinguistic resources and sociopragmatic context. When used as added L3 input in 'out-of-school' contexts, this type of media is highly motivating for young learners. As the author is based in the Valencian Community in Spain, the three languages considered are Spanish (majority), Catalan (minority), and English (foreign). However, the results of the current study could be extrapolated to any context where majority, minority, and foreign languages exist side by side. Taking into consideration our proposal above, two specific research questions are posed: RQ1) do children's cartoons contain Situation-Bound Utterances?; and, if they do, RQ2) is the pragmatic force the same between the original and dubbed versions?

4.1 Method

In order to achieve the stated goal, this study employs the following method. The British children's cartoons *Peppa Pig* and *Charlie and Lola* were selected because of their popularity, suitability for young audiences, and the fact that they are broadcast in various dubbed versions.

Peppa Pig (2004), first broadcast in the UK by Channel 5/Nick Jr, tells the story of the everyday life of the Pig family. All characters are anthropomorphised animals (pigs, sheep, foxes, bears, etc.), the main character is a young pig/girl, Peppa, who lives with her parents and her baby brother George. The cartoon is aimed a pre-schoolers and as such uses simple shapes, bright colors, and a very basic vocabulary with repetition of key points in the storyline. Since it was first broadcast, Peppa Pig has been shown in 180 territories around the globe, it has been dubbed into a variety of languages, and has lead to the creation of a wide range of themed merchandise.

Charlie and Lola (2005), first broadcast in the UK by BBC2/Cbeebies, tells the story of a young girl, Lola, and her older brother Charlie. The two siblings get into various imaginative adventures and together negotiate and solve typical issues and problems related to a child's family life. The cartoon is aimed at young children between 3 and 7 years old, as such the animation is more fast-paced and imaginative, including some fairly surreal sequences and some photomontage, the type of language used is also more complex and the storylines often lead toward the conclusion of some childlike dilemma (sharing, socialization, fussy eating habits, being selfish, etc.). Since it was first broadcast, Charlie and Lola has been shown in 26 countries and has been dubbed into various languages.

Originally, the English versions of eight episodes of the above cartoons were analyzed for the occurrence of SBUs, this was later cut down to four episodes (two of each) in order to secure versions in the three languages. After identifying certain sequences in which SBUs are present in the original versions, these same sequences were analyzed in the Spanish and Catalan versions to determine what happened to the SBUs. The SBUs were described according to their pragmatic/situational context, taking the social variables into consideration wherever possible, and the pragmatic force of each utterance in the dubbed versions is also discussed.

4.2 Results and Discussion

In relation to RQ1, a wide range of phrases were found in both cartoons which in the context in which they were deployed marked them out to be SBUs (see: Table 1). Considering that there are hundreds of episodes of each cartoon and we only analyzed five episodes of *Peppa Pig* and three episodes of *Charlie and Lola*, we can get an idea of the enormous potential for exposure to SBUs in this media genre. In relation to RQ2, between the original and dubbed versions we found a similar pragmatic force in most cases, however, there were some exceptions due to omission, extra linguistic devices, and discrepancy between languages. The balance of this paper will discuss in more detail the specific SBU examples chosen from the episodes we analyzed.

4.2.1 SBUs in Peppa Pig

The children's cartoon *Peppa Pig* is aimed at preschoolers; as such it has a quite basic vocabulary and deals with everyday family situations. Nevertheless, after close analysis, we were able to find a fair amount of SBUs; the following account describes and discusses just four of them.

