Second Language Learning and Teaching

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel
Magdalena Szyszka *Editors*

The Ecosystem of the Foreign Language Learner

Selected Issues

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Preface

The primary goal of this volume is to shed more light on the ecosystem of the foreign language learner. The term *ecology* relates to interactions among organisms and their environment, focusing on their pursuits of homeostats and continuous development. They can be analyzed from the point of view of the individual, the community, or the *ecosystem*. The latter encompasses a holistic view of complex interrelations among and within organisms and their milieu. Complex interactions between people, within them, and their physical environment can also be described through the principles of ecosystems. Along these lines, the ecosystem metaphor can be applied to many spheres of life, the foreign language learning process being one of them (Brown, 2000). The main reason is that "every setting in which learning takes place involves a learner, a teacher, a setting, and information to be learned. … Learning, therefore, occurs in an ecosystem (Doyle & Ponder, 1975) in which there is a series of inputs, a series of teaching and learning processes, and a series of outputs" (Ashman & Conway, 1997, p. 2).

In this volume, we therefore propose viewing selected aspects of the foreign language learning process from an ecological perspective. Accordingly, the learner constitutes an organism in which learning takes place, inducing the interaction of various powers within and outside him or her. First of all, we suggest taking into consideration the internal or personal ecosystem of the learner, whereby two powerful influences interlock: the cognitive and affective. It follows that the learning space formed by the individual learner is largely shaped by his or her affective states, coexisting in conjunction with the cognitive processes. Although emotion is long accused of clouding rational judgment, recent advances in social cognition and social psychology have identified new, interesting patterns. It now seems clear that affective states often create significant assimilative or consistent effects on the way information is acquired, remembered, and interpreted. On the other hand, these effects do not appear to be universal, but dependent on an array of situational and contextual variables (Forgas & Eich, 2012). In general, in the learning situation "emotions are results of appraisal of academic success and failure, of pleasant or unpleasant personal and social experiences in educational encounters. On the other hand, they energize but also restrict their achievement and

achievement motivation" (Fiedler & Beier, 2014, p. 36). For this reason, we propose analyzing selected aspects of the foreign language learner's ecosystem from the point of view of the affective and cognitive interconnections placed within the personal sphere of the student.

Moreover, from the point of view of the ecosystem perspective, the learning space is formed not only by the individual learner, but by a wider community of other personal ecosystems, or those of cultures. As Vygotsky (1978) in his sociocultural approach proposes, the individual's mental development should be viewed as an interaction between them and their sociocultural environment. The quality of these interactions influences the nature of subsequent mental processes. Hence, the ecosystem of the foreign language learner is also subject to the external influences of sociocultural leverage that can be represented by significant others, such as parents and language teachers, who can both directly and indirectly manipulate this specific ecosystem. Also, other important forces, such as culture, as a ubiquitous element of the foreign language learning process, have a robust power in controlling it.

This book is divided into two parts covering a range of topics related to these basic dimensions of foreign language acquisition (the cognitive, affective, and sociocultural), analyzed from the point of view of personal and external forces interacting within the ecosystem of the foreign language learner. Part I, called *Internal Processes*, focuses on the body of research into the affective domain of the L2 language learner, as well as on their linguistic processing and cognitive representations of concepts. The second part, *External Processes*, aims to increase our understanding of the role of some social and cultural factors, such as foreign language teacher characteristics and skills, parental influences, and the leverage of the foreign language.

The first part of this volume scrutinizes learner internal affective and cognitive influences on the ecology of the process of L2 learning. A daring and pioneering perspective on language learner linguistic choices made while dreaming is proposed by Danuta Gabryś-Barker. The study, qualitative in nature, provides evidence of the value of exposure to linguistic and attitudinal factors resulting in involuntary use of L2. Additionally, the article raises the issue of the role of conscious and subconscious processes in defining a multilingual person. The attitudinal perspective affecting language acquisition is taken in the following chapter by Martin Hinton, who argues that the attractiveness of the target language may affect mimicry ability in L2 pronunciation. The *Cecily Effect,* a term proposed by the author inspired by one of Oscar Wilde's characters, is seen as an affective component that determines the learner's linguistic performance. Another affective variable, willingness to communicate (WTC), is put in the spotlight of the next chapter by Małgorzata Baran-Łucarz, who investigates whether WTC in and outside the foreign language (FL) classroom might be perceived as two separate constructs. This author explores students' perceived levels of FL skills in order to determine their relationship with L2 learners' WTC in the classroom and naturalistic settings. The concept of an autotelic learner, whose experience of foreign language learning is perceived as worth it for its own sake, constitutes the subject area of Beata Telążka's interest.

In her study, she investigates the differences in attitudes and achievements of autotelic and non-autotelic English philology students. The Flow Scale is used to identify the two groups; moreover, the participants' attitudes are elicited with the help of two other instruments: the Intrinsic Motivations Inventory and Experience Sampling Method. Although no significant difference in linguistic achievement is found between autotelic and non-autotelic respondents, the author draws a range of interesting and insightful conclusions referring to flow-inducing language learning activities experienced by autotelic learners.

Two consecutive chapters exploring cognition in foreign language learning conclude the first part of the volume. Pedro Luis Luchini follows L2 cognitive processing from the perspective of the language learner. Backed up with the cognitive load theory and its redundancy effect, the author provides the results of an experimental investigation in which two groups of young EFL learners pursue two different procedures: single and dual mode reading comprehension instructions. Following the former, group A learners concentrate on reading alone, whereas group B is requested to simultaneously read and listen. The results support the assumptions of cognitive load theory that the dual reading comprehension instruction constrains cognitive processing by imposing an additional load on working memory. Next, Marek Kuczyński investigates cognitive associations between representations of the same concept in L1 and L2. In particular, the author is interested in the way cognitive content is conceptualized in two languages by the language learner and what determines the activation of different associative patterns of one concept in a bilingual person.

The second part of the volume shifts the reader's attention to the external processes moderating the ecosystem of a foreign language learner. These feature investigations into teacher, parent, and cultural domains. The opening chapter in Part II initiates a discussion on the role of affect within a group of non-native L2 teachers. Nina Barłożek delves into the emotional intelligence (EI) of the language teacher and investigates the interplay between teachers' different levels of EI and L2 learners' perceptions and evaluation of teachers. Another correlational study in the chapter by Małgorzata Marzec-Stawiarska gives evidence of affective interconnections between in-service teachers' speaking anxiety and factors, such as perceived and actual speaking competence, self-efficacy, age, and gender. The results indicate that non-native L2 teachers who boast a high proficiency level are not devoid of anxiety while speaking in L2, particularly when they have high expectations connected with striving for native-like speaking abilities. In the subsequent chapter, Joanna Nijakowska describes the objectives, the life cycle, and the outcomes of the international, educational DysTEFL project, whose aim was to equip foreign language (FL) pre- and in-service teachers as well as teacher trainers with didactic materials relevant to the needs of FL learners with learning differences, dyslexia in particular. A detailed account of the project's preparation, management stages, the responsibilities of the participants, and verification procedures depicts the project's coordinator's attention to the final product's quality and adaptability to a range of contexts within the diverse European EFL teacher training schemes. The role of parental involvement in the L2 learner's education is

the focal point of the chapter by Joanna Rokita-Jaśków, who argues that a mother's knowledge of a foreign language has impact on her decisions regarding early enrollment of her child in a language learning course, whereas a father's level of L2 is related to his long-term aspirations concerning his child's L2 learning. Furthermore, the environmental support provided by the L2 teacher is indispensable to the proper functioning and intellectual development of any foreign language learner. Following this premise, Katarzyna Molek-Kozakowska presents high proficiency learners as a subject of interest. In her chapter, rhetoric is used as a tool for developing the critical literacy of EFL students, consciously manipulated by their FL instructor. The author looks at rhetorical instruments used for training, whose purpose is to raise EFL learners' sensitivity in approaching culture-specific texts. Finally, cultural problems in L2 learners' linguistic processing are addressed in Wafa abu Hatab's closing article. Hatab delves into advanced EFL students' difficulties in translating from English into Arabic, languages reflecting two social realities and representing two different cultures.

This volume is intended for an array of readers. First of all, it adds a new dimension to the existing body of research, and therefore may inspire scholars in pursuing further scientific designs connected with a more advanced "complexity-informed pedagogy for language learning" (Mercer, 2013, p. 1). Inquisitive teachers, who may want to augment their knowledge about complex and dynamic, internal and external factors that determine L2 learning processes, will also find much to offer within these pages. And finally, this book is particularly useful to L2 learners studying for a degree in applied linguistics and language acquisition, or those who are simply interested in the workings of the foreign language learner's ecosystem with respect to internal affective and cognitive processes, as well as external sociocultural interconnections. Ultimately, therefore, we hope that this volume will contribute to a better understanding of the intricacies that mark the foreign language learner's ecosystem.

Ewa Piechurska-Kuciel
Magdalena Szyszka

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Marek Kuczyński a senior lecturer at the University of Zielona Góra, Poland, is the author of many publications in the field of bilingualism and L2 acquisition as well as numerous successful English course books. His teaching programs have been included in the National Education Ministry's list recommended for primary and secondary schools. His research interests are cognitive linguistics, contrastive linguistics, bilingualism.

Pedro Luis Luchini is Adjunct Full-time Professor of ELT, Universidad Nacional de Mar del Plata (UNMDP), Argentina. He holds an MA in ELT and Applied Linguistics from King's College, University of London, UK. He enrolled for Doctorate in Letters at UNMDP. He was a Fulbright scholar (1998). He taught Spanish as FL at College of DuPage, Illinois, US. He also taught EFL at Shanghai Normal University, China (2003/2004). He served in Faculty Enrichment Program Scholarship at the Concordia University, Montreal, Canada. He is a recipient of Concordia University's Doctoral Research Award Scholarship and his spectrum of research interests include language development and applied phonology.

Małgorzata Marzec-Stawiarska works as Assistant Professor in the Department of English at Pedagogical University of Cracow. Her Ph.D. thesis analyzed the role of summarizing in developing reading and writing skills in a foreign language. Lately, her research interest has been connected with developing language skills in a foreign language classroom context, primarily speaking and writing, by engaging students into collaborative work. She is also interested in the role of affective domain in learning foreign languages. Her recent studies have investigated language-skill-specific anxiety experienced by teacher trainees and also by teachers of EFL.

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Joanna Rokita-Jaśkow Ph.D., D. Lit. works as Assistant Professor at Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland. Her main research interests concern the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspect of child foreign language acquisition. She is the author of over 30 research articles and 4 books, including the latest one: Foreign Language Learning at Pre-primary Level: Parental Aspirations and Educational Practice (2013).

Beata Telążka received her Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics in 2011 at Wrocław University. She is an author of publications in the field of psycholinguistics and L2 acquisition which she is particularly interested in. She is a member of Modern Language Association of Poland.

Part I
Internal Processes

What the Languages of Our Dreams Tell Us About Our Multilinguality

Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Abstract Multilinguality is not an exception but a norm, thus the body of research focusing on multilingual cognition and language use is quite large and extends from cognitive processes to the socio-affective dimensions of this complex phenomenon. Studies on the language choices multilinguals make report on their functioning either in authentic communication contexts or when involved in language learning tasks in the classroom. Apart from the studies of emotions words (Dewaele & Pavlenko in Language Learning 52:263–322, 2002) and swear words (Dewaele in Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development 25:204–222, 2004), relatively little has been said about how language choices are made in unconstrained (and perhaps subconscious) contexts, such as dreaming at night. This study offers some preliminary comments that will hopefully contribute to this area of research. The data used in the subsequent analytical section consists of a set of narratives of 22 multilinguals who were asked to reflect upon whether they dream multilingually and if so, what language choices they make subconsciously when dreaming. The results demonstrate the exposure to a given language to be the main determinant of its subconscious activation. Also the topic and the persons involved, a positive or negative attitude to a language as well as of a level of language competence play a role in language activation and choice when sleeping.

Keywords Multilinguality · Night dreams · Dreaming · Involuntary language activation · Dream theories · Language choice · Dream speech · Dream content

1 Introduction

William Shakespeare's Mercutio in *Romeo and Juliet* says that dreams are "children of an idle brain. Begot of nothing but vain fantasy". This may indeed be great literature but, dissenting from it, I believe with Sicard and de Bot (2013) that studying dreams

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may contribute to our knowledge on how information is processed in our minds in a subconscious state such as dreaming. Also, in the context of foreign language instruction, the state of sleep is often portrayed as facilitating learning and can even be consciously used for this purpose, as is demonstrated by the SITA method and its success as demonstrated by the accounts of the learners (personal communication).

Research on multilingual cognition and language use is quite extensive and ranges from cognitive processes to the socio-affective dimensions of this complex phenomenon. Studies on the language choices multilinguals make report on their functioning either in authentic communication contexts or when involved in language learning tasks in the classroom. However, very little has been said about multilinguals' involuntary choice of languages in less conscious cases, such as dreaming at night. The exceptions are the studies of Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002) on emotion words, Dewaele's (2004) research on swear words and Sicard and de Bot's (2013) study of multilingual dreaming in the L2 immersion context.

2 Defining and Studying Dreams

Lexicographic definitions of dream describe its primary literal meaning as "a series of thoughts, images, and sensations occurring in a person's mind during sleep", whereas metaphorically, a dream is a "cherished aspiration, ambition, or ideal" (http://oxforddicitonaries.com/definitions/english/dream). However, defining a dream consistently is difficult, if not impossible, because of the "wide spectrum of fields engaged in the study of dreaming, and the diversity in currently applied definitions. (…) A dream should not be exclusively defined as a non-conscious electrophysiologic state" (Pagel et al., 2001, p. 195). The state of dreaming is "(…) at least in part, a mental experience that can be described during waking consciousness." (*ibid*., p. 195). The cognitive model of dreaming sees a dream as:

> (…) the product of the interaction of three components:
> (a) the bottom-up activation of mnemonic elements coming from LTM (long term memory) systems,
> (b) interpretative and elaborative top-down processes, and
> (c) monitoring of phenomenal experience. A feedback circulation is activated among the components, where the top-down interpretative organization and the conscious monitoring of the oneiric scene elicitates other mnemonic contents, according to the requirements of the dream plot. This dream productive activity is submitted to unconscious and conscious processes. (Cicogna & Bosinelli, 2001, p. 26)

Scientific (and less scientific) discussions about the nature of dreams have been (and still are) a topic of concern in religious disputes as well as in philosophical and, more recently, psychological and neurological research. There is even a branch of science called *oneirology* that studies dreams: their connection to our unconscious, their content and interpretation, developing methodologies in studying dreams. Dreams are being studied, among various aspects, in terms of:

- the appearance of visual images in them—places, people and objects;
- the expression of emotions (which are most frequently negative emotions of anxiety, loss or fear, but also joy and happiness);
- their themes (for example sexual);
- colours in dreams (black and white *versus* multi-colour dreams).

Dream corpuses also demonstrate how dreams incorporate external reality. For example, real sounds such as a door bell ringing may enter sleep experience, the phenomenon being called *dream incorporation*. Some dream scientists focus on precognition (anticipation in the dreams of events that will happen in reality) as present in dreams; however, psychology usually explains these precognitions "in terms of memory biases, namely a selective memory for accurate predictions and distorted memory so that dreams are retrospectively fitted into life experiences" (*The Science Behind Dreams and Nightmares* online). Another phenomenon connected with studying dreams focuses on the degree of control over a dream exhibited by a dreaming person: the so-called *lucid dreaming* (Alcock, 1981).

One of the most studied dimensions of dreams is recall of dreams. In fact its frequency is minimal, as only 5 % of dreams are recalled and in the majority of cases the transmission from short term memory (STM) to long term memory (LTM) does not occur during the dream (Alcock, 1981). It is generally believed that two conditions are necessary for a dream to be recalled. One of these relates to a sudden awakening during the dream, whereas the other refers to dreams characterized as unusual, vivid or even bizarre, and so affectively intense. It is also the case, as personality trait measures show, that persons possessing more vivid, aroused and excitable characteristics who have such experiences during their awakened states, will transfer them to their states of dreaming. Various researchers of dreams also point to other reasons involved in the difficulty of dream recall. Freud believed that dreams are not remembered as they express what we want to hide or repress, whereas others have pointed to the vagueness, the frequent lack of intensity and lack of clarity of dreams, factors which contribute to forgetting. As dreams do not have direct associations with what we are exposed to in our waking state, there is no (strong) associative link between these two: the reality and the dream to be remembered.

In addition, dreams have been the focus of interest of psychologists, psychiatrists, philosophers and other scientists working in the area of neural network modeling or neurobiology. It constitutes quite significant research and occupies considerable therapeutic space in clinical medicine.

3 Dream Theories from Freud to Hobson

3.1 The Old School

The first notable names in research on dreams and dreaming were those of Freud, Adler, Jung, Perls and Hall (Table 1). Sigmund Freud, the father of psychoanalysis

Table 1 Prominent early dream scientists

Name	Focus
Sigmund Freud (1856–1939)	Dreams as the road to the unconscious mind (psychoanalytic theory of dreams)
Alfred Adler (1870–1937)	Dreams as expression of urge for power
Carl Gustav Jung (1875–1960)	Archetypes and the collective unconscious
Frederick Perls (1893–1970)	Dreams as disowned aspects of self
Calvin, S. Hall, Jr. (1909–1985)	Dream as a cognitive process

and the author of *The Interpretation of Dreams*, believed that studying dreams helps to uncover the hidden urges and instincts of a person expressed in their dreams, the unconscious power of the mind. His classification of the mind into the three related parts of *id* (primal desires and impulses), *ego* (the conscious and rationally and morally-oriented mind) and *superego* (controlling the id) has been enormously influential. The dream is such a state in which impulses and urges controlled by the ego in reality are uncovered by the unconscious id and transferred into some symbolic form. In other words, dreams allow us to find a way to explore and express our subconscious.