I beg your pardon! In this scene Peppa's little brother George burps while the family are sitting together at the kitchen table. The immediate reaction of his mother is to exclaim "I beg your pardon! Was that you George. . .?". The interaction takes place within the family and in the intimate setting of the kitchen, so the social distance is practically zero, however the power relationship clearly favors the mother. The literal meaning of "to beg someone's pardon" is a somewhat formal apology on behalf of the speaker, nowadays it is rarely used in this sense and in the present context this literal meaning is no longer relevant. We are left with its function as an SBU, charged by the specific situation it can be understood as a polyfunctional utterance: it demonstrates the speaker's attitudes to the situation, that the speaker thinks the hearer should make an apology, and that the speaker wants the hearer to modify their behavior (in this case to be more appropriate to the relevant social norms). It terms of Searle's (1969) taxonomy we can simultaneously observe one expressive and two directive illocutionary acts; Brown and Levinson

Table 1 SBUs present in analysed cartoons (the phrases analyzed are shown in italics)

Peppa Pig	Charlie and Lola
A clever clogs	you're back!
A real whopper	Goodie!
Leave it to me	How would you like to. . .
Here you are	Buckle up
Getting warmer/colder	Would you like. . .
Hooray!	Say cheese!
Give me a clue	Why didn't you just say so?
I beg your pardon	*Let me see*
Tucked up	How about this?
What's the matter	*Give it a try*
Open wide	Go on
I'm afraid	Just for me
I say!	Hurry up
Who wants to join me?	Gobbled
Well I never!	Please may I have. . .?
Here you are	Please can I borrow. . .?
Here comes the airplane	*That's enough!*
In through the doors	Don't you think. . .?
Blah, blah, blah!	*I need to. . .*
Tea time	Here you are
	Don't worry

(1987) would apply the 'off-record' category to both the directives as both are effectively indirect requests. In terms of Alcón et al.'s (2005) request modification it is more complicated to find the specific sub-type for this utterance as it is a request in a very oblique sense. We could suggest that as it precedes a direct request for information (*was that you George?*) it could be considered similar to the internal modifier 'attention getter'. Finally, in terms of the status of the utterance as an SBU, it is clear that, due to the frequency of deployment in similar contexts, it becomes what Kecskés (2010) terms 'charged'; its referential meaning has been lost and its functional aspect comes to the fore. In the dubbed versions of this episode we see that in Spanish the utterance *Oh, ¡vaya!* is used, whereas in Catalan, for some inexplicable reason, the utterance is actually edited out of the scene. In neither case is the pragmatic force of the utterance the same, in Spanish it merely indicates surprise and/or disappointment and in Catalan it is totally omitted.

What's the matter? In this scene Peppa's brother George enters the living room crying because he has lost his favorite toy and his mother asks him "what's the matter?" Again, as the interaction takes place in an intimate setting within the family unit there is virtually no social distance, the mother has more power than George in this interaction. Deployed in this context, the utterance is tied in its predictability to a set situation; however, using Kecskés' (2010) terminology, we can understand the SBU as either 'plain' or 'charged'. As a plain SBU the utterance would belong to Searle's (1969) directive category; it is a direct request, the speaker is asking for information about the hearer's problem. As a charged SBU the utterance would belong to the expressive (or even, obliquely, the commissive) category; it is used to express sympathy, a willingness to understand, and

potentially solve, the hearer's problem. For this reason, according to Scollon and Scollon's (1995) expansion of Politeness Theory, it is possible to consider the utterance an act of solidarity within the family unit; there is no social distance and although the mother has more power by default, in her use of the utterance she brings this difference down to a minimum. Bearing in mind that the character of George is an infant who has not yet learned to speak properly, we can assume that the charged SBU is the salient one in this interaction. Again this is a question of the frequency of deployment in set situations affecting the meaningfulness of the utterance, even if George were an adult we would know that the charged reading is the salient one; the functional aspect has overshadowed the referential meaning. In the dubbed versions of this scene we find a similar pragmatic force in both the Spanish utterance *¿Qué te pasa?*, and the Catalan *Què t'ha passat?*; however in the Catalan version an extra explanatory device, *Perquè plores?* (why are you crying?), prefixes the utterance further contextualizing it.

I'm afraid. . . In this scene Peppa is not feeling very well so she is visited by the family doctor who gives her some medicine and says "I'm afraid it doesn't taste very nice". In contrast to the previous two examples, here the social distance between the doctor and the Pig family is much greater. In the interaction between Peppa and Dr. Bear, the power relationship clearly favors the latter. Furthermore, as he wants Peppa to take the medicine, the imposition comes from the doctor. In any situation, the utterance 'I'm afraid' is what Searle (1969) would class as an expressive because it indicates the speaker's psychological attitude to the situation. However, in this case, the literal meaning of the utterance (being scared) is no longer relevant because what the speaker means to convey is knowledge that the hearer may react negatively to the speaker's proposition. This means that, as an SBU, the utterance is 'charged'; it can be read in both the plain and charged sense but according to the situational frame it is clearly the latter which is salient. As the utterance is so frequently deployed in situations where a negative reaction is anticipated, it functions as a way of removing responsibility for the speaker's imposition on the hearer. The utterance could be considered an indirect request for the hearer not to blame the speaker for what is about to happen (what Brown and Levinson (1987) would consider a negative politeness strategy) while simultaneously and subtly recognizing the imposition and, here, given the power imbalance between interlocutors, expecting complicity (in this case, consenting to a medicine that may not taste nice). If we take the utterance *per se* as an expressive we could apply Alcón et al.'s (2005) terminology to propose that it functions as an external disarmer in relation to the subsequent assertive proposition (*. . .it doesn't taste very nice*), in this case it does not modify a request but rather mitigates the imposition of the speaker's overall intention. In the dubbed versions we find the Spanish *Me temo que. . .* which we can consider to have a similar pragmatic force, but, interestingly, in Catalan this is replaced by a type of warning—*Però t'aviso. . .*—and as such does not mitigate the imposition; in fact, it actually increases it by effectively 'passing the buck' for what is about to happen.

Well I never! This scene is an extension of the preceding one; as previously, the social distance between the family and the doctor is greater and the power

relationship favors the doctor. In this scene the doctor pays a second visit to Peppa, who now feels better but nonetheless continues taking advantage of the kindness of her friends and family. Mr. Pig plays a trick on Peppa by asking everyone if they want to play football with him outside, of course, all Peppa's friends say yes and Peppa, momentarily forgetting her pretence, jumps out of bed and shouts "me too!"—this leads the doctor to exclaim "Well I never! A complete recovery." In Kesckés terms this utterance is 'loaded' in that it is so strongly tied to the situation that a literal (plain) interpretation is not possible. It functions, according to Searle's (1969) taxonomy, as an expressive utterance indicating the speaker's psychological attitude to the situation; the speaker is letting the hearer(s) know that what is happening transgresses his beliefs and/or expectations. Bearing in mind the social distance and power relations at play in this scene, this utterance is indirect/oblique because the doctor includes himself in the situation, making light of Peppa's pretence and softening the potential threat to face of pointing out that Peppa was not being entirely honest. In Brown and Levinson's (1987) terms we could understand the pragmatic function of the utterance as a positive politeness strategy in that the doctor uses the utterance to make a kind of joke in order to avoid conflict. In the dubbed versions we find similar pragmatic force, the Spanish utterance is *¡Caramba!* and in Catalan it is *Em quedo ben parat!*, both of which are pure formulaic utterances deployed to a similar pragmatic effect as in the English version. It is interesting to note that the Spanish utterance sounds quite antiquated but is probably used to reflect the doctor's characteristics and status from the perspective of a child.

4.2.2 SBUs in Charlie and Lola

The children's cartoon *Charlie and Lola* is aimed at young children from age 3 to 7 years. The main characters are brother and sister and the stories generally contain some kind of moral message about positive and negative personality traits as well as typical issues arising from a young sibling relationship. After close analysis, a number of SBUs were found; the following is a description of four of them:

Let me see. . . In this scene Charlie and Lola are in the library, the book that Lola wants is not available so Charlie is looking for another that she might like. As the interaction takes place between siblings there is virtually no social distance, the power relationship favors Charlie as he is the older brother and Lola looks up to him, Charlie is imposing slightly. When he goes off to look for a book, Charlie utters "Hmm, let me see. . .", within the situational frame we can consider the utterance charged; it is an oblique or indirect request which Charlie uses to indicate that he is carrying out an activity and to request indirectly that Lola should wait for the outcome. This could be considered a positive politeness strategy in Brown and Levinson's (1987) terms, as Charlie is showing a willingness to attend to Lola's needs. A plain reading of the utterance is also possible, 'Let me see' uses the imperative as a direct request to look at something. According to the typical deployment of this utterance, its function as a direct request would be less frequent;

we can see another instance of referential meaning taking a back seat in relation to functional aspect. What Charlie actually wants Lola to do is to wait, however, as he is showing solidarity and sympathy to her needs, a direct request would apply too much impositional force and would not be an appropriate illocutionary act according to his intentions; for this reason Charlie mitigates the impositional force of this interaction by using the oblique strategy described above. In the dubbed versions we find fairly close translations, in Spanish *Vamos a ver...* and in Catalan *A veure...*, both of which, as charged utterances, have the same force and can be deployed in the same situation. Contrary to the English utterance, in Spanish and Catalan the plain reading as a direct request would be differentiated by its conversion into the interrogative (*¿A ver?*, *a veure?*); one could not, for example, request to see something using *¿Vamos a ver?*

Give it a try... This scene is a continuation of the previous one, as such the social distance and power relationship are the same as before, this time there is a greater degree of imposition from Charlie. After several failed attempts, Charlie has found a book that he believes will fulfill Lola's somewhat demanding criteria. Lola, however, is not so easily convinced. In order to persuade Lola to do what he wants her to, Charlie makes the utterance "Go on Lola, give it a try. Please, just for me." A plain reading of the utterance is possible and would be a direct request (evident by the use of the imperative), usually connected to trying, testing, or tasting something. However, charged by the situation 'give it a try' loses its referential meaning and becomes an SBU (it functions to express 'do what I want'). In both the plain and charged readings the illocutionary act is one of Searle's (1969) directives, in the charged form we can understand it an 'expander' of the utterance 'go on' (a way of repeating the request in a different form). As the request uses the imperative form of the verb 'give' there is no internal modification of its impositional force, in order to mitigate the request it is tied to the attention grabber 'Lola' and the external modifier 'please'. In this way the request does not sound impolite, and is in line with Charlie's intention (to persuade). Even though there is no internal modification the face-threatening imposition is minimized by use of the modifier 'please' and further compounded by what, applying Alcón et al.'s (2005) terms, we could consider a disarmer—'*just for me*'—a type of reinforcement device which aims at disarming the possibility of a refusal from the hearer. In the dubbed versions we find the Spanish *Inténtalo* and the Catalan *Prova-ho*, both of which are unmitigated direct requests (what Brown and Levinson (1987) would call 'bald on-record') and, as such, do not have the same pragmatic force.

That's enough. This scene takes place in a zoo. After not having shown much restraint, Lola has eaten all of her packed lunch, spent all her pocket money, and has now used up all the film in her camera; she has been borrowing from Charlie all day to make up for her shortages. Charlie lends Lola his camera and she proceeds to take a lot of bad photos, using up most of Charlie's precious film in the process. At this point Charlie snaps "That's enough Lola!", he is clearly quite frustrated. The social distance here is minimal, Charlie is more powerful in the interaction, and Charlie is imposing on Lola. A plain reading of the utterance 'that's enough' would indicate

that a sufficient quantity has been reached, however this assertive meaning is not salient in this particular frame. In its situational frame the utterance 'that's enough' loses its referential meaning and begins to function as a direct request, Charlie is asking Lola to stop what she is doing; in Kecskés' (2010) terms this is a 'charged' SBU. As the utterance is highly predictable in the given context, it becomes 'tied' to the situation and renders the plain reading impossible. As an illocutionary act we can see that the plain reading is an assertive, when we consider its charged reading it becomes a directive. Looking at the pragmatic implications of the SBU, we can see that Charlie is quite annoyed by Lola's actions so his request does not sound very polite; he does not care about minimizing the imposition and, due to the intimate social distance, he doesn't need to. In Brown and Levinson's (1987) terms, it would be considered a 'bald on-record' request. In the dubbed versions we find a similar pragmatic force in the Spanish utterance *Suficiente!* and the Catalan utterance *Prou!*, both of which can be deployed in similar situations to the same effect and both of which have identical plain readings.