Alfred Adler, unlike Freud, sees a dream as a problem-solving tool. He believes that it expresses the problems experienced in reality, thus it is important to interpret dreams as they may help in gaining control of one's life. Adler does not see sexual instincts as the driving forces of human life as it was in the case of Freud's theories, but for him control, power and motivation are primary forces in our behaviour. Dreams compensate for what is missing in reality and demonstrate one's real feelings and emotions. Thus studying one's dreams is significant in developing one's awareness of one's true self.

In studying dreams Jung (1990), on the other hand, sees dreaming as the spiritual activity of communicating with one's unconscious, not only expressing repressed urges and desires, but also uncovering the underdeveloped aspects of one's self. Although he introduced archetypes into his dream theory (for example the Persona, the Shadow or the Anima among others) to represent archetypal dreams that occur at significant points in one's life, he also believed that dreams are very personal and reveal one's situation in waking life and one's relationships with others. Thus, they can only be practically interpreted by the dreamer himself/herself.

Frederick Perls, who is usually associated with gestalt therapy, believed that dreams should be reenacted (retold) in reality/life. In this way, the rejected and disowned parts of the self they express through the animate and inanimate objects that appear in dreams—the essence of every dream according to Perls—may fill the emotional void one feels in one's waking life, and as a consequence help one to become a unified whole.

Hall (1953) represents a cognitive approach to dreams. Dreams are seen in his theory as one's hidden thoughts expressed by the cognitive system of the ego, which in reality are unavailable to cognitive processes. In interpreting dreams, Hall

analyzes their content in terms of the concepts of the self, of other people, of the world and of the driving forces in one's life (e.g. impulses, problems and conflicts), expressed by actions of the dreamer, the objects that appear in a dream, the interactions that the dreamer gets involved with and the setting of a dream.

3.2 Dreams and Neurosciences

Mostly dreams are studied these days from the perspective of cognitive and neurosciences, which thanks to sophisticated equipment can observe brain processes as they occur when a person is asleep and dreaming, something indicated by rapid eye movements (REM sleep). There are five stages of sleeping differing in terms of depth of sleep (from light sleep in stage one to deeper sleep in stages three and four, and the deepest in stage 5) and different degrees of activation of brain waves (from the slowest delta and theta to the quickest alpha and beta waves). It is in the fifth stage of sleep, REM sleep, that most dreams are generated and in which significant physiological changes are also observed, such as a quicker heart beat and faster breathing and higher blood pressure.

William Domhoff, a contemporary of Calvin Hall, Jr. and a renowned scholar studying dreams, believed that they reflected one's waking life in that they expressed one's real thoughts and desires pursued in one's waking life. For him, dreaming is a neurological process. Also, the Activation-Synthesis Model of Dreaming proposed by Hobson and McCarley (1977) is based on the neurological evidence of brain functioning during sleep. It assumes that dreams occur during the REM stage of sleep, when some parts (circuits) of the brain become active. They are the limbic system (amygdale and hippocampus) responsible for affective processing and memories, and only later on the cognitive processing occurs, which interprets the internal stimulus received and eventually results in dreaming. Hobson believes that dreams make sense and seemingly nonsensical meanings are novel combinations of ideas and thoughts significant to the dreamer.

4 Language in Dreams: An Overview of Studies of Multilinguals' Dreams

Linguistic aspects of dreams find their way into scholarly studies of *dream speech*, which is the term used to describe the language that appears in dreams, focusing on incorrect or novel forms found in the dream corpuses collected. This area of research was initiated by Kraepelin in 1906 (*On language disturbances in dreams*) when he compared the distorted linguistic forms of dream speech to his schizophrenic patients' language performances, pointing to similarities between the two in terms of the same forms of incorrect language, for example *paraphasias*—wrong

word selection or *agrammatisms.* These findings were also confirmed more recently in research on dream speech carried out by Prof. Barrett at Harvard University, who observed in her students' dream speech forms characteristic of Wernicke's aphasia patients with intact Broca area.

When meeting a multilingual person, the questions that such a person is often exposed to concern the interlocutor's possible non-multilinguality, and what languages he/she activates consciously or subconsciously when thinking. In an online interview a scholar and a true multilingual, Aneta Pavlenko, when asked about language choices in her dreams responded in the following way:

> Over the years, I remember having all of my languages, from Polish, to French, to Spanish, to Russian, visiting my dreams. Yet the dreamspace, like all other areas of my life, is dominated by English.

Table 2 Sample studies of multilingual dreaming

Name	Focus	Observations/findings
Vildomec (in Grosjean, 2011)	Language proficiency in multilingual dreams	Perceived, unreal perception of the level and language choice (which language was really activated)
Leischner (1965)	Variables affecting polyglot dreams, comparison between aphasic polyglots and normal polyglots in language choices	Analogies in language choices in aphasiac subjects and polyglot dreams
		Factors determining multilingual dreaming: environment of the dream, feelings towards the language immediately before the dream, emotional attitude to the given, foreign language community
De Koninck Christ, Rinfret, & Proulx (1988)	Relation between language choice in dreams and learning experiences of that language before sleep	Activation of the language learnt in a dream after the time the learning occurred in reality
		Dreams seen as reflections of cognitive processes of learning in reality
Foulkes et al. (1993)	A study of pre-sleep thought samples and the REM dream reports in the waking state on the dream speech	The influence of pre-sleep language environment (the waking state) on language choice in sleep
Grosjean (2010a)	Involuntary language choice when dreaming	Factors determining the choice: the situation and the person one dreams about (the *complementarity principle*)
Sicard & de Bot (2013)	Relations between L2 proficiency, environment duration, context—home versus abroad—and L2 dreams occurrences	L2 dreams occur more often in high proficiency multilinguals
		L2 environment promotes L2 dreaming

Grosjean (2010b) has proposed the so-called *complementarity principle* in which he emphasizes that: "Bilinguals usually acquire and use their languages for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people. Different aspects of life often require different languages. I have called this complementarity principle" (p. 1).

Despite the fact that dreams have been studied for a long time from various perspectives and for various purposes, serious studies of dream speech are scarce and those on bi- and multilingual dreaming are even less numerous (Table 2).

5 The Study

The present study is a part of a larger project concerning language processing and activation in involuntary contexts such as the thinking (Gabryś-Barker, 2013) and dreaming of multilingually competent language users. It is a mixed method study with both quantitative and qualitative data derived from the subjects' narrative comments on language activation when dreaming in their night sleep.

5.1 Description of the Study

The research questions posed in this pilot study on multilingual dreaming are the following:

- Do multilinguals dream in different languages and what affects their sub-conscious language choice?
- What are the contexts in which different languages are being activated when dreaming?

In this piloting stage of the project the subjects were 22 Polish multilingual university students at the Institute of English, University of Silesia, teaching profile, with C1 level English (L2) and A2/B1 level of German or French (L3). The proportions of different language exposure to and use can be established at the level of 70 % for Polish (daily functioning, contacts with family and friends, exposure to media) and approximately 30 % for both L2 (lectures and classes, a teaching job, interactions with peers, exposure to media) and L3 (solely classes).

The study is mainly qualitative in nature, so a narrative text was used as the data collection tool. The subjects were asked to write a short reflective text: *Language(s) of your dreams* (300 words). The subjects were provided with guiding questions, which helped to constitute the deductive categories of analysis:

- Do you dream multlingually?
- Which languages appear in your dreams?
- What is the level of your proficiency in each of them (in your dreams)?
- In which contexts (events) does a specific language appear?

5.2 Sample Narratives (Data)

5.2.1 Quantitative Data

Does the state of dreaming make multilinguals react similarly in terms of the language choices they make, as it does in the thinking process, or do these study findings diverge? After all, dreams are clearly uncontrollable, which is not always the case with thinking. Even if we want to influence our dreams, be this on the level of content or language, we clearly do not have the power. Table 3 demonstrates the quantitative data based on the collected narratives.

The above quantitative data confirms the results of previous studies. It demonstrates that multilinguals indeed dream in their different languages, with L1 being the dominant language in their dreams (100 %). They also show the influence of level of proficiency on the amount of dreaming in a given language; more precisely, the higher the level, the more often the language is chosen in dream speech (also observed by Sicard & de Bot, 2013). The level of language in their dreams also appears to the subjects to be higher than it is in reality (except for L1, where the level appears to be the same and for one subject it is even lower). Only one subject mentions that L2 and L3 levels are the same as in their conscious waking state.

Table 3 Multilingual dreaming data in numbers (n/a—not applicable)

Focus	Yes/No	L1	L2	L3	Ln
1. Do you dream multilingually?	95/5 % (21/1)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
2. In which languages do you dream?	n/a	100 % (22)	95 % (21)	32 % (7)	9 % (2)
3. What is your level of proficiency in each language?	n/a	Same: 95 % (21) lower: 5 % (1)	Higher: 95 % (21) same: 5 % (1)	Higher: 95 % (6) same: 5 % (1)	n/a

5.2.2 Qualitative Data

As to inductive categories identified on the basis of the narratives collected, they can be classified as those relating to:

- dream recall ability;
- the context and its role in dream speech;
- the dominance of L1 in dream states;
- affectivity;
- language proficiency in each of languages.

The subjects also commented on their ability to recall their dreams in waking states and gave examples of their multilingual dreams. The state of sleep (and thus of dreaming) is perceived by one of the subjects as a time to relax so it is devoid of other languages. "I read, watch films and think in English without any problems but when I sleep, I believe my dreams are in Polish. It is possible that my mind wants to relax and therefore it chooses the easiest way to do it" (subject 49). Another subject who does not dream multilingually at all says "(…) being so immersed in English language and culture I have been for the last years, speaking, thinking and feeling in English, the lack of English dreams makes me sad" (S10). Additionally, two of the subjects had a dream in a language unknown to them. The origin of the first dream was unexplained, however the subject was able to comment on its linguistic characteristics: "It was a certain language which seemed to belong to an Asian groups of languages as there were many high-pitched sounds" (S11). The other dream aroused curiosity in the student as she said:

> *The weirdest dream I have ever had was about meeting people from another country (which I actually never identified) and talking with them in a strange, unknown language. I tried to check which language it might have been when I woke up but I never found out.* (S21)

Dream Recall

Some of the subjects found the topic difficult to reflect upon for the simple reason that "most of my dreams involve silent images, dialogues, discussions and conversation appear rarely" (S5):

> *Dreaming is a subconscious process. In fact, I often do not remember my dreams. It is usually a vague feeling that there was something in my dream but I cannot recall what it was. I am 23 years old and I can remember only four whole dreams.* (S4)

> *Well, in fact, the dreams I remember after having woken up are a rarity. I always have certain specific dreams when there are some special events forthcoming. These include the events that I am stressed about as well as the ones which are particularly important for me personally.* (S14)

> *Frankly speaking, I simply do not remember most of my dreams when I wake up. I only remember the images from my dreams if I happen to have them. The images are usually black and white pictures. I usually remember what or how I felt in a particular dream.* (S18)

The Context and Its Role in Dream Speech

The narrative data brought a fairly homogenous picture of contexts in which involuntary language activation tends to occur, according to a pattern in which L1 is activated for daily, family and friend contexts and themes of a dream. As the subjects' main focus of study, L2 appears in the dreams evoking the situations of exams, work at school, travelling to English-speaking countries and also in some daily activities, whereas L3, which was rarely evoked, seems to be associated with vacations and exposure to L3 in German-speaking countries. The following samples illustrate the pattern:

(…) when people are exposed to one language more frequently, they start to identify with this language. (…) it was during my two months´ stay in Austria that I experienced multilingual dreaming. I dreamed in German. The reason for that was my contact and interaction with the native speakers of German. The new environment and new people influenced my dreams. It was a nice experience because it improved my self-esteem and gave hope to improve my language skills in German. (S2)

When I was in Ireland living with the Irish family, most of the time I was minding the children. (…) The experience of taking care of triplets was so intensive that it haunted me in my dreams. The moment I came back home I left my dreams in English in Ireland. (…) The fact of having an interview in English had a great impact on my dreams. Even at night I could not clam down and I was dreaming about the interview two nights in a row. Such a situation always happens when there is a difficult English exam ahead of me. The emotions are so strong that it affects my dreams. (…) it also happened to me to dream in L3 – Spanish. After studying really hard, newly acquired vocabulary appeared in my dreams, these were however only some new expressions or collocations. (S5)

There were a few cases of dreams in which I spoke or I was spoken to in English. It happened when I was abroad for a longer period of time and I started having dreams about people I have met and the places I was in. (S6)

(…) scenes in which I have some contact with objects (or people) connected with a foreign culture. For instance, reading an English book, listening to music. (…) it seems to me that English language appears in my mind as part of my life and so does it in my dreams. (S8)

English is present in my dreams either in the context of visiting foreign countries or meeting foreign people. Sometimes it is also set in the context of education when I am dreaming about teaching other people by means of English. Germans appears only in the situations which involve the presence of my German-speaking family. (S11)

From my early childhood I have wanted to become an English teacher. It was my dream. Today when I have multilingual dreams they are all connected with English. In such dreams I am a perfect teacher who speaks as a native speaker of English. (S15)

It is typical of me to have dreams in English before some important exam in English or the final English test. (S17)

My dreaming in English takes place at night or a week before the important events at the university. These events can concern my English tests and exams. For example, if I have an oral exam, I prepare for it in my dreams. While dreaming, I can practice my English all the night. (…) My English dreaming activates my motivation to learn and emotional states. For instance, my dreams are reflections of my wish to become the native speaker, pass the exam or meet new people. (S8)

I am of the opinion that the language with which we go to bed is the language we dream with. (S5)

Dominance of L1 in Dream States

The role of the mother tongue in dream speech not surprisingly brings the immediate reaction of the subjects that it is the main language of their dreams:

> *The native language is present in my dreams due to several reasons. First, the dream is a form of my subconscious thinking. Before going to sleep I always think about bad things which happened during the day. (…) another reason of using the native language in dreams is the context of situations. My daily routine tasks happen in most cases while thinking or speaking in Polish.* (S9)

> *My native language appears in my dreams almost always. It is due to the fact that I usually dream about people who are Polish as well and the dreams are set in Polish reality.* (S6)

The Affective Dimension of Multilingual Dreams

The subjects emphasize the affectively marked character of their night dreams, also relating this to the language which is activated:

> *Both dreams (in English and German) were neutral dreams. They were not nightmares and they also were not good or happy dreams. (…) most of my dreams are of course in Polish. When I dream of something emotional, when I am scared, happy, when I feel anxiety or stress, I always dream in Polish.* (S7)

> *These dreams (in L2 English) were connected only with positive emotions and feelings but occurred rather rarely. (…) When it comes to German, it is not possible to write anything at all. I have been a student of German for several years but I do not have a positive and optimistic attitude towards the language and studying it as in the case of English. Maybe it is the reason I cannot recall anything.* (S13)

> *I have never been to England or any other English speaking countries and that I do not keep in touch with native speakers. Perhaps after such experiences I could have dreams in English connected with the visited places and the people met there. It is however, just my personal explanation used to feel a little better about myself as a language learner but sometimes it seems that there is something missing in my multilingual picture.* (S10)

Language proficiency in each of the languages

It can be generally observed (as it was in the studies overviewed earlier) that the subjects perceive their language competence in their dreams in the majority of case as higher than in reality, in this way articulating their desire to be more fluent (see Table 3):

> *I dream in English at a high level of proficiency. I must admit that when I speak English in my dreams, my speaking abilities are better than in reality. The explanation of that can be my wish to become as proficient in English as a native speaker. Therefore my dreams may reflect my desire to speak English at the same level as I speak Polish.* (S8)

I was communicating in English. I must admit that my level of proficiency was definitely higher than in reality. In that dream I was speaking fluently with an American accent. The whole situation took place in the USA. (S9)

I perceive myself as a quite good speaker of both English and German and in my dreams I was speaking quite fluently. There were also dreams in which I was speaking even better. (…) I dream about something I would like to gain (S19)

Full Descriptions of Multilingual Dreams

There were not many but a few subjects remembered their dreams in their entirety. Each of these dreams demonstrates a strong connection to learning experiences and especially to stress-related educational challenges, such as tests and exams:

English in my dreams has happened before some stressful situations that were going to happen to me. I remember one of such dreams very clearly. It was just before I started working at school. The night before the first day I could not fall asleep and when I finally did, I dreamt that when I entered the classroom, the children were sitting straight, smiling and waving at me. I waved back at them and just when I wanted to say hello, pupils started to ask me questions like "What´s your name? Where are you from? What´s your favourite animal? all at once. I thought it was funny because these were the questions that I wanted to ask them during the first lesson. I told them to hush, stop asking questions, but they became more naughty and were shouting these questions at me. I tried to calm them down but the more I tried the more they were screaming. Finally, I woke up from this nightmare with a headache. (S20)

It happened when I was overwhelmed by English vocabulary because I was learning for two vocabulary tests (the junior high school and language school). In that dream I believe I was in New York (although I am not sure) and English words (from a word list) appeared on the building around me. When I said a Polish equivalent or an English definition of the word, it disappeared. It was kind of repetition before the tests. In that dream I did not remember one word "haphazard" and that word did not disappear but was appearing everywhere. The first thing in the morning was to check the meaning of that word… (S4)

Other Comments

There was one example of a so-called reality-integrated dream:

I don´t remember the plot of my English dream. (…) during the dream I was woken up by the phone. I picked up the phone and instead of saying "halo" or "Słucham", I simply said "yes", the person calling must have been confused. (S7)

6 Discussion

In the first part of the project on involuntary language activation, I focused on the thinking processes of multilinguals. The observations were made on the basis of narrative texts produced by a sample of multlinguals, more or less homogenous

with the present informants. They demonstrated that exposure to a given language is the main determinant of its not only conscious but also subconscious use in one's thinking processes, irrespective of the context, whether that be immersion in an L2 context or a formal instructional setting. In the former context, this exposure leads to multilingual thinking, which in turn leads to the integrative process (with L2 culture and people), whereas in the latter context, multilingual thinking becomes a facilitative dimension of expressing culture-grounded or related thoughts. Multilingual thinking is also facilitated by the choice of the topic of one's thoughts as some topics will be more typical of and encourage the use of a given language, for example, when philology students discuss study topics. Multilingual thinking can thus be a form of rehearsing for performance in a given language. A very positive or negative attitude to a language either facilitates or inhibits language choice in thinking. The former attitude stimulates language activation and leads to more self-confidence, positive perception of oneself and the ability to perform better in a given language. The latter attitude results in withdrawal and less multilingual activation when thinking and thus less confidence in speaking. The subjects see the value of multilingual thinking as an effective learning strategy, increasing both exposure to a learnt language but also its active use in dialogue with oneself, which goes beyond the learning experience as it is transferred to daily life. Thinking multilingually is seen not only as a learning strategy but also as evidence of a high level of language competence which itself leads to language success. This language success is multidimensional. It not only offers rehearsal for performance in a foreign language but also has an impact on L1 awareness and on performance in L2/L3.