I need to... In this scene Charlie and Lola are still at the zoo, Lola has realized that she has been annoying her brother by using all of his things, however, she still wants to take some more photos. This time Lola takes a new pragmatic approach in order to fulfill her goal, she utters "Charlie, can I borrow your clicky camera? I need to take a photograph of the seals." As before, the social distance is minimal in this interaction, the difference is that Lola is imposing this time and the power relationship is not in her favor. A plain reading of 'I need to...' would indicate some kind of necessity the speaker has, however, charged by this situation 'I need to...' is used to provide a reason/justification and, as such, becomes what Alcón et al. (2005) would consider a grounder tied to the conventionally indirect request 'can I borrow'. It is external to the main request and mitigates it by way of an explanation; it also swerves responsibility on Lola's part. From a Politeness Theory perspective we could consider it a negative politeness strategy in that Lola is attempting to show that she would not impose without a good reason. The common use of 'I need to...' as an explanatory device attached to this type of requestive behavior means that the referential meaning from a plain reading has been lost, the situational frame renders its literal sense irrelevant and leaves us with a charged SBU. Lola does not *need* the camera, she wants it; however, given that what Lola wants is for Charlie to submit to her will, therefore limiting his freedom of choice/action, the utterance 'I *want* to take a photograph...' would be too direct and not give her the result she hopes for. In the dubbed versions we find no significant difference in the pragmatic force of the utterance; in Spanish it is *Necesito...* and in Catalan it is *Necessito...*, both of which have the same plain and charged readings.

5 Conclusion

This study has examined exposure to SBUs in children's entertainment media, and their potential as a pragmatic resource for young language learners. It highlights the potential gains in pragmatic awareness which can be taken advantage of through the use of 'out of school' materials, and, secondarily, adds another perspective to the discussion that dubbing audiovisual media is not conducive to multilingualism.

In response to RQ1, we can confidently state that children's cartoons are indeed a rich source of formulaic language; a conclusion which reinforces Alcón's (2005) claim that authentic audiovisual input addresses all aspects of language use in a variety of contexts. Only a small number of cartoons were examined but a wide range of SBUs were discovered; this gives an indication of the wealth of examples that could be gleaned from a more in-depth analysis. Children's cartoons can be considered a pragmatic resource because they provide well illustrated situational frames which simultaneously contain both context and language, in other words, sociopragmatic awareness can be raised at the same time as the necessary pragmalinguistic resources are provided. Additionally, the amusing storylines and colorful animation make this type of media particularly appealing to children and thus provides an effective format for young learners which can reinforce positive attitudes to an L3 and language learning in general; this is in line with previous research on 'out of school' factors and multilingual language attitudes (Nightingale 2012).

In response to RQ2, we have seen that by comparing the majority and minority language versions of our SBUs, the pragmatic force may be lost in translation and even when there is congruence in the pragmatic force it is not conducive to L3 learning as only the sociopragmatic context is provided. Taking this into consideration, in our opinion, dubbing original version audiovisual media removes pragmatic learning opportunities and obstructs multilingualism. It is clear from the current study that original version cartoons can be a powerful didactic resource for young learners, not only are they accessible and entertaining, but, in multilingual contexts, they also provide precious L3 input in a way that can be easily applied and managed outside of formal learning environments.

As a closing comment, current multilingual research (Safont in press) shows the extraordinary pragmatic learning potential of young multilinguals, whom traditional pragmatic approaches, at best, merely provide with structural input and, at worst, ignore. By taking a multilingual perspective, that is by taking into consideration all languages present in the environment, we rise to the future challenge of how to capitalize on this potential and facilitate a true multilingual language development.

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