The following findings and observations can be made with respect to multilingual dreaming. In relation to dream theories: the subjects offered dream narrations as expressing the unconscious mind, the deeply hidden and those overtly present fears and desires, aspects of their professional selves, such as the desire to be professionally competent (as teachers) and native-like language users. The narratives on dreams demonstrated how they reflect (or reflect on) a cognitive process of FL learning, often picturing situations like preparing for an exam and being examined, also interacting with real or imagined NSs. Their recall, as has been emphasized, brought out the emotions that accompanied the verbal aspects of dreaming.

In relation to other dream studies: as was observed in these other studies, perception of language competence being higher than in reality was generally observed by the subjects—as if reflecting the desire for this competence. The environment prior to sleeping was pointed out as a significant factor in language choice in a dream, as were their feelings towards a given language. The pre-sleep experience of a language was seen as determining dream speech, whereas learning experiences of a language made this language more present in one's dreams. The subjects also reported on precognition dreams, in which anticipated events relating to their studies (mostly stressful situations of exams) and their professional lives (e.g. an interview for a job) were pictured.

In reference to thinking: pre-sleep exposure to a given language appeared to be the main determinant of its subconscious activation, along with the topic and the

persons involved in a dream—as was also observed in multilingual thinking. A positive (facilitative) or negative (inhibiting) attitude to a language makes the subconscious mind involuntarily chose it, or otherwise. It also is seen as a form of rehearsal for learning, an exam or a job. The subjects also strongly believe that multilingual dreaming is evidence of a certain level of language competence.

7 Conclusions

There are some analogies between language activation in the thinking and dreaming of multilingual language users. Both are strongly influenced by the context of language functioning, immersion in the language, but also affective aspects of functioning in these languages in life and interactions with other people. Reflecting on language use in its involuntary activation, such as occurs in thinking and dreaming, tells us something significant about our multilinguality. Some believe that you are only truly a proficient language user if you think, dream and count in this language. As the subject in my study who never dreams multilingually notes rather plaintively: "There is something missing in my multilingual picture" (S10). If we only activate a given language consciously, are we not just learners of this language for whom it has not penetrated deeply enough to become part of our subconscious? The question still remains how to define a true multilingual.

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The *Cecily Effect*: A Pilot Study

Martin Hinton

Abstract During earlier trials investigating mimicry ability and its effect on second language pronunciation, I discovered that while most subjects showed similar levels of ability across trials with different input languages, some did significantly better on one language than others. An examination of the individuals affected suggested that they may have been influenced by the perceived degree of attractiveness of the input language. This possible phenomenon I refer to as the *Cecily Effect*, after the Oscar Wilde character who felt speaking German made her look plain. This paper discusses the importance of mimicry in general and the role of perception of the target language in ultimate performance, as well as describing the original trials referred to above. It goes on to give a detailed account of a pilot study conducted on ten female subjects using three input languages. Subjects rated a sample of each language for attractiveness, completed a mimicry exercise in each language and filled out a personality questionnaire as well as providing a sample of English pronunciation. Scores in the mimicry exercise could then be compared both with each other and with the responses given to the survey questions, as well as the level of ability in English pronunciation. Although the number of participants was too small to draw any real conclusion from the attempt to link attitudinal factors with mimicry ability, the results do seem to support the claims that mimicry ability does influence eventual foreign language pronunciation, and that it may be influenced both by affective and personality factors.

Keywords Mimicry · Aptitude · Affect · Pronunciation · The *Cecily Effect*

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1 Introduction

The number and variety of individual factors which may affect the foreign language performance of any given learner is so great as to appear daunting to those who would investigate the reasons for success and failure among language students and yet, in their very complexity, these factors provide fascinating and apparently limitless opportunities for research. The difficulty in reaching firm and speedy conclusions as to the full extent of influential factors and their relative importance is due, in large part, to their tendencies to fluctuate across time and context and to interact dynamically with one another. These tendencies are so pronounced that perhaps the most respected commentator in the field, Zoltan Dörnyei, has spoken of the traditional view of unchanging, independent, individual differences as a 'myth', claiming that such a view "does not do justice to the dynamic, fluid and continuously fluctuating nature of learner factors and neither does it account for the complex internal and external interactions that we can observe" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 253). One reaction to this statement might be to abandon the idea of individual differences research altogether, but this would be to miss the point. The wiser course is to continue to research factors contributing to learner success, but to do so in the knowledge that each of those factors is itself many-faceted and that its operation on the learning process may be influenced by a range of other factors, some of which may be completely unknown and unsuspected. This paper investigates a hypothesised complicating factor which might be responsible for the apparent breakdown, in some individuals, of a relationship which generally holds for the wider population. The number of factors leading to this kind of interference is certainly large and possibly infinite, however, the identification of those which have a particularly noticeable effect on the learning process is a valuable pursuit, both for the development of improved individualised teaching programmes and for the theoretical understanding of foreign language learning. I begin with a brief discussion of research into the possibility of mimicry ability as an individual difference affecting language learning and in particular its relationship to the eventual proficiency in pronunciation of the target language. One element of this discussion will be a review of my own previous research, focusing on a recent experiment involving mimicry in two languages which, despite reaching conclusions in line with expectations founded on previous work, produced some apparently anomalous results in the scores of certain individuals. My attempts to explain these unexpected results led to the description of a hypothetical factor affecting mimicry scores and possibly pronunciation levels, which I refer to as the *Cecily Effect*. This phenomenon and its possible impact are explained and discussed in a subsequent section. The principal focus of the paper, however, will be on the description of a study carried out with a small number of participants in order to ascertain whether or not traces of the *Cecily Effect* at work could be found to match those in the earlier research. The method and results are fully described in the relevant sections and followed by a summary of points of interest they raise. The size of the study means that these points serve only to encourage the execution of a

full-scale research project, rather than to provide evidence for the hypothesised effect. With this in mind, a careful analysis of the tools and methods used is also presented and possible changes and improvements in the further study are discussed.

2 Mimicry Ability

Piske, MacKay, and Flege (2001) list the following as factors claimed to affect degree of foreign accent: age of learning of L2, length of residence, gender, formal instruction, motivation, language learning aptitude and language use. Under the heading of 'language learning aptitude' they consider two possibilities: musical ability and mimicry. Although they suggest that insufficient study has been done on these factors they make the following observation:

> In summary, musical ability has as yet not been identified as one of those variables that have an important influence on degree of L2 foreign accent. The ability to mimic unfamiliar speech sounds, on the other hand, has repeatedly been identified as a significant and independent predictor of foreign L2 accent. (Piske et al., 2001, p. 202)

They do not consider wider measures of aptitude, in spite of the fact that John Carrol's Modern Languages Aptitude Test includes a task designed to assess what he terms 'phonetic coding ability' (Carroll, 1965) and Pimsleur's Language Aptitude Battery actually makes 'auditory ability' account for over half the aptitude score (Pimsleur, 1966).

The principal work cited in favour of the influence of mimicry is that of Purcell and Suter (1980). They put mimicry ability second only to native language in importance of effect on foreign accent and noted, to the disappointment of many educators, that these were factors "which teachers have the least influence on" (Purcell & Suter, 1980, p. 285).

Sadly, Jilka (2009) points to a lack of studies which take mimicry ability to be a "universal pronunciation skill" (p. 7) and notes that most research which has been done has involved subjects mimicking sounds in the L2 or attempting to imitate certain foreign accents. Even these trials, however, were less concerned with speakers' ability to mimic and more with perceptual differences between them.

A clear link between mimicry ability and foreign language pronunciation, however, was found in two small scale studies conducted by the present author (Hinton, 2013). In the first trial a group of 10 Polish students of English was assessed for a number of elements of linguistic performance and given a test mimicking an unknown language (French). When the students were ranked for pronunciation and mimicry ability, the two rankings were an almost perfect match and very strong correlations were also seen with other parts of spoken English, such as fluency. Although the sample was too small for the results to carry significance, the pattern of correspondence was obvious. A second trial, using identical tests,

outlined in the same paper, involving 16 students at the same institution also found a strong correlation, r = .51 (p = .04), between mimicry skill and pronunciation. In both tests, the students who were clearly the best pronouncers of English proved to be good mimics and those with very poor pronunciation were also very weak mimics.

More significantly, Reiterer et al. (2011) report on their larger scale study involving a total of 113 adult Germans who were assessed for a range of variables including their English pronunciation and ability to mimic sentences in Hindi, before some of them were subjected to MR brain scanning while performing mimicry tasks. This study shows, as would be expected, an interesting correlation between mimicry and working memory (r = .37, p = .000) and between mimicry and English language pronunciation (r = .3, p = .001), but no link between mimicry and measures of intelligence or language training. For the purposes of the second part of the study involving magnetic resonance brain imaging, the subjects were divided into three groups, the top 15 % of mimics, the bottom 15 % and the rest. A sample of members of each group (9 each from the extreme groups and 18 from the middle) was then scanned and differences in brain structure and activity noted. The analysis of this work is, necessarily, of a complex nature but clear differences were found between the groups. In conclusion, they state:

> The results of our study point to a distinct neurofunctional/neuro-anatomical signature of speech imitation ability (aptitude) […]
> At the neuro-functional level (fMRI), we observed a clear-cut difference between low and high ability speakers as a function of their imitation ability: low ability imitators showed significantly higher amounts of activation and more extended clusters during sentence and word imitation. (Reiterer et al., 2011, p. 9)

They go on to report that the most important areas of activity revealed during the actual imitation test were connected with speech motor execution and the phonological loop which appears to suggest a distinct physiological basis for differences in both perception and production of sound, but the authors are reluctant to draw this inference as they believe the two functions to overlap significantly.

Taken together these results certainly suggest that mimicry ability is both a good predictor of foreign language pronunciation and an independent factor, not linked to intelligence or training but with an observable basis in brain chemistry. It is reasonable, therefore, to expect a particular learner's foreign language pronunciation to be predicted by his mimicry scores and, if mimicry ability is directly linked to the anatomy of the brain, to expect the degree of talent at sound repetition to be constant across different input languages. This does not mean, of course, that all languages will be mimicked with equal success in absolute terms, but that an individual who is relatively talented at mimicry should perform relatively well whatever the source of sounds, other things being equal. It is, then, also reasonable to assume that when a learner's relative mimicry ability does not predict his foreign language pronunciation or when his relative ability to mimic is not constant across different input languages, there must be other factors at work.

3 Affective Interference

The most obvious area in which to look for such factors is the affective sphere. The influence of affect on the learning process has been the subject of a great deal of study for some time (see Arnold, 1999). Of most interest here, however, is the impact of affective factors on particular cognitive processes and skills, such as those involved in mimicry. While much has been written about such interactions in general and some areas have been studied more closely, little work has been done on mimicry and pronunciation ability.

In the field of memory, for example, Stevick (1999) identified five different ways in which affect can influence its workings. He described these categories as: affective data; affect as a source of clutter; affect and feedback from one's own use of language; affect and playback from others' use of language; and affect and the use of what one knows. The point here being that affect is involved at every stage of the memory process, input, storage and output.

The only study which looks at affective factors, a wide range of personality scales, in conjunction with mimicry and pronunciation performance is that of Hu and Reiterer (2009). They looked at personality from several perspectives without trying to judge which was the correct one, but seeking observable patterns of personality traits and pronunciation talent. Unfortunately, their results did not bring much clarity to the issue. They found a weak link between empathy and pronunciation skill and discovered that "subjects with a greater degree of pronunciation talent experienced more positive affects such as being excited, proud and determined during the phonetic-articulation task" (Hu & Reiterer, 2009, p. 119). As they point out, however, it is impossible to know whether it is these positive affects which cause the better performance or the good performance which leads to positive feelings.

This same confusion has been highlighted in the study of language learning anxiety, a factor considered in this study, by the work of Ganschow and Sparks (1996). They accept the negative link between anxiety and performance but ask: "Does anxiety interact with pre-existing language ability, which, in turn, impairs foreign language performance or does poor foreign language performance lead to anxiety as a consequence?" (p. 200).

What is clear, is that the ways affective factors influence the processes of language learning and performance are numerous and complex. This study concentrates on one possible field of influence which is described in the following section.

4 The *Cecily Effect*

The *Cecily Effect* is named after Cecily Cardew, the character in Oscar Wilde's comedy The Importance of Being Earnest. At the beginning of Act Two, the young lady is about to be given a German lesson by her governess and complains, "But I

don't like German. It isn't at all a becoming language. I know perfectly well that I look quite plain after my German lesson" (Wilde, 1957, p. 375). The *Cecily Effect*, therefore, is defined not as a reluctance to speak a language which one considers unattractive, but, rather, as a reluctance to speak a language one considers to make one seem unattractive while speaking it. This reluctance, it is suggested, is likely to be manifested in poor accent when the 'Cecily' is forced to use the unbecoming language as she will attempt to resist the more unattractive sounds and replace them with the prettier sounds of her native tongue. Empirically then, we can say that the *Cecily Effect* has occurred when an individual demonstrating an above average level of interest in his own appearance produces lower scores, relative to the other testees, in the pronunciation of languages which he has identified as unattractive, than in the pronunciation of languages which he has identified as more attractive. The determination of the exact degree to which these scores should be lower and how far above average the interest in appearance must be is one of the objects of the experimental work.

The first evidence of this effect was noticed during analysis of the results of the experimental work undertaken as part of my doctoral studies (Hinton, 2012). This study involved a total of 41 participants, all trainee English teachers in Sieradz, Poland. Mimicry tests, using a similar method to the ones described below, were carried out using French and Dzhonga (the official language of Bhutan) as input languages. The French test was undoubtedly harder, with much lower average scores (57 % compared to 73 %), and yet for a small group of participants the difference between the scores was very small or indeed reversed. When the overall mimicry scores of this group were compared with the English accent rating, it was clear that their mimicry was unexpectedly low, brought down by their poor performance in Dzhonga. The overall mimicry to accent correlation was r = .33 (significant at $p = .035$, n = 41) for all participants but jumped to r = .43 (significant at $p = .005$, n = 38) when the three who had struggled at Dzhonga mimicry were excluded from the results.

The challenge now was to find a reason why these participants had done so poorly in Dzhonga mimicry. The first common factor was that the three most striking examples were all female. Also, all three could be regarded as attractive young women and, in the judgement of the researcher at least, seemed to pay particular attention to their appearance. All three also gave the impression of experiencing a degree of discomfort in completing the mimicry task, which may or may not have been related to the presence of the researcher while they were performing.

These circumstances led to the suggestion that they may have exhibited a *Cecily Effect* whereby their performance in mimicking Dzhonga, an odd sounding language for Europeans, had been adversely affected by their feelings about how speaking that language would make them appear. Mimicry testing does appear to be a good way of predicting eventual degree of accent in foreign languages but will be more effective if factors such as the *Cecily Effect* can be accounted for and prevented from skewing results.

The Cecily hypothesis would, of course, need to be investigated experimentally, and other similar factors sought for. The present study is designed to pilot some of

the tools which may be used in that investigation, but is also of particular interest, despite its small size, since it features two of the original Cecilys, and thus allows for confirmation of the original results with the same subjects. The hypotheses under investigation are:

(i) Feelings about how the nature and sound of a language affect the attractiveness of the speaker may affect performance in that language.
(ii) This effect will be manifested only in those with a strong feeling for the importance of their appearance.
(iii) Other attitudinal factors may interact with personality variables to affect both English accent and mimicry scores.

5 Method

The trials described in this section were conducted in Sieradz at the foreign language teacher training college (Nauczycielskie Kolegium Języków Obcych) in May 2013.

5.1 Participants

The participants were 10 female students of the college in their second or third year of full-time English studies. None of them had had any previous experience of the languages used in the mimicry exercise and none of them had spent a significant amount of time in an English-speaking country. All 10 had been taught in small classes by the researcher (among other teachers) for at least three semesters. Three of the participants (Nos. 1, 2 and 5) had taken part in the previous study described above and two of them (2 and 5) had been identified as 'Cecilys'. The involvement of these individuals was designed to check whether the effect would be repeated at a different time, using different input languages and a different affect survey. As has been noted above, the small number of participants is related to the fact that this study was intended to pilot the method and tools of investigation for a larger study, and also to allow the consideration of qualitative data drawn from the researcher's knowledge of and relationship with the participants.

5.2 Materials

The first phase of the experiment consisted of a survey featuring 24 statements rated on a 5 point Likert scale, from 'disagree' 1 point, to 'agree' 5 points. The statements were in six groups of four, with each group designed to produce a score out of 20

for a different variable, A full list of statements is given in Appendix 1. The six categories were, importance of sound, importance of appearance, language anxiety, regard for Polish, regard for English, and interest in foreign cultures. The choice of these variables was based on a number of factors. In earlier studies, importance of pronunciation had appeared a promising category but had produced a limited range of scores as all students more or less agreed with its importance, so a slight change was made to focus instead on the sound of languages generally, and particularly, given the hypothesis of the experiment, on the attractiveness of that sound. Importance of appearance was obviously required to test the hypothesis that performance might be impacted by that very factor. Language anxiety is a well-known affective variable and had proved the most effective predictor in my previous work. The statements here were based on the frequently-cited work of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986). The remaining three categories were designed to allow for the assessment of other possible factors of interference. Would a high regard for Polish lead to unwillingness to pronounce in a foreign accent? Would a high regard for English make up for a lack of mimicry talent in the English accent score and would a general interest in foreign cultures influence the mimicry of less-familiar, more exotic languages? With the exception of the anxiety scale, all of these categories were being piloted somewhat speculatively.

The second phase of the study involved the use of three input languages: Italian, Chinese and Greek. The choice of languages was made after informal questioning of students revealed a strong preference for the sound of Romance languages and a strong dislike for Asian ones. The decision to use Italian and Chinese as representatives of these groups was influenced by access to native speakers to assist with the grading of mimicry. Greek was chosen as something of a halfway-house, a European language, with an exotic sound which was unlikely to be recognised, although no native speaker could be found.

The third and final phase was the recording of each participant reading aloud a text in English. The text (see Appendix 3) was taken from an unpublished short story written by the researcher to ensure that it was unfamiliar to them all.

Samples were played and responses recorded on a standard laptop computer using freely-available Audacity software.

5.3 Procedure

Each participant was studied individually. At first, the participants were played samples of each of the three languages and after each sample were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale to four statements about the attractiveness of the language (see Appendix 2). They were also asked to identify the language if possible. The sound samples lasted about 30 s, were all taken from television programmes and all featured one male and one female native speaker of the language. Participants listened to each sample once.

The participants were then asked to complete three mimicry exercises, one in each of the three input languages, which were recorded. Ten words or short phrases were played to the subjects with a pause after each one for them to repeat the sound they had just heard. The input sound was heard just once and the repetition was immediate. These responses were then graded on a 0–3 scale: 0 = no response, 1 = a poor response, 2 = a reasonable response and 3 = a good response. While this scale may raise immediate questions as to what 'poor', 'reasonable' and 'good' mean, it should be remembered that what is of importance is not an absolute performance score but a relative placing within the group, and, as such, the key factor is that each rater be consistent with his own grading, not that all graders be consistent with each other. It should also be noted that, since the responses were recorded, it was possible for the raters to listen as many times as required to each one in order to be sure of its relative merit. Each participant, therefore, received a score out of 30 for each of the three input languages. The rating was conducted by the researcher, another native English speaker with teaching experience and knowledge of Chinese, and in the cases of Chinese and Italian, a native speaker of that language. These two individuals had no previous experience of teaching or research.

Finally recordings were made of each participant reading the English text. Before reading the text aloud, they were permitted to study it for a period no longer than 2 min. The readings were then graded on a scale of 1–10 for English accent by the two native speakers of English referred to above. Since the rating was for accent only, pronunciation mistakes with unfamiliar words were ignored. It is worth noting that one of the English speakers is an Englishman with many years residence in Poland and the other a Scot with many years residence in China and Taiwan, and in this way a wider perspective on what constitutes a good English accent could be achieved.

6 Results

The full results from the survey are shown below in Table 1. The numbers represent the combined score out of 20 for the four statements in that category.

With so few participants, any correlations would not carry statistical significance but there does appear to be a positive link between anxiety and importance of appearance and perhaps a negative relationship between anxiety and interest in foreign cultures, both of which would fit with general expectations about human behaviour. There are clearly three possible candidates for the *Cecily Effect*: Nos. 2, 4 and 9 who all score well above the mean for importance of appearance.

No. 5, who had previously been identified as a possible Cecily scores a very low 8 for this scale which seems hardly creditable based on her actual appearance. Indeed, her survey answers are intriguing: 6 ones, 7 threes and 11 fives. She was clearly attracted to extremes and gave no moderate twos or fours, making her totals rather suspect.

Table 2 gives a breakdown of mean scores and standard deviations for each statement in the survey. As each statement was scored between 1 and 5, a mean

Table 1 Results of attitude survey

Participant No.	Imp. of sound	Imp. of appearance	Anxiety	Regard for Polish	Regard for English	Int. in foreign cultures
1	17	11	15	16	20	13
2	16	15	18	18	16	13
3	13	10	10	17	17	15
4	17	14	12	14	17	16
5	14	8	12	20	12	16
6	20	8	10	14	16	15
7	18	12	16	16	14	15
8	17	10	13	18	16	18
9	18	14	11	11	15	18
10	14	12	12	14	14	14
Mean	16.4	11.4	12.9	15.8	15.7	15.3
SD	2.17	2.46	2.64	2.62	2.16	1.77

Table 2 Survey results by statement

No.	Mean	SD	No.	Mean	SD	No.	Mean	SD
1	4.8	.42	9	3.9	1.40	17	4.9	.32
2	3.2	1.14	10	3.8	1.62	18	4.1	.88
3	2.5	1.08	11	2.3	1.57	19	3.5	.85
4	2.9	.74	12	3.1	1.20	20	4.1	.88
5	3.3	1.57	13	3.5	1.27	21	3.7	.82
6	2.5	.97	14	4.6	.52	22	3.9	.99
7	3.9	.74	15	3.0	1.15	23	4.6	.70
8	3.5	1.08	16	4.2	.79	24	3.8	1.03

score close to either of these numbers reflects near universal agreement or disagreement with the statement, rendering it of little use in distinguishing between participants. Similarly, the higher the standard deviation, the more variation there was in the answers, and, therefore, the better the ability of that statement to find differences between those taking the survey.

The responses to the listening samples are summarised in Table 3, where the scores are out of 20 for attractiveness of the language. It is also noted whether or not the participant correctly identified the input language.

The table makes it clear that the attractiveness of the languages was exactly as expected: Italian, then Greek and finally Chinese. The ability to recognise the languages was also as expected with 7 participants identifying Italian correctly, 3 identifying Chinese and only 1, Greek, which was chosen as a European language unlikely to be familiar to the participants.

The results from the analysis of the recordings of the participants are set out in Table 4. The mimicry scores for Italian and Chinese are those given by the native

Table 3 Attitudes to input languages

Participant No.	Italian	Identified?	Chinese	Identified?	Greek	Identified?
1	15	n	8	n	11	n
2	16	y	9	y	18	n
3	13	y	4	y	14	n
4	17	y	8	n	8	n
5	18	y	20	n	18	n
6	16	y	12	n	10	n
7	12	n	9	n	17	n
8	19	y	10	y	14	y
9	18	y	7	n	8	n
10	14	n	6	n	14	n
Mean	15.8		9.3		13.2	
SD	2.3		4.35		3.82	

Table 4 Mimicry and accent results

Participant No.	Italian mimicry	Chinese mimicry	Greek mimicry	Total mimicry	English accent
1	19	10	20.7	56.0	7.5
2	16	7	19.7	46.0	5.5
3	15	15	18.0	55.0	8.5
4	19	7	21.0	54.7	5.5
5	12	6	16.7	41.2	5
6	19	12	21.0	58.3	6.5
7	18	11	18.0	50.7	4
8	18	14	21.3	60.3	5.5
9	18	9	20.0	52.3	5
10	17	14	17.3	51.7	5.5
Mean	17.1	10.5	19.4	52.7	5.9
SD	2.23	3.24	1.72	5.6	1.31

speakers of those languages, while the score for Greek is an average of the marks of three raters, two native speakers of English, one of Chinese. These scores are out of a maximum of 30. Also included is an overall mimicry score which is the sum of the average of all the raters scores for each of the languages, and is, therefore, out of 90. The final column in the table shows the average English accent rating of the two English native speakers.

As can be seen, Chinese proved the most difficult language to mimic, with some participants scoring very low indeed, and also showed the greatest level of variation between participants. The Italian native judge was particularly ungenerous: the average score of non-native raters for Italian was 23.4, more than 6 points, or 20 % higher. This is one reason for using an average of all raters in the total mimicry

score: using only the native raters scores would have meant Italian mimicry constituted an unfairly small part of the overall score and, since the ratings are not widely spread, would have had almost no effect on the relative totals.

Full analysis of the results is provided below but it can be seen at first sight that the three participants scoring above 5.5 for accent are all above average mimics and the three scoring below 5.5 are all below average mimics, as rated by the mimicry total. The apparent anomaly of the highest scoring mimic being rated at only 5.5 for accent is also discussed below.

7 Discussion

The analysis of the results described above is divided into two parts: firstly there is a discussion of how the results support the hypotheses set out in Sect. 4 above, and, secondly, an assessment of how well the tools used performed in gathering those results. The hypotheses were:

(i) Feelings about how the nature and sound of a language affect the attractiveness of the speaker may affect performance in that language.
(ii) This effect will be manifested only in those with a strong feeling for the importance of their appearance.
(iii) Other attitudinal factors may interact with personality variables to affect both English accent and mimicry scores.

Since the group of participants is in the main too small to produce statistically significant correlations, the degree to which the results fit the hypotheses is determined by looking at individual cases. Hypothesis one suggests that there is a link between the attitude towards an input language and performance in that language. This may be investigated by looking at the relationship between regard for English and English accent, and the attitudes towards the input language and mimicry performance. For the former, the relationship was so apparent that it was actually possible to determine a significant correlation: Regard for English shows a correlation with English accent at $r = .69$ ($p = .03$), however, it is difficult to say whether this is evidence that strong positive feelings about a language lead to better accent or that better accent, and better performance all round, since the best pronouncers in this study were certainly also the strongest general language performers, lead to positive feelings. It would be quite natural for those who are good at English as a subject to have a high regard for English as a language.

The analysis of attitudes towards input languages does not reveal any obvious patterns. Chinese appears to be the best candidate to look at for variation since the scores for attractiveness ranged from 4 to 20 out of 20. However, the highest-scoring Chinese mimic (No. 3) actually gave the lowest score for attractiveness. The equal second best Chinese mimics (Nos. 8 and 10) gave scores of 6 and 10, while the participant who found Chinese most attractive (No. 5) recorded the lowest

Chinese mimicry score. Indeed, No. 5 gave very high scores for attractiveness across the three languages (18, 20, 18) but was the worst mimic in all three. It will be remembered, however, that No. 5 was identified above as having given extreme answers in the attitude survey and that trend continues here. This makes her an interesting case but means she is unlikely to fit any general patterns.

This lack of a relationship appears to provide evidence against the first hypothesis, but it must be viewed in the light of hypothesis (ii) which states that the effect will only exist in those with a high level of concern for their appearance.

The following three profiles are for the highest scorers on the interest in appearance scale: the potential Cecilys.

No. 2—average mimic for Italian and Greek, 2nd worst for Chinese.
Nos. 4 and 9—above average mimics in Italian and Greek, below average in Chinese.

Although all three rated Chinese at around the mean (9, 8, 7; Mean = 9.3) they seem to have been put off actually producing Chinese sounds. For all three, the order of mimicry performance followed the order of preference for attractiveness of the language, this despite the lack of correlation between attractiveness and performance for the population as a whole. The results, therefore, do fit the hypothesis that attractiveness of the language has an effect on performance, but only in those for whom appearance is of particular importance.

The third hypothesis stated that a number of other factors would influence scores for both mimicry and English accent. Again, looking at individual cases, there is good reason to believe that this hypothesis is also supported by the data. Profiles of three more participants suggest that anxiety can impact negatively on both scales:

No. 2—highest anxiety, below average accent, 2nd worst mimic.
No. 3—lowest anxiety, best accent, 4th best mimic but best at Chinese.
No. 6—low anxiety, low interest in appearance, 2nd best mimic, good accent.
No. 7—2nd highest anxiety, worst accent, poor mimic.

The performance of No. 3 is particularly interesting. She has clearly the best English accent but the lowest score for Importance of sound. She also gave low marks generally for attractiveness of the input language: a total of 31 points compared to a mean of 38.3. Her mimicry of Italian and Greek were below average and yet she performed exceptionally well with Chinese. These figures suggest a possible lack of enthusiasm for the experiment as a whole but perhaps greater engagement in the most difficult task. Certainly her lack of anxiety was reflected in her response to that task and her English reading.

The other factors assessed in the survey do not reveal any obvious patterns but there are interesting individual cases: No. 6, for instance, had a maximum score of 20 for Importance of sound, a good accent and was the second best mimic, however, others who gave high scores on the same scale (Nos. 7 and 9) had poor accents and were below average mimics. It is very possible that more combinations of factors such as the *Cecily Effect* are at work and that some individuals are greatly influenced by one factor, whether positively or negatively, while others are not.

It was noted at the end of Sect. 6 that there appeared to be some relationship between mimicry skill and English accent as predicted in the literature reviewed in Sect. 2. Participant No. 8, however, appeared to contradict this trend. A closer examination of her results reveals a likely reason for this. Firstly, she gave scores above the mean for every measurement in the attitude and attractiveness of input language survey, except for Interest in appearance. This suggests a high level of enthusiasm for the tasks and, possibly, a greater willingness to risk looking foolish during the mimicry exercises. Further proof of this is found in the detail of her mimicry scores: she was the only participant to attempt to repeat every phrase. Not only did this help her score directly since even a poor attempt was worth one point, it also suggests that she was trying harder than some of the others and rather enjoyed the whole process. It seems, then, that boldness may be a disturbing factor in the accent/mimicry relationship, and a scale to measure it might be included in a larger scale experiment.

One final comment on the results regards the identification of the input languages. Since almost everyone correctly recognised Italian, this variable has little impact. However, of the three who identified Chinese, one had the best mimicry score and another was equal 2nd, the third being No. 2, one of the Cecilys. Only one participant recognised Greek, No. 8 and she also had the highest score for Greek mimicry. Possible reasons for this are manifold and it may be simply coincidence but it is also possible that those with a 'better ear' are better able to both identify and mimic, or that the feeling of familiarity which comes from knowing what the language is makes the task easier. Participants, however, did not know that their identification was correct when they took the mimicry test, so this last explanation seems a little unlikely.

The final part of the analysis concerns reflections on the testing tools themselves, with a view to improvements to be made in a full-scale study. There are a number of ways to assess the value of the categories and individual questions in the survey. As with the results themselves, the small amount of data makes statistical calculation perilous but also means that much can be seen with the naked eye. One measurement of interest is whether the statement actually differentiates, this can be seen easily with just 10 participants but can also be measured by taking the standard deviation: a very low standard deviation (SD) shows that all answers are grouped around the mean and that the statement did not differentiate. Statements 1 and 17 had very low SDs, below .5, and received the same rating by practically every respondent. Statements 5, 10 and 11, however, had SDs of more than 1.5, showing that they prompted a variety of responses. Obviously, statements which do not differentiate between participants are of no use in making comparisons between them. The same methodology shows that while Anxiety scores were the most varied (SD 2.64) interest in other cultures had the least variety (SD 1.77) largely because of statement 17 'I like to travel to other countries' which, perhaps predictably, prompted universal agreement. This data illustrates which statements need to be altered or removed from the survey in future.

Analysis of internal reliability was also carried out, although again the small number of data meant that the figures obtained were heavily swayed by a few

Table 5 Cronbach's alpha for affective categories

Category	Imp. of sound	Imp. of appearance	Anxiety	Regard for Polish	Regard for English	Int. in foreign cultures
Cronbach's alpha	.13	.16	.29	.53	.53	−.47

individual cases. In order to test the reliability of each category, Cronbach's alpha was calculated, the results appear in Table 5.

The very low levels for this function are explained largely by the small number of data but they remain useful for the rating of the value of individual statements. When the figure is re-calculated with one statement removed from the reckoning the effect that statement has on the overall reliability rating becomes clear. In this way it can be seem that statements 1, 3, 4, 14, 17, 22 and 24 all reduce the internal reliability measure. It is important to remember, however, what internal reliability actually means here: that all the statements are measuring the same thing. The interest in foreign cultures variable is actually a hybrid of interest in travel and interest in languages, two things which do not seem to be strongly related. Responses to statement 3 may have been influenced by the affluence rather than tastes of the participants, and it can certainly be argued in hindsight that statements 3, 4, 14 and 22 all take a different perspective from the others in their group. Statements 1 and 17 were discussed above as being rather redundant. In order to bring all categories up to an acceptable level of at least .50 it is clear that some of these statements should be changed in further studies, and that a degree of re-categorisation may be necessary: the foreign cultures scale is certainly too general and the anxiety scale might also be divided to reflect anxiety for speaking and general language learning anxiety.

There are a number of comments to make about other aspects of the practical work. A native speaker grader of Greek would have improved consistency across the languages but otherwise the mimicry tests ran smoothly and encountered no problems. The assessment of attractiveness was problematic only as regards the statement 'this language sounds funny to me' which may have been misunderstood by one of the respondents, No. 6, who agreed strongly with all the positive statements as well as this one.

Two problems were apparent with the assessment of English accent. One was that a number of participants had trouble with the reading. This did not make it impossible to grade them but certainly affected their fluency and may have influenced their accent grade. The second was the unexpectedly low correlation between the two raters. A statistically insignificant correlation of just $r = .51$ ($p = .13$) reveals some surprisingly large differences of opinion and throws some doubt on the validity of the scores. In subsequent studies a repetition of this phenomenon would have to prompt the use of more markers and the possible elimination of one or more of them who strayed from the norm.

8 Conclusions

The pilot study was a success in a number of ways. Firstly, in relationships which were known beforehand, the tools produced the expected patterns, supported strongly by the individual case-studies: that anxiety correlates negatively with both language performance, in this case accent, and mimicry ability; and that accent correlates positively with mimicry skill. Had the tools failed to establish these relationships their overall validity would have been very doubtful.

On the three hypotheses outlined in Sect. 4, the study is encouraging. The three participants with the highest concern for their appearance did appear to be affected by their feelings towards the sound of the languages they were to mimic [hypothesis (i)] and the other participants did not [hypothesis (ii)]. The *Cecily Effect*, therefore, has been reproduced. Some evidence of the importance of sound and regard for English also affecting mimicry and accent scores [hypothesis (iii)] was also found. These results are certainly enough to make the conducting of a larger scale study worthwhile.

It is clear that that study will benefit from an expansion of the survey, with a scale for boldness being introduced, and the adjustment of some categories and statements in accordance with the statistical analysis presented in Sect. 7, and the employment of a more numerous set of participants.

Appendix 1: Statements Used in Survey

Importance of sound.
Accurate pronunciation of English is very important to me. (Statement No.) 1
Some languages sound nicer than others. 10
If someone has an unpleasant voice, I find it hard to concentrate on what he's saying. 20
I am sensitive to the rhythm of different languages. 21

Importance of appearance.
I spend a lot of money on clothes and cosmetics. 3
I don't like scruffy, untidy people. 18
I never leave the house without make-up. 11
I spend a lot of time each day on my appearance. 6

Language learning anxiety
I would rather say nothing than say something stupid. 2
I feel nervous when I'm not sure how to pronounce a word. 5
I care about how other people see me. 8
I am happy with the sound of my voice. 4 (negative score)

Regard for Polish
I think the Polish language is beautiful. 7
I am proud to be Polish. 16
I don't like to hear Polish mispronounced. 9
I feel better speaking Polish than other languages. 22

Interest in foreign cultures
I would like to travel in Asia. 12
I like to travel in other countries. 17
I am interested in all languages. 13
I would like to learn a non-European language. 24

Regard for English
I find the sound of English attractive. 14
Speaking English feels natural to me. 19
I like to hear myself speaking English. 15
I want to sound like a native when I speak English. 23

Appendix 2: Statements About Attractiveness of Input Languages

I would like to speak this language.
I find the sound of this language attractive.
I like the rhythm of this language.
This language sounds funny to me.

Appendix 3: Reading Text for Accent Assessment

It wasn't until Paul had pushed his way through the narrow swing door of the Rose and Crown Public House and past the two huddled Bangladeshi women sheltering in the doorway that the realization that he would have to walk home fell upon him. He tapped his pocket forlornly hoping for the jangle of his car keys, but knew well enough that he had left them upstairs in the hands of an overweight painter and decorator called Ron, with every penny he had possessed yesterday keeping them company. So, utterly broke and reduced to the role of pedestrian he strode out anything but confidently into the onrushing East-End morning with a journey of several miles through some of the less salubrious districts of London to his home before him. The rain was intermittent but fell in large soaking drops and had a particularly unpleasant dampening quality—none of the freshness of spring now,

and the cold was permanent and irritating, carrying no promise of snow but rather suggesting the atmosphere sure to prevail when he explained to his wife why he had come home on foot. (From Bad luck/good luck, by Martin Hinton).

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Foreign Language Self-assessment and Willingness to Communicate in and Outside the Classroom

Małgorzata Baran-Łucarz

Abstract The present paper concerns the problem of whether students' self-assessment of their foreign language (FL) proficiency level can be considered a predictor of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in and outside the FL classroom. Although some observations in this area have already been carried out, in most of them, learners' self-perceptions refer to communicative skills (self-perceived communication competence). This paper reports results of a mixed-method study in which self-assessment of the FL concerned typical aspects of proficiency, such as competence in grammar and pronunciation, accuracy in the use of grammar and pronunciation, range of vocabulary, followed by self-perception of integrative skills and fluency. The outcomes imply that self-assessment operationalized in this manner is significantly related to WTC in the FL classroom. However, when the naturalistic setting is concerned, statistically significant correlations were found only in the case of pronunciation and integrative skills self-assessment. The numerical outcomes are complemented with qualitative data, which provide a deeper insight into the nature of WTC in and outside the FL classroom.

Keywords FL self-assessment · WTC in the FL classroom · WTC outside the FL classroom · Mixed-method approach

1 Introduction

There is little doubt that communicative competence is the main aim of the majority of foreign/second language (FL/L2) learners. At the same time, it is stressed that learners must "talk in order to learn" (Skehan, 1989, p. 48) and that progress in language acquisition is hardly possible if students do not take an active part in speaking activities (e.g. Savignon, 2005; Swain, 1985). Consequently, one of the

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major concerns of each FL/L2 teacher should be to regularly involve all the students in communicative tasks. Taking into consideration the fact that it is communicative language teaching (CLT) that prevails in today's FL classrooms, featured by student-student interaction, (semi)authentic materials, focus on real-life and meaningful tasks, and tolerance towards mistakes that do not impede communication (e.g. Brown, 2001), we may expect learners to join in speaking activities eagerly. Still, it is evident that some students are reluctant to participate in oral communicative exercises. This implies that the readiness and decision to speak in a FL is a highly complex phenomenon.

The tendency to engage in communication, being given a free choice to do so, is referred to as Willingness to Communicate (WTC) (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). First observations on this construct in reference to mastering a language other than the mother tongue (L1) were carried out among students learning an L2 in a second language context (e.g. learning English in francophone parts of Canada). In this case, the learners are exposed to the target language (TL) outside school on a daily basis and frequently experience the actual need to use it. Additionally, they receive authentic immediate feedback on their ability to talk in the L2 and to understand other speakers using this language. A different group of students constitute FL learners, whose ranking of drives to master the target language (TL) is usually completely different than that of L2 learners. Usually they reveal instrumental motivation, i.e. they show concern about passing an exam, getting a promotion, a salary rise, or aim at approximating their ideal FL self, e.g. at becoming a part of the global community, in which everybody speaks at least one other language than L1 and whose members can easily communicate with each other. Unfortunately, although a classroom may be the only place where they can actually practise the FL, they might feel that getting involved in speaking may be too risky, since they have more to lose (their face) than gain (speaking proficiency). Indeed, as MacIntyre and Legatto (2011) claim, communicating in a TL that one does not have full control of might lead to losing one's face and destroying one's self-esteem.

It seems that the classroom setting in which formal learning takes place is governed by its own set of rules. Despite the tolerant approach to errors prevailing nowadays in FL classrooms and concern for good classroom dynamics, some students may still feel that the classroom is, first and foremost, a stage at which they are constantly evaluated by others. If a student considers his/her skills poor, particularly in comparison to these of other learners, he/she can be expected to be unwilling to perform in the classroom. Several studies have proven that perception of one's FL competence is a powerful predictor of WTC. Usually, however, it is specifically *Self-perceived Communication Competence* (*SPCC*)—an individual's self-perception of abilities to communicate in an L2—that represents the FL self-assessment variable (e.g. Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002). In this study an attempt is made to examine whether WTC of Polish adult students is determined by the perception of their FL proficiency level in various aspects, i.e. pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, interactive skills and fluency. Additionally, it is verified whether self-perception of the TL level in these language areas is related with equal strength to WTC inside and outside the FL classroom. The statistical analysis of

quantitative data is supplemented by qualitative observations, which shed light on the constructs of WTC in and outside the FL classroom and the role of self-assessment in WTC in formal and naturalistic settings.

2 L2 Willingness to Communicate

The construct of WTC, defined as "the intention to initiate communication, given the opportunity" (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001, p. 370), derives from studies on L1 communication, preceded by observations on related concepts, such as *unwillingness to communicate* (Burgoon, 1976), *predisposition toward verbal behavior* (Mortensen, Arntson, & Lustig, 1977), or *shyness* (McCroskey & Richmond, 1982). Having observed that the predisposition is relatively stable across various settings and interlocutors, it was initially considered a personality-based trait-like variable (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1982, 1991). However, further studies (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clément, 1999) allowed the verification of the nature of L1 WTC, as a construct embracing both trait- and state-like features. According to MacIntyre (1994), there are two most immediate antecedents of L1 WTC, i.e. communication apprehension and perceived communication competence. As McCroskey and Richmond (1991) explain, "since the choice of whether to communicate is a cognitive one, it is likely to be more influenced by one's perceptions of competence (of which one usually is aware) than one's actual competence (of which one may be totally unaware)" (p. 27).

Although the concept of WTC in a language other than L1 (L2 WTC) was inspired by research on L1 WTC, MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) strongly emphasize that L2 WTC is "not a simple manifestation of WTC in L1" in the L2/FL context. In fact, in some studies a negative correlation between WTC in L1 and WTC in L2 was found (e.g. Charos, 1994), which implies that communicating in a second/foreign language is a unique process and experience, governed by its own distinct principles. In 1998 MacInytre and associates define willingness to communicate in a second language as "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). Taking into consideration Gardner's socio-educational model (1985) and MacIntyre's (1994) path model, MacIntyre et al. (1998) forward a heuristic pyramid model of L2 WTC. According to this model, L2 WTC is a multi-layered construct, shaped by two major classes of variables, i.e. by situation-specific and more enduring factors which interrelate with each other. The immediate situational variables placed at the very top of the pyramid are the desire to speak to a specific interlocutor, the knowledge of the topic, and state communication self-competence. These, in turn, are shaped by motivational propensities, among others, L2 self-confidence, and by affective-cognitive variables, such as anxiety and communicative competence. At the very bottom of the model are personality and intergroup climate, which constitute "the basis or platform on which the rest of the influences operate; the foundation on which the pyramid is built" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 546).

Several studies have been carried out to examine the importance of learner variables in L2 WTC. The results have proven that motivation and attitudes (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2001), self-confidence (MacIntyre, 1994), personality (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996), international posture (Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004), age, and gender (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002) are crucial predictors of eagerness to communicate in an L2.

3 L2 WTC in Classroom Versus Real-Life Setting

L2 WTC can be observed mainly in two settings, i.e. in an educational context, where formal learning in classroom takes place, and in real-life outside the classroom. Taking into account the fact that L2 WTC is determined by several situational, motivational and affective-cognitive propensities, as forwarded in the model of MacIntyre et al. (1998), it can be presupposed that individuals' eagerness to talk in these two different settings varies considerably.

Dörnyei (2005) emphasizes that L2 WTC has both trait and state features. Based on a few studies (e.g. Cao & Philp, 2006; MacIntyre et al., 1999), Cao (2013) explains that "the trait-level WTC reflects an individual's general tendency for communication, whereas the state-level WTC determines whether initiation of communication occurs" (p. 12). She posits that in most classroom studies, it is the trait-like level of L2 WTC that has been observed, though recently, more and more researchers have concentrated on exploring the nature of L2 WTC at the state level, determined by several situational factors. Empirical data imply that L2 WTC in the FL classroom setting is dynamic and depends on such variables as level of acquaintance with the interlocutors, task type, topic of conversations, and group size (e.g. Cao & Philp, 2006). Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found out that WTC is influenced by the students' attitudes towards the task. It was observed that those who had a positive attitude towards particular speaking exercises talked in them more eagerly than their friends, whose attitude to the task was neutral or negative. Other studies (Weaver, 2005) proved the important role of planning before oral performance. On the other hand, some researchers stress that WTC in a FL classroom is influenced, first and foremost, by the learners' linguistic, cognitive, affective, and cultural readiness. As Peng (2006) suggests, reluctance to engage in speaking tasks may be caused by lack of or insufficient self-perceived readiness in any of these areas.

To tap into the nature of L2 WTC in the FL classroom, it seems that a synthetic approach must be applied (Peng, 2012), namely one that would explore individual trait-like variables of WTC (e.g. personality, motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, perceived self-competence) across various situational classroom contexts (depending on type of task, familiarity of interlocutors, grouping size, etc.). Finally, it may be hypothesized that irrespective of how many learners are involved in speaking, how well the learners know and like each other, what types of tasks are performed, and what the teacher's approach to errors is, for many students a FL classroom is always

perceived, though to a various extent, as a venue of mutual assessment. It is the attempt to avoid being evaluated by significant others, i.e. friends, students they have conflicts with or the teacher, that may make many students reluctant to speak and that encourages them to stay silent, if only this is possible.

When L2 WTC outside the classroom is concerned, to ensure a better understanding of its nature a similar synthetic approach should be applied. There is no doubt that the construct encompasses other situational variables than those typical of L2 WTC in the classroom. It is probable that learners reveal different levels of WTC when talking to native speakers of the TL than to other non-native speakers, representing an L1 different from that of their own. Their WTC may also vary depending on how many speakers are involved in the conversation, and on the formality level of the situation. However, what makes speaking outside of class peculiar and different from the classroom context, apart from the situational factors mentioned above, is the fact that conversations in real life usually have an authentic communicative and social purpose. Though an introverted individual may still find it difficult to join in a conversation, such a pragmatic push to speak can help many students forget about the fears connected with their imperfect language competence and skills, and result in WTC. Following the premise of Phillips (1968, p. 40), we may presuppose that the "projection of gains" from involving in conversations out-of-class "outweighs" the anticipated potential drawbacks from the attempts to speak (e.g. negative evaluation of others, ridiculing oneself). Consequently, WTC is expected to be higher in naturalistic than classroom contexts, and the relationship between the two variables less meaningful in the case of real-life settings.

4 Self-assessment and L2 WTC

As the heuristic model of L2 WTC displays, communicative competence is one of the cognitive propensities of the construct in question. According to MacIntyre et al. (1998), it refers to the "degree of one's L2 proficiency" or more specifically to "complexities of knowledge and skill required for communication" (p. 554), and embraces such competencies as linguistic competence, discourse competence, actional competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence. Nonetheless, it is not infrequent that learners, despite high communicative competence, are still unwilling to take part in oral communicative tasks (see e.g. MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 1998). This may be due to the social and individual propensities (intergroup climate, personality) or affective characteristics of the learner (e.g. anxiety, integrativeness). However, as MacIntyre et al. (1998) explain, referring back to McCroskey and Richmond (1991), the decision to initiate or join a conversation can be even more significantly determined by the speaker's FL self-perceptions, than his/her factual FL proficiency level. The phenomenon is clarified by McCroskey and Richmond (1991) in the following manner: "since the choice of whether to communicate is a cognitive one, it is likely to be more influenced by one's perceptions of competence (of which one usually is aware) than one's actual

competence (of which one may be totally unaware)" (p. 27). A support for this claim seems to be provided by Anyadubalu (2010), who clarifies that self-evaluation is the motor determining one's action, being either a facilitator or inhibitor of one's decisions. It is worth adding that low self-evaluation usually leads to anxiety (e.g. Baran-Łucarz, 2011), and that the two constructs are strongly interrelated. In some models of anxiety (Baran-Łucarz, 2013, 2014; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), self-assessment is treated as one of the subcomponents of the construct or a concept closely related to it.

Indeed, many studies reveal that self-perception of the learner's FL skills is a strong predictor of L2 WTC. A path analysis conducted by MacIntyre (1994) showed that the combination of self-perceived competence and communication apprehension (anxiety) constitute the most important antecedents of L2 WTC, which has been further supported by several researchers (e.g. Clement, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Mystkowska-Wietelak & Pawlak, 2014; Yashima, 2002). Yashima et al. (2004) explain, "If a student has low L2 Communication Apprehension and high (self) Perceived Communicative Competence in the L2, the person is considered to have high L2 communication confidence," (cf. Fushino, 2010, p. 705) which in turn can be expected to lead to higher levels of WTC.

It is important to mention that the self-assessment in reference to L2 WTC has been usually operationalized and observed as the so called *self-perceived communicative competence* (SPCC), referring to "self-perception of adequate ability to pass along or give information; the ability to make known by talking or writing" (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988, p. 109). The instrument used to measure perceived competence is frequently the one (or a battery based on the one) designed by MacIntyre and Charos (1996), in which the respondents are asked to reflect and decide on how competent they believe they are in using a FL/L2 to speak in 12 situations that vary depending on the level of acquaintance with the interlocutor(s) and type of speaking task (e.g. Hashimoto, 2002; Mystkowska-Wietelak & Pawlak, 2014).

In this study self-assessment is treated differently. It refers to perceptions students have about their fluency, interactive skills, competence and actual abilities to use correctly the TL grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. It is assumed that Polish students draw too much attention to aspects of accuracy and that they fear being evaluated by others and teachers on the basis of these criteria.

Finally, it is worth referring to Lockley (2013, after Mercer, 2011) who draws attention to the fact that self-evaluation, which can be considered an umbrella term that self-assessment belongs to, is culturally-dependent. In his further explanation of the phenomenon, he refers to other researchers (Heine, Lehman, Markus, & Kitayama, 1999), who explain that self-evaluation includes "self-criticism, self-discipline, effort, perseverance, the importance of others, shame and apologies, balance and emotional restraint" (p. 769), which are deeply rooted in and shaped by the culture we are brought up in.

5 The Study

5.1 Research Questions

At the end of the year 2013 a study was launched to examine whether willingness to communicate in a foreign language in and outside the classroom setting is determined by how students perceive the level of their particular FL aspects/skills, which, as I believe, constitute components of communicative abilities, such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and interactive skills. More specifically, the following research questions have been posed:

1. Are students more willing to communicate in or outside the FL classroom?
2. What is the relationship between WTC in the FL classroom and WTC outside the FL classroom? Can the two be considered separate constructs?
3. Is the level of students' WTC in the FL classroom and/or outside the FL classroom related to their FL self-assessment?
4. Is the relationship between students' self-perception of FL aspects/skills and WTC more meaningful in classroom or real-life context?

5.2 Participants

The research involved five groups of first-year students[1] (N = 70) of Wrocław University, Poland, majoring in English. The mean age of the subjects was 23, with the youngest students being 19 and the oldest 34. Among them there were 18 males and 52 females. 31 learners enrolled in two groups attended day studies (Gr 1), representing a proficiency level of C1 (according to the Common European Framework of Reference). The remaining subjects (n = 39) were extramural students (Gr 2), whose level was usually lower than that of day students, i.e. B2. Throughout the whole year, the students attended, among many others, 'conversation classes' during which they were provided with many opportunities to communicate with their classmates in various tasks and grouping arrangements.

Most of the learners (89 %) were highly motivated to approximate the pronunciation of native speakers of English, be it Received Pronunciation (90 %) or General American (10 %). 4 % of the participants wanted to reach a high level of pronunciation accuracy, though not necessarily native-like, while 6 % declared their goal to be communicative English. Although many of the students (60 %) had an opportunity to visit one of the English-speaking countries, these were usually only short one- or two-week stays. Additionally, one of the extramural students had spent most of her life in South Africa and was bilingual. Thus, although she participated in the study as her friends did, her results were not taken into

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

consideration in the analysis of data. Despite the fact that participation in the study was not obligatory, none of the students present during the data gathering lessons objected to taking part in it.

5.3 Instruments

The data necessary to answer the research questions were gathered with the use of three pen-and-pencil batteries designed by the author of this paper, i.e. a measure of FL self-assessment, a tool diagnosing the level of WTC in the FL classroom, and a battery of WTC outside the FL classroom. All of them were written in the learners' mother tongue to reduce the risk of the items being misunderstood by the respondents. Before the final versions of the instruments were ready, the tests were filled out by 26 first-year MA students of the same department, who were asked to provide feedback, sharing openly their doubts and ideas on particular items of the measures. As a result of the pilot study, a few statements were paraphrased, some eliminated, and the order of many was changed.

5.3.1 The FL Self-assessment Measure

The FL Self-assessment Measure (FLSAM) had the form of a 12-item questionnaire, based on a 7-point Likert scale. The participants were asked to evaluate the level of particular skills of their English by writing a digit from 7 to 1 next to each statement, where 7 stood for 'very high' and 1—'very low'. Additionally, the respondents could write '0' when they did not know how to assess some aspects of their English; however, they were asked to use this answer sparingly, only when they really could not make a decision about their level of particular skills.

The battery consisted of items addressing the following FL aspects/skills:

1. Pronunciation (4 items):
   - vowels
   - consonants
   - prosody (word stress, sentence rhythm, intonation)
   - word pronunciation
2. Grammar (4 items):
   - knowledge of easier and more difficult structures (2 items)
   - accuracy in production of easier and more difficult structures (2 items)
3. Vocabulary (2 items)
4. Fluency (1 item)
5. Interaction skills (1 item)

As presented above, the participants evaluated their pronunciation of various aspects, i.e. segments, suprasegmentals, and pronunciation at word level, estimated on the basis of a few examples (*determine, foreign, Edinburgh, draught, infamous*). While some of the words were more advanced, others belonged to vocabulary items frequently mispronounced by Poles (Sobkowiak, 1996). In the case of grammar, the students assessed their level of knowledge of simple and more complex grammatical structures, and how correctly they believed they could use them in speech. The items enquiring about vocabulary asked about the respondents' repertoire of active words at intermediate and upper-intermediate level. Finally, there was 1 item addressing the self-perceived level of fluency in speech, followed by a statement on interactive abilities. To eliminate the risk of the statement being misunderstood by the respondents, a brief explanation of what interactive skills are was provided in brackets, i.e. '*the ability to initiate and keep up a conversation*'.

5.3.2 The Measure of WTC in the FL Classroom

Despite the fact that a well-validated scale diagnosing the level of WTC in a FL classroom context was published by MacIntyre et al. (2001), for the purpose of this study a different tool to measure this construct was applied. There are two main reasons why such a decision was made. First of all, the battery written by MacIntyre and associates treats students' willingness to communicate in a broad sense, referring in it not only to speaking skills, but also to writing, reading and listening. In the case of this study, whose main aim was to determine the importance of learners' self-evaluation in relation to readiness/eagerness to speak in the TL, the author considered including other skills in the scale irrelevant. Secondly, although most of the items of the standardized battery proposed by MacIntyre et al. (2001) address WTC in the FL classroom, there are a few statements that seem to refer to real-life situations. Since one of the objectives of this research was to compare the importance of FL self-assessment in the case of WTC in the classroom and in real-life situations, a need to clearly differentiate between these two settings emerged, which required applying two separate instruments to diagnose WTC in the FL classroom and WTC outside the FL classroom.

The Measure of WTC in the FL Classroom (MWTC-FLC) had the form of a 12-item self-report questionnaire based on a 6-point Likert scale. The respondents specified the extent to which they were eager/willing to take part in various speaking tasks performed during a FL language course, by choosing a digit from 1 to 6, where 1 stood for '*very reluctant*', while 6 for '*very willing*'. Thus, the higher the participants scored, the more willing to communicate they were perceived to be.

The instrument suggested by the author of this paper was inspired by a scale proposed by McCroskey (1992). Despite the fact that the original instrument was designed to observe WTC in typical L1 speaking contexts and situations, it was a good basis for working on the form of the MWTC-FLC. One of the ideas borrowed from McCroskey was that of considering two criteria when designing the items of the questionnaire, i.e. (1) the degree of acquaintance with the interlocutor and

(2) number of interlocutors/listeners involved in the speaking task/type of activity. Thus, when the first category is concerned, 4 items addressed speaking tasks performed with unknown students, 4 with acquaintances, and 4 with friends. To avoid the danger of not understanding the difference between a friend and acquaintance, an explanation of how the two differ was provided both in the instructions of the test and orally. When it comes to the second category, items referring to oral communicative tasks performed in 4 various grouping sizes and arrangements were formulated, which by nature are linked to particular types of speaking activity. More specifically, the items addressed the following typical classroom speaking tasks, such as: delivering a prepared presentation to large groups (20 people), discussions/debates with approximately 10 people, explaining the rules of one's favourite game to 5 speakers, and a conversation (convincing the interlocutor) in a dyad. All of these group sizes/types of tasks appeared 3 times in the battery, each time in reference to (an) interlocutor(s) known and liked to a various extent. Here are a few examples of items of the MWTC-FLC translated into English:

- Taking part in a discussion with approximately 10 friends.
- Explaining the rules of my favourite game to approximately 5 student acquaintances.
- Convincing one student I have never met before to purchase a particular item.
- Presenting a prepared talk to approximately 20 student acquaintances.

The battery applied for the first time in an earlier study (Baran-Łucarz, 2014) revealed an acceptable internal reliability level (Cronbach alpha = .91) and high 2.5-week test-retest reliability (.89).

5.3.3 The Measure of WTC Outside the FL Classroom

The tool designed to diagnose WTC outside the FL classroom (MWTC-OFLC) consisted of 12 items addressing real-life situations in which FL learners could get involved in conversations in English. Taking into consideration the fact that WTC refers to the readiness to communicate when one is a free to do so (MacIntyre et al., 1998; McCroskey & Baer, 1985), the items in the questionnaire did not refer to a FL setting, in which one is usually forced to speak in the target language so as to function in the FL country. Instead, the battery entailed 12 statements referring to potential situations in the respondents' home country, with opportunities to initiate or join in a conversation in the TL. It is important to add that this time the items referring to particular communicative situations had two versions—one involved speaking to English native speakers, and the other involved conversations with other non-native speakers of English. Additionally, the statements were repeated in reference to a different number of people involved in the conversations. Here are a few examples of statements that the respondents were asked to agree or disagree with to a various extent on a 6-point Likert scale, where 6 meant '*strongly agree*' and 1—'*strongly disagree*'.

- I would be willing/eager to make a free tour of my city with a few (3–5) native speakers of English.
- If I was introduced to a non-native speaker of English, I would be glad to have the opportunity to talk to him/her.
- When having a conversation with a native speaker of English, I would most probably be looking for an opportunity to finish it as quickly as possible.

The instrument used earlier with a group of 152 students showed a satisfactory level of internal consistency (.88) and test-retest reliability (.85).

5.4 Procedure

All the tests were printed on one piece of paper to eliminate the risk of some of its parts getting lost or being unsigned by the participants. The subjects could remain anonymous. However, to be able to collect qualitative information from chosen subjects and to make it possible to carry out further observations later on during the students' education at the Department of English Studies, they were asked to sign the tests either with their nickname or date of birth.

The questionnaires were distributed by the phonetics teacher (the author of this paper) during one of the classes of phonetics. The learners were informed about the data being needed for scientific purposes and assured about the answers provided by them being confidential. The questionnaires were filled out in silence, with each student focusing on his/her own copy. The students could take as much time as they needed. Usually, they completed the questionnaires in approximately 20 min.

Finally, after having compiled the collected data and computed the final scores achieved by individuals on both tests, an attempt was made to encourage those participants who achieved the lowest scores on the measures of L2 WTC in and outside the FL classroom to answer two open questions concerning their FL WTL. This was done by informing students during one of the phonetics classes about an email that was going to be sent to their group email addresses, asking them to provide anonymous answers to two questions, if their nicknames appeared on the list. While the questions were written in the students' mother tongue, the answers could be provided by the students either in L1 or English.

5.5 Study Findings

5.5.1 Presentation and Discussion of Quantitative Data

The collection of data was followed by their quantitative analysis. First, descriptive statistics for the outcomes on the three measures, i.e. FLSAM, MWTC-FLC and MWTC-OFLC, were calculated. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics achieved for results on FLSAM.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for results of the FL self-assessment measure

		Mean	Median	Low–high	SD
Pron. (max = 28)	Total	19.61	19.5	10–23	3.29
	Gr 1	20.70	20.0	16–27	2.69
	Gr 2	18.80	19.5	10–28	3.49
Gram. (max = 28)	Total	20.53	21.0	8–21	3.80
	Gr 1	22.17	22.0	14–28	2.90
	Gr 2	19.36	20.0	8–21	3.90
Voc. (max = 14)	Total	9.58	9.0	5–14	1.72
	Gr 1	9.93	10.0	7–13	1.14
	Gr 2	9.34	9.0	5–12	1.88
Fluency (max = 7)	Total	4.87	5.0	2–7	.93
	Gr 1	4.93	5.0	7–14	.70
	Gr 2	4.83	5.0	2–6	1.07
Int. skills (max = 7)	Total	4.64	5.0	1–7	1.29
	Gr 1	4.69	5.0	1–7	1.41
	Gr 2	4.62	5.0	1–7	1.30

Total—all the participants (n = 70); Gr 1—day students (n = 31); Gr 2—extramural students (n = 39)

The mean, median and standard deviations achieved for each of the components of the test for all the participants and for each of the groups (Gr 1 and Gr 2) imply that the scores were normally distributed. The analysis of descriptive statistics was complemented with the application of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, whose results confirmed the earlier observations.

The mean scores achieved for each FL aspect reveal that, from the perspective of the students, there still is a lot of space for improvement when their level of proficiency is concerned. It is clearly visible that in the case of each FL aspect/skill, the self-perceptions of the day students are somewhat higher than these of evening students, which corresponds with the actual difference in proficiency level between the two groups. What is also evident is the lower level of homogeneity in the extramural group, which again supports earlier observations. Indeed, in the extramural group some students represented an evidently higher or lower level of FL proficiency than the others.

Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics calculated for the outcomes on the measures of L2 WTC in and outside the FL classroom.

As in the case of outcomes on the FL Self-Assessment Measure, the normal distribution assumption was not violated, which the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests proved. Interestingly, although the subjects were majors in English, they did not score high on either of the batteries, which shows that in many cases they are generally not very willing to talk. Moreover, as presupposed, scoring higher in the WTC-OFLC, the participants revealed more eagerness to speak outside the FL classroom than in formal classroom context. The pattern is repeated in both groups

Table 2 Descriptive statistics for results of the MWTC-FLC (measure of WTC in the FL classroom) and MWTC-OFLC (measure of WTC outside the FL classroom)

		Mean	Median	Low–high	SD
WTC-FLC (max = 84)	Total	44.97	45.0	15–71	10.52
	Gr 1	45.41	44.0	23–62	9.77
	Gr 2	44.65	45.0	15–71	11.13
WTC-OFLC (max = 84)	Total	50.16	50.0	19–72	10.70
	Gr 1	49.72	49.0	30–72	8.31
	Gr 2	50.46	50.0	19–72	12.20

Total—all the participants (n = 70); Gr 1—day students (n = 31); Gr 2—extramural students (n = 39)

(Gr 1 and Gr 2), with the difference between the setting of WTC being more evident in the case of the lower proficiency level students.

Finally, after verifying the remaining assumptions underlying Pearson correlation (the scales assumption, independence assumption and linearity assumption), the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between the scores on the Self-Assessment Measure and on the scales of WTC in and outside the FL classroom were computed. Table 3 presents results of these calculations.

Table 3 Matrix of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between WTC-FLC (WTC in the FL classroom), WTC-OFLC (WTC outside the FL classroom), and self-assessment of various FL aspects/skills

		WTC-FLC	WTC-OFLC
Pronunciation	Total	.39**	.32**
	Gr 1	.07	−.09
	Gr 2	.59***	.49**
	Total	.22*	.16
Grammar	Gr 1	.24	.02
	Gr 2	.30*	.07
	Total	.48***	.14
Vocabulary	Gr 1	.32*	.03
	Gr 2	.55***	.19
	Total	.50***	.12
Fluency	Gr 1	.42**	.01
	Gr 2	.53***	.16
	Total	.64***	.44***
Int. skills	Gr 1	.67***	.30*
	Gr 2	.63***	.50**

Levels of significance for one-tailed tests: df Total = 68; df Gr 1 = 29; df Gr 2 = 37; *$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .0005$

Most striking is the number of statistically significant correlation coefficients in the case of WTC in the FL classroom. It appears that self-assessment of the FL aspects measured by the FLSAM is more likely to affect WTC in the FL classroom context than in the natural setting. The strongest relationship was found in the case of integrative skills, which can be linked with the general tendency to be eager to talk and to personality. The integrative skills were one of the two aspects that correlated with WTC also outside the classroom, which implies that not only actual trait-like variables are powerful predictors of WTC, but also self-perceptions about these more enduring learner characteristics. When the classroom setting is concerned, significant moderate to strong relationships appeared between WTC and self-evaluation of pronunciation, fluency and vocabulary. The self-assessment of grammar proved to be evidently less important for L2 WTC, though the correlation coefficients are still statistically significant.

Another tendency can be easily traced when interpreting the data provided in Table 3, i.e. the relationships between L2 WTC and FL self-assessment are the strongest in the lower proficiency group. In other words, the results suggest that students' self-assessment of FL skills more commonly predicts the level of WTC at lower than higher proficiency levels.

It is interesting that beside the integrative skills, the only aspect of accuracy whose self-assessment correlated significantly with L2 WTC outside the FL classroom was pronunciation. This might imply that English majors are particularly sensitive to and concerned about this aspect of their FL proficiency, more than about grammar or vocabulary. It is possible that they believe other non-native speakers and native speakers of English expect them to speak with very good native-like pronunciation, which can be referred to as their ought-to-selves (Dörnyei, 2005) or that this is what they demand from themselves (ideal-self) (Dörnyei, 2005). It must be, however, stressed that the participants of this research are not average FL learners, but English majors, who intend to become translators, interpreters, or FL teachers. If the same results were achieved with non-English majors, it would be advisable not only to raise students' pronunciation level, but also make them aware that L1 accent and pronunciation mistakes do not determine one's communicate level significantly (e.g. Munro & Derwing, 1995).

What requires further explanation is the approach to analyzing the '*I don't know*' answers, which the subjects could choose in the FLSAM, writing in '0 points' next to chosen statements. Since not being able to assess one's ability is not equal to believing in it being at an unacceptable level, before computing the correlation coefficients all the 0 points were changed into a digit that was chosen most frequently by particular students, so that it did not affect the mean scores of the students. After the Pearson correlation had been computed, a more careful analysis of these answers was carried out. The number of times each student provided the '*I don't know*' answer was summed up. It turned out that 62 % of the respondents who on the MWTC-FLC scored 1 SD below the mean and less, and 58 % of those who scored 1 SD below the mean of less on the MWT-OFL chose the '*I don't know*' response at least three times. This outcome may imply that uncertainty about one's ability is also an important inhibitor of L2 WTC.

The further step in the quantitative analysis was examining the strength of relationship between L2 WTC in the FL classroom and outside FL classroom. A correlation of moderate strength was found (r = .48 at $p < .005$; df = 68), which implies that, although the constructs of WTC in the FL and outside the FL classroom are related to each other, they are relatively independent, operationalizing different phenomena.

Finally, let us have a look at whether WTC in the FL classroom varies considerably depending on the type of task/number of speakers, level of acquaintance with the interlocutors, and how WTC in these particular situations is related to students' self-assessment of FL proficiency.

As Table 4 reveals, the speaking exercise in which students are most willing to communicate are conversations carried out in dyads (mean = 12.8). The task, in which learners are the least willing to take part in are presentations given to large groups of students. However, the outcomes of correlation analysis, computed after verifying all the assumptions underlying the Pearson correlation, show that self-assessment of FL proficiency affects WTC more strongly when working in smaller groups of approximately 5 people than in dyads. The task in which self-assessment seems to matter the least is the presentation, which might be caused by the students having been given time to prepare the task in advance.

When the level of familiarity with the interlocutors is concerned, it may be concluded that students speak more eagerly with people they know and like. However, self-perceived FL proficiency level mattered the least in tasks performed with students that are neither friends nor acquaintances. Indeed, it goes without saying that fear of making mistakes and being negatively evaluated is lower when talking to people we do not know, whom we have no relationship with, and who are indifferent to us.

The bottom part of Table 4 presents analogous data computed for the results obtained on the Measure of WTC outside the classroom. This time the differences between WTC with native speakers and non-native speakers are not meaningful. The same can be said in reference to the relationship between self-assessment of the perceived level and WTC with native and non-native speakers. In both cases the

Table 4 Descriptive statistics and results of Pearson correlation between subcomponents of WTC-FLC (WTC in the FL classroom) and of WTC-OFL (WTC outside the FL classroom)

		Mean	SD	r/FLSA
WTC-FLC	20/Pres.	9.00	3.90	.32**
	10/Disc.	11.00	3.40	.46***
	5/Explan.	12.20	2.60	.54***
	2/convers.	12.80	2.70	.42***
	Friends	16.45	3.40	.50***
	Acquaint.	15.60	3.60	.50***
	Unkn. sts.	12.80	3.90	.44***
WTC-OFLC	NSs	26.00	5.60	.30**
	NNSs	24.00	6.00	.36***

df = 68; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .0005$

relationships were found to be only of low/moderate strength, which lends support to the fact that self-assessment made by learners matters more in classroom setting.

5.5.2 Presentation and Discussion of Qualitative Data

From among 12 participants who scored below 1.5 SD from the mean either on the measure of L2 WTC in the FL classroom or on the battery diagnosing the level of L2 WTC outside the classroom, 8 students provided anonymous answers to the following two questions:

Q1: *What might be the reasons for your reluctance to speak in the FL classroom/ in real life with native or non-native speakers?*
Q2: *What could make you more willing to communicate in this setting?*

When the answers were too general or ambiguous, the respondents were sent another email asking for further explanations. All subjects wrote back, providing more specific clarifications. Here are a few examples of responses (or their translations) sent by the subjects:

Student A
Q1: 'Everybody wants to be perceived by others as a successful speaker. Nobody likes experiencing problems with understanding the interlocutor or being unable to express oneself, because of lacking some key words.'
Q2: 'Gaining more confidence. Breaking the ice between the interlocutor, getting to know him/her better.'

Student B
Q1: 'I don't like speaking in class 'cause I am afraid of making mistakes. I do not consider a FL lesson to be an opportunity to develop my English. The classroom is rather a place where all my mistakes are visible. I know I make mistakes because of stupidity [???]' 'I think I am most inhibited by my pronunciation mistakes. Grammar can be simplified, besides I know it quite well 'cause we had a lot of it at school…Besides, mistakes made in grammar or vocabulary can be easily corrected, while mispronunciations not really.'
Q2: 'The approach is entirely my fault. Maybe if the teacher kept reminding us that mistakes are natural and there's nothing wrong in making them and that that's the only way to learn and get rid of them, my attitude would change.'

Student C
Q1: 'I've always been very shy and even initiating a conversation in L1 is difficult for me, not to mention talking in a FL. I am afraid I could be laughed at or not understood. The mistakes that inhibit me most are in grammar and pronunciation.'
Q2: 'I would have to know English very well.'

Student D
Q1: 'Talking in front of a group is always stressful, irrespective of the language used. But when talking in L2, the stress is even higher because I fear making mistakes. It's less stressing to talk in pairs but even then, instead of focusing on trying to pass across some information, I keep thinking about all the potential mistakes I might be committing, and that surely somebody is assessing me while I am speaking.'

Q2: 'The classes should be more interesting and relaxing, so that I could stop thinking and worrying about being listened to and assessed by others.'

The examples of students' responses show some common features. What can be easily identified as the source of the learners' reluctance to speak during a FL lesson is them treating the FL class as a place where they are constantly assessed by others. Their fear of being negatively evaluated seems to be connected with their low L2 self-confidence, deriving from considering their language skills, i.e. pronunciation, vocabulary or grammar, poor (e.g. '*I would have to know English very well*' *or* '*Gaining more confidence*'). The aspect that is frequently mentioned as the cause of inhibition and anxiety is pronunciation, with which the students believe they have many difficulties. A particularly interesting response is provided by Student B, who perceives his/her pronunciation level as low and is concerned about the mistakes he/she makes in this area. It is further clarified that the inhibition caused by poor pronunciation results from him/her knowing no strategies to control this aspect in speech, compensate for limitations and correct one's mistakes made in this area. Finally, it is worth drawing attention to the fact that the student is not only aware of his/her poor pronunciation, of lacking competence in phonology and pronunciation strategies, but also of the fact that making mistakes is an inevitable part of learning. According to the learner, one of the roles of the teacher is to help students accept this truth.

In other explanations of potential sources of reluctance to join in speaking activities in the classroom respondents blame their personality, lack of inborn outgoingness, and the general tendency to feel uneasy when performing in front of others for their unwillingness to speak in the FL classroom. Finally, the respondents reveal that they would be more eager to speak if the students in the class knew each other better (Student A) and if the class was '*more interesting and relaxing*' (Student D).

Unfortunately, only two participants from among the group of students representing low WTC outside the classroom provided answers to open questions. Their responses were as follows:

Student E

Q1: 'Probably I am reluctant to talk because I am stressed that the native speaker will hear all my mistakes in pronunciation, grammar, word stress, etc., just as Poles easily hear mistakes of non-native speakers of Polish.'

Q2: 'Maybe after a few semesters of studying English and using it frequently, the anxiety would drop and I could be more confident of myself as a FL speaker.'

Student F

Q1: 'It is very challenging to talk to native speakers, definitely more than to non-native speakers. Actually, I should use the term "more terrifying!". Why? Because native speakers listen differently than non-native speakers, paying special attention to the choice of vocabulary. I guess this fact is motivating, but on the other hand, also more frightening. I am generally talkative and outgoing, but when I have to talk to native speakers, I always feel stressed 'cause I want to be 100 % correct. Then usually I "get blocked" and feel uncomfortable, which results in my having more language problems than usual and in simplifying my language.'

Both of the subjects explained that in naturalistic context talking to native speakers is more inhibiting than to non-native speakers. As in the case of the classroom setting, the main source of unwillingness to speak outside the classroom mentioned by these learners is concern about being negatively perceived by the interlocutors. According to the respondents, negative evaluation is more likely to be made by native speakers, who naturally and automatically notice all the language mistakes of the non-native interlocutors. Student E is aware of her imperfections in pronunciation, word stress and grammar when talking in the TL, which makes him/her generally an unconfident L2 speaker. On the other hand, Student F considers him-/herself a rather confident FL user. However, as the learner explains, if the interlocutor is a native speaker, he/she loses confidence and becomes anxious, which 'blocks' his/her language potential, resulting in mistakes and in him/her using simplified language. Additionally, we may speculate that student F is a perfectionist, which supports the idea of personality being a crucial variable of WTC. Finally, it is worth adding that while student E revealed a low level of WTC both in the classroom and in natural setting, Student F was one of the very few subjects who had a higher level of WTC in the FL classroom than in real-life context.

6 Conclusions and Further Research Directions

The study described in this paper sheds more light on the constructs of L2 WTC in and outside the FL classroom, and on the role that students' self-assessment plays in reference to the eagerness to talk in a FL. The quantitative data gathered among Polish students majoring in English showed that self-assessment of grammar, vocabulary and fluency is systematically related to WTC only in classroom environment. The correlation between students' self-perceptions of these aspects and their WTC was insignificant in the case of the naturalistic setting. In other words, the data imply that Polish learners are particularly concerned about accuracy in their speech when they perform during lessons, which often significantly hinders their L2 WTC. Both the quantitative and qualitative data imply that the classroom is perceived by students of English as a scene at which they are constantly assessed rather than as a place in which TL development can take place. Although the qualitative data, by and large, lend support to the numerical outcomes, they also show that some people are particularly uncomfortable when talking to native speakers. This observation seems to stress the importance of self-assessment—although some learners may consider their FL skills to represent a high level, they may believe they are still far from a native speaker's, which makes them lose confidence and lower their willingness to speak to these particular interlocutors.

One of the aspects in the case where self-assessment proved to be significantly correlated with moderate strength with L2 WTC in both settings was pronunciation. This may be due to the fact that the participants had not been provided with sufficient practice in this area during their education, and, at the same time, that they

either consider native-like accent an important part of their ideal L2 selves or believe perfection in this aspect is necessary for students and graduates of philology (ought-to selves). The other aspect which was found to determine L2 WTC both in the classroom and natural environments were interactive skills, which seem to have most trait-like personality characteristics. Consequently, this finding seems to support the importance of enduring propensities of L2 WTC, as proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998) in their pyramid model of the construct.

The crucial role of pronunciation self-assessment observed in this study encourages a more thorough look at this FL aspect in relation to L2 WTC. The significance of pronunciation in connection to L2 WTC has already been proven e.g. in studies on pronunciation anxiety and L2 WTC (Baran-Łucarz, 2014). The paper describing this study explains that pronunciation constitutes a crucial element of FL self-image and is a very frequent cause of fear of negative evaluation and low L2 self-confidence, which lends support to the importance of pronunciation self-assessment for WTC.

Since the study presented in this paper involved a peculiar group of FL students, to verify the outcomes it is worth conducting an analogous observation among learners majoring in other fields than FLs. It is possible that with non-FL majors, self-assessment is less predictive of L2 WTC than in the case of FL majors. Furthermore, it would be interesting to replicate the research among FL students of other nationalities. Finally, the results would be more valuable when confronted with data on the subjects' motivation, i.e. their ideal- and ought-to-selves (Dörnyei, 2005).

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A Qualitative Study on Subjective Attitudes and Objective Achievement of Autotelic and Non-autotelic Students of English as a Foreign Language

Beata Telążka

Abstract Csikszentmihalyi (Flow. Harper and Row, New York, 1990), who introduced the concept of autotelic personality, claims that an autotelic individual is the one who performs certain actions for their own sake, rather than in order to achieve some external goals. Moreover, autotelic personalities have a greater ability "to initiate, sustain, and enjoy optimal experiences. The mark of the autotelic personality is the ability to manage a rewarding balance between the 'play' of challenge finding and the 'work' of skill building. Thus autotelic individuals should enjoy clear advantages in realizing the development of their talents to the fullest extent" (Csikszentmihalyi et al. in Talented teenagers: The roots of success and failure. Cambridge University Press, New York, p. 80, 1993). The present paper seeks to depict the qualitative research on the differences between autotelic and non-autotelic English philology students, namely their subjective attitudes and objective achievements in the process of learning English as a foreign language.

Keywords Flow · Autotelic personality · Optimal experience · Motivation

1 Introduction

Considering Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamura's (1989) findings, it appears that the autotelic students are those who can find and actively create optimal challenges by fully using their psychic energy, and who enjoy their activities in flow. Thus, the autotelic personality seems to be a construct which reflects individual differences in internal, attentional processes, such as intrinsic motivation, rather than differences in structural life circumstances that people consciously or unconsciously select or engage in their lives. Assuming that flow exists and that autotelic personalities have the tendency to position themselves in situations which enable more frequent

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experiences of flow states (Asakawa, 2004), it seems necessary to analyse possible differences between autotelic and non-autotelic students in their attitudes to the foreign language learning procedures. Therefore, the aim of the present paper is to present the results of a qualitative study on the differences between autotelic and non-autotelic students. Both the flow theory and further research on autotelic and non-autotelic students imply that the autotelics' perceptions of challenges and skills are more balanced (Asakawa, 2004). Therefore, it can be expected that autotelics recognise English tasks as more important for them than non-autotelics. Similarly, the autotelics should perceive the English tasks as more difficult and interesting than non-autotelics. From this perspective it is also important to investigate whether autotelics declare to be more successful in English than non-autotelics, and whether they would opt for English if they had a choice to select a field of studies. Moreover, it is essential to investigate the difference between autotelics and non-autotelics as far as their foreign language competence is concerned, that is, whether their subjective attitudes toward success in FLL processes matches with the objective achievements analysed on the basis of their final written and oral practical exam.

The purpose of the research is manifold. In this chapter the qualitative part on subjective attitudes and objective achievements of autotelics and non-autotelics in the process of learning English as a foreign language is going to be investigated. Essentially, the paper attempts to respond to the following research question:

RQ: *Do autotelic and non-autotelic students of English philology differ in their subjective attitudes and objective achievements in the process of learning English as a foreign language?*

2 Method

2.1 Participants

The data were collected at The Karkonosze State Professional School of Higher Education in Jelenia Góra. A total of 140 English Philology students (from year one to year three) volunteered to participate in the study and completed the questionnaire. The sample comprised of 46 males and 94 females with ages ranging from 19 to 24 years, the average age was 20.6.

2.2 Instruments

The present part of the study was conducted with the three major instruments for data collection, including: (a) the *Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI)* and the *Flow Scale questionnaire* (these scales were designed to assess autotelic and non-autotelic

students of EFL), (b) the *Experience Sampling Method (ESM)* devoted to the foreign language process, and (c) *school records* (practical English final exams).

2.2.1 Intrinsic Motivation Inventory and Flow Scale Questionnaire

IMI is a multidimensional measurement device intended to assess the participants' subjective experience related to the target activity in a laboratory experiment related to intrinsic motivation. The purpose of the IMI was to assess the participants' intrinsic motivation. The IMI scale, formulated by McAuley, Duncan, and Tammen (1987), consisted of 45 items; a 7-point Likert scale was used with the minimum number of 45 points, and maximum 315. The instrument assesses the participants' interest/enjoyment (e.g. *I enjoyed doing this activity very much*), perceived competence (e.g. *I think I am pretty good at this activity*), effort (e.g. *I put a lot of effort into this*, value/usefulness (e.g. *I believe this activity could be of some value to me* or some open questions e.g. *I think it is important to do, because it can* _____), felt pressure and tension (e.g. *I did not feel nervous at all while doing this*), perceived choice while performing a given activity (e.g. *I felt like it was not my choice to do this task*), and experience of relatedness (e.g. *I felt really distant to this person*). During the research the scale's reliability was assessed by the author of the study in terms of Cronbach's alpha and it was .71.

The next scale applied was the Flow Scale which was developed by Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde, and Whalen (1993). The Flow Scale was supposed to assess students' quality of experience as a function of perceived challenges and skills, and therefore, the optimal state of mind—flow. Thus, the aim of the scale was to identify autotelic and non-autotelic students. The Flow Scale consisted of 28 items. A 7-point Likert scale was used with the minimum numbers of 28 points, and maximum of 196. The sample items on the scale were as follows: *My mind isn't wandering*, *I am not thinking of something else*, *I am totally involved in what I am doing*, *My body feels good*, *I am so involved in what I am doing I don't see myself as separate from what I am doing*. Apart from that there were also open questions to which the participants were supposed to give brief responses and explain what activities can evoke or lead to the experiences as formulated in the questions, e.g.: *Do you ever do something where your concentration is so intense, your attention so undivided and wrapped up in what you are doing that you sometimes become unaware of things you normally notice* (*for instance, other people talking, loud noises, the passage of time, being hungry or tired, having an appointment, having some physical discomfort*)? The scale's reliability was estimated by means of Cronbach's alpha and it was .85.

On the basis of the Flow Scale, the results of the sample were divided into four quartiles. For the sake of the study only two extreme quartiles were taken into consideration. Therefore, the lower quartile (<=69) which comprised of 35 students. They formed the group of non-autotelics. The upper quartile (>=95) comprised of 37 students who formed the group of autotelics.

2.2.2 Experience Sampling Method Questionnaire

The ESM questionnaire was adapted from Moon (2003). Its aim was to examine the students' attitude to the EFL process.It included items like: *When you complete English tasks you treat them more like play, more like work, none of the above, both of the above*. Apart from that there were also questions concerning high challenge/high skills relationship, perceived success, perceived benefits and perceived choice. The perceived challenges (*Levels of challenges of the activity*) and perceived skills (*Level of your skills in the activity*) were used to determine the flow condition and the other experiential conditions of the flow theory—anxiety, relaxation and apathy. The sample questions were e.g. *My abilities in English in comparison to challenges are…* or *The challenges in comparison to my abilities in English are….* All the items were evaluated on a 9-point Likert scale, ranging from 1—*very low* to 9—*very high.* The questionnaire consisted of multiple choice and open-ended items, e.g. *What were the reasons that caused you to decide to study EFL*, or *What has determined your attitude towards EFL? Has anything happened, or have you done anything which could have affected how you feel about studying English?* For the sake of the present paper we discuss the qualitative part of the research only.

2.2.3 School Records

The school records comprised of the final practical English exam grades. They were placed on a Likert scale from 2 to 5, meaning: 2(F), 3(E), 3.5(D), 4(C), 4.5(B), 5(A).

As far as the qualitative part of the research is concerned, the participants were supposed to give their responses to the open questions. They were asked to explain briefly what activities can lead to experiencing the examined feelings.

2.3 Procedure

The data collection procedure took place in June 2006 (the collection of the final practical exam grades) and from December 2006 to January 2007. There were three questionnaires in Polish applied during the experiment. In December 2006 all the students (140) were given Questionnaire 1 which consisted of IMI and the Flow Scale. The procedure lasted approximately one hour and the respondents were in one room. The participants responded to the ESM questionnaire in December 2006. The procedure conducted in one room lasted approximately one hour.

3 Results and Discussion

As far as the first open question is concerned, namely: *Do you ever do something where your concentration is so intense, your attention so undivided and wrapped up in what you are doing that you sometimes become unaware of things you normally notice* (*for instance, other people talking, loud noises, the passage of time, being hungry or tired, having an appointment, having some physical discomfort*)?, the research results show that the autotelics enumerated writing, reading and communicating with native speakers as the activities that stimulate their concentration most. It is worth noting that the tasks which are authentic or interesting to the students make them more concentrated. Moreover, watching movies and listening to the music make their attention undivided. The responses of the non-autotelics seemed to be quite similar to those of the autotelics. An interesting issue is that literature, perceived as a very demanding subject which arouses high concentration and attention, was mentioned only by the non-autotelics.

In response to the next open question, *Do you ever do something where your skills have become so 'second nature' that sometimes everything seems to come to you 'naturally' or 'effortlessly', and where you feel confident that you will be ready to meet any new challenges?*, the autotelics could detect and enumerate the EFL activities more easily. But the non-autotelics' choices roughly coincide with those of the autotelics. The tasks mentioned by both the autotelics and non-autotelics are communicating with others, watching movies and British channels on TV, and reading authentic materials.

As far as the third open question is concerned, namely: *Do you ever do something where you feel that the activity is worth doing in itself? In other words, even if there were no other benefits associated with it* (*for instance, financial reward, improved skills, recognition from others, and so on*), *you would still do it*, the responses show that the activities that arouse the examined feeling for the autotelics are, generally speaking, inventive and creative, mainly the activities which the autotelics find important for their future goals. Apart from that, they also mentioned cooperation and team work, communicating with other people, native speakers as well, which they recognise as significant. Moreover, they felt so when reading, not only obligatory material, but also plays and poems as well. Furthermore, they mentioned writing essays, poems and e-mails, and watching TV or listening to the music. Some of them listed grammar tasks. The autotelics also noted that they feel that the activity is worth doing in itself when they feel competent and successful. Furthermore, they underlined the role of the EFL tasks which they find challenging but at the same time pleasant and satisfying. What is more, autotelics mentioned activities which can enlarge their EFL knowledge, which is browsing through dictionaries or learning new, very often very sophisticated and unique vocabulary, which is not part of their curriculum. They just do it for the pleasure of doing and for satisfaction. It directly corresponds to the premises of flow theory which postulates that autotelics find enjoyment in the activities irrespective of the external

benefits. Furthermore, when autotelics are interested in an activity and feel competent, they become also more satisfied and successful.

As far as the non-autotelics are concerned, we can speculate that their choices roughly correspond to those of the autotelics. They mentioned listening, and writing activities, such as letters and e-mails and translating texts into Polish; moreover, learning English vocabulary and pronunciation, reading English literature, comics, fairy tales, and idioms or authentic materials from newspapers, and also learning grammar. It is worth noting, however, that the non-autotelics underline that if they find the task interesting, they perceive the activity as worth doing, even if it is quite difficult.

Responding to the following question: *Do you ever do something that has provided some unique and very memorable moments—for which you feel extremely lucky and grateful—that has changed your perspectives on life* (*or yourself*) *in some way*?, the autotelics stressed, similarly to the previous items, the importance of communicating in English with people all around the world, also with native speakers; moreover, they mentioned reading literature and watching movies and TV programs. Some of them, quite surprisingly, valued the participation in the formal lectures, which can be interpreted as a compliment for the teacher. They enumerated methodology, psychology and teaching others as the activities that make them successful and satisfied. Some of them also stated that they find the opportunity to enlarge their knowledge valuable. Quite a few had doubts, but still they declared that the feelings examined are not unfamiliar to them. A number of the autotelics marked that they experienced the aforementioned feelings quite rarely.

Similarly to autotelics, the non-autotelics distinguished the opportunity to communicate with other people as the most significant factor when feeling fortunate, grateful and unique. Moreover, they mentioned reading books and magazines and getting to know British and American culture. What is more, they recognised the value of meeting interesting people all over the world, including native speakers, watching movies and other programs on British Channels, enlarging vocabulary and translating. Additionally, they reported to feel benefits and satisfaction when the task is completed successfully, which corresponds to their previous responses. Another interesting response is that they found the aforementioned feelings when teaching English, under one condition, however, that their students should be highly motivated. It can be assumed that they appreciate the fundamental role of motivation in learning. Some of the non-autotelics admitted that they had rarely or never experienced the examined feelings.

In the next step, the Experience Sampling Method was employed to collect the data for the next item which focused on the participants' choice as far as learning English was concerned. The informants were supposed to provide a response to the question: *Would you have learned English if you had had a choice?*

It is worth noting that 100 % of the autotelic participants unanimously admitted that they would have chosen studying English, whereas only 86 % of the non-autotelic students would have made a similar decision. Among the 14 % of the non-autotelics' responses opting for other subjects, the following reasons were given: "If I had a choice I would choose to learn Russian, which I like more. English,

however, guarantees a better job opportunity", as one of the participants frankly admitted, or another one, who would rather study photography than English, which he is a little bit bored with. Finally, one of the participants admitted that she had wanted to become a doctor of medicine, but she eventually decided to study English philology, since it seemed to be 'easier'. Another participant wrote that she wanted to be an actress but her parents discouraged her. Some students could not justify their opinions.

The Experience Sampling Method was also employed in order to define the attitude to learning English. Thus, it was worth shedding more light on particular responses of the autotelic and non-autotelic participants to the following question: *Has anything happened, or have you done anything which could have affected how you feel about learning English?*

Both autotelics and non-autotelics provided responses which could be gathered in several thematic issues, such as the informants' experience with visiting English speaking countries, meeting English culture and native speakers, finding English essential for future goals, English as a means of communication with people all around the world, listening to English music, watching movies and reading English stories, positive learning experiences with English from primary or secondary schools, English as the informants' favourite subject, or the subject they were particularly successful at, and the role of the English teachers who influenced the participants.

Some of the examples the non-autotelics provided sounded quite surprising and bizarre. One of the participants said that he would have chosen studying 'music' but he was afraid it was too difficult, or the one who openly admitted that his motivation to learn English declined, mostly because he would prefer studying something else. Another one frankly admitted that studying medicine had always been her dream, but she did not pass the entrance exam and she thought that English would also give her the possibility of having a prosperous career. And finally the one who liked English because it was the only subject he could 'show off' in at secondary school. Two of the interviewees could not decide, whereas three of them did not respond at all.

4 School Records Results

In the final step of analysing the autotelic and non-autotelic respondents the grades obtained in their practical English exam were taken into account. It was worth checking whether apart from the differences in autotelics' and non-autotelics' general opinions and attitudes towards learning English, the informants vary as far as their objective achievements in English are concerned. In order to do it, the grades of the final practical exam were compared and analysed. As far as the grades of the autotelics were concerned, the mean was 2.87 (SD = .23), while the non-autotelics' mean response was 2.75 (SD = .22). The *t*-test for independent samples did not reveal any significant differences between the groups ($t = 1.58$, $p = .12$). It means that both autotelics and non-autotelics did not differ significantly in their objective achievements in English.

5 Discussion and Conclusions

The aim of the present study was to assess the differences between autotelic and non-autotelic students of English philology, their subjective attitudes and objective achievements in English as a foreign language learning process. In response to the data collected (see Appendix) several remarks can be formulated.

First of all, it can be inferred that both autotelics and non-autotelics designated the following English activities when their concentration, interest and attention were the highest: communicating in English, also with native speakers, watching English films and programmes, reading authentic materials, sight-seeing, listening to music and translating lyrics. Therefore, it seems that these tasks can induce focused concentration and undivided attention in the foreign language classroom context. It can be speculated that interest is more important for autotelics who concentrate more on subjects which they find more interesting, whereas non-autotelics concentrate more if the tasks demand high attentiveness and involvement, and because they are difficult and also because they seem to be necessary to be completed. Another interesting issue is that only for some non-autotelics there are no EFL tasks that make their concentration intensive and their attention undivided. It accords with the hypothesis of flow theory which assumes that autotelics experience a higher level of intrinsic motivation, whereas non-autotelics are more prone to external awards. Non-autotelics' intrinsic motivation tends to increase if they devote time and give concentration, attention and energy to EFL tasks; some non-autotelic students become more autotelic if they perceive the activities interesting and important for their future goals; if some of the non-autotelics devote some time and focus their attention on an activity, the activity becomes more autotelic. Only some non-autotelics have rarely or never experienced high concentration, focused attention and interest. It directly corresponds to the premises of flow theory which postulates that autotelics find enjoyment in the activities irrespective of the external benefits. Furthermore, when autotelics are interested in an activity and feel competent, they become also more satisfied and successful. The non-autotelics underline that if they find the task interesting, they perceive the activity as worth doing, even if it is quite difficult. It can be speculated that the more interesting the activity appears to be to the students, the more autotelic it becomes. It accords with the assumption of flow theory which stresses that both focused attention and enough time devoted to the activity can make it more interesting and worth doing and, in other words, more autotelic. It also corresponds to the finding demonstrated in the present research, namely that non-autotelics' intrinsic motivation tends to increase if they devote time and give concentration, attention and energy to EFL tasks. This finding seems to be the most valuable among the pedagogical implications.

Only non-autotelics admitted that if they had had a choice they would have chosen something else to study. Some non-autotelic students decided to study English when they had failed the entry exams to other faculties, some treated English as an 'easier' alternative, for instance to studying medicine, which seemed to be more challenging.

Finally, the levels of autotelics' and non-autotelics' EFL competence are comparable in this study. As the results show, the grades obtained in the practical English

exam did not differ significantly. It can be speculated that as far as the present level of English is concerned there are no differences between autotelics and non-autotelics and, as the research shows, both objective (grades) and subjective (feeling of perceived success) render similar results for autotelics and non-autotelics. On the other hand, the autotelics declared that the tasks were more important and interesting for them. Besides the level of autotelics' intrinsic motivation was higher. Therefore, we can speculate that autotelics, being equally successful to non-autotelics, can easier detect tasks which excite their interest, induce flow, and support flow experiences. Moreover, the non-autotelics appreciated the role of intrinsic motivation, which directly corresponds to the *flow* principle. Namely, the more attention people pay to an activity, the more involved they become, and the activity gives them more enjoyment and satisfaction. Thus, flow is said to function like a 'magnet' to learning (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).

It can be concluded that flow-producing activities, as Csikszentmihalyi (1997) claims, require a mental investment of focus and attention before they can become enjoyable, and whenever people feel tired, anxious, or not disciplined, they tend to choose something less demanding. The reason why autotelics invest more in work to develop their intellectual potential may stem from their experience of flow, whereas non-autotelics invest less in work in order to avoid negative subjective states. Of course, the importance of a balanced challenge and skill for clustering positive subjective states is only one parameter of the flow experience. Moreover, as Pintrich and Schunk (2002) imply "the fundamental issue when considering the flow theory is that the *flow experience* requires skill, expertise, concentration, and perseverance, not just hanging out and feeling good" (p. 284).

Appendix

Results of the qualitative research on subjective attitudes and objective achievements of autotelic and non-autotelic students of EFL

Open questions	Autotelics' answers	Non-autotelics' answers
Do you ever do something where your concentration is so intense, your attention so undivided and wrapped up in what you are doing that you sometimes become unaware of things you normally notice (for instance, other people talking, loud noises, the passage of time, being hungry or tired, having an appointment, having some physical discomfort)?	Writing, reading and communicating with native speakers as the activities that stimulate the concentration most; watching movies and listening to the music make the attention undivided	Similar to those of the autotelics; literature, perceived as a very demanding subject-mentioned only by the non-autotelics

(continued)

(continued)

Open questions	Autotelics' answers	Non-autotelics' answers
Do you ever do something where your skills have become so 'second nature' that sometimes everything seems to come to you 'naturally' or 'effortlessly', and where you feel confident that you will be ready to meet any new challenges?	Communicating with others, watching movies and British channels on TV, and reading authentic materials	Similar to those of the autotelics
Do you ever do something where you feel that the activity is worth doing in itself? In other words, even if there were no other benefits associated with it (for instance, financial reward, improved skills, recognition from others, and so on), you would still do it	Speaking, inventive and creative activities, important for their future goals; cooperation and team work, communicating with other people, native speakers as well, reading, not only obligatory material, but also dramas and poems; writing essays, poems and e-mails, watching TV or listening to the music. Some mentioned grammar tasks; the activity is worth doing in itself when they feel competent and successful; the role of the EFL tasks- they find challenging but pleasant and satisfying; activities which can enlarge their EFL knowledge, that is browsing through dictionaries or learning new, very often very sophisticated and unique, vocabulary, which is not the part of their curriculum, done for pleasure of doing and for satisfaction	Listening, and writing activities, such as letters and e-mails and translating texts into Polish; moreover, learning English vocabulary and pronunciation, reading English literature, comics, fairy tales, and idioms or authentic materials from newspapers, and also learning grammar

(continued)

(continued)

Open questions	Autotelics' answers	Non-autotelics' answers
Do you ever do something that has provided some unique and very memorable moments—for which you feel extremely lucky and grateful—that has changed your perspectives on life (or yourself) in some way?	Communicating in English with people all around the world, also with native speakers, reading literature and watching movies and TV programs. Some mentioned methodology, psychology and teaching others as the activities. Some find the opportunity to enlarge their knowledge valuable. Some had doubts, but still declared that the feelings examined are not unfamiliar to them. Some experienced the aforementioned feelings quite rarely	Communicating with people, reading books and magazines and getting to know British and American culture; meeting, including native speakers, watching movies and other programs on British Channels, enlarging vocabulary and translating; They feel advantageous and satisfied when the task is completed successfully and when teaching English but their students must be highly motivated
Would you have learned English if you had had a choice?	100 %—Yes	86 %—Yes
Has anything happened, or have you done anything which could have affected how you feel about learning English	Visiting English speaking countries, meeting English culture and native speakers, finding English essential in the future goals, English as a means of communication with people all around the world, listening to English music, watching movies and reading English stories, positive learning experiences with English from primary or secondary schools, English as the informants' favourite subject, or the subject they were particularly successful at, and the role of the English teachers who influenced the informants	Similar to those given by autotelics

(continued)

(continued)

Open questions	Autotelics' answers	Non-autotelics' answers
Do you ever do something where your skills have become so 'second nature' that sometimes everything seems to come to you 'naturally' or 'effortlessly', and where you feel confident that you will be ready to meet any new challenges?	Communicating with others, watching movies and British channels on TV, and authentic materials	Similar to those of the autotelics

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Simultaneous Reading and Listening Is Less Effective Than Reading Alone: A Study Based on Cognitive Load Theory

Pedro Luis Luchini

Abstract The importance and difficulty of comprehending texts is unquestionable. Reading comprehension is a very important predictor for successful language learning because it involves mental processes of learning. Cognitive load theory is concerned with relationships between working and long-term memory and the effects of those relationships on learning and problem solving. This theory has been used to generate many instructional procedures one of which is the *redundancy effect* (RE). The RE happens when the same information is presented to learners simultaneously through different modes of instruction. This paper explores the extent to which the RE impinges on a group of young learners' reading comprehension skills. The students were divided into two groups. One was exposed to a single mode of instruction: reading alone. The other was presented with a dual format: reading plus listening. Results revealed that students presented with the single mode of instruction outperformed the other group in a reading comprehension task. Some pedagogical implications for the teaching of reading comprehension skills will be discussed.

Keywords Cognitive load theory · Reading comprehension · Instruction modes · Language learning

1 Introduction

The construction of a knowledge system that in the long run can be resorted to automatically for speaking and understanding is one of the main concerns of second language acquisition (SLA). However, it is not quite clear yet what types of structures should be automatized through practice and what should be restructured

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(cf. Lightbown, Spada, & White, 1993). We know that comprehending texts is an intricate task because it involves much more than just accessing word meanings and then combining them. The process of comprehension calls for the building up of a mental representation of a text (e.g. Kintsch, 1998; Zwaan & Radvansky, 1998). This comprises lexical processes to access word meanings, memory retrieval to elaborate on the text and form connections to background knowledge, and inference processes (Moss, Schunn, Schneider, McNamara, & VanLehn, 2011). Reading comprehension becomes a very important predictor for successful language learning because it involves mental processes of learning, memory and problem solving. Cognitive load theory (CLT) is concerned with relationships between working and long-term memory and the effects of those relationships on learning and problem solving. CLT has been used to make many instructional procedures (Sweller, 2003, 2004). One of these procedures is the RE. This procedure occurs when the same information is presented to learners simultaneously through different modes of instruction, requiring them to mentally combine the multiple forms. This multiple operation creates an extraneous cognitive load that oftentimes hinders comprehension (Chandler & Sweller, 1991; Sweller, 2005; Sweller & Chandler, 1994). When L2 learners learn to read, they are often provided with a spoken version of the same written text. Many teachers explicitly advocate that both modes of instruction should be provided at once to underpin learning. Although this practice is frequently put into effect in several classroom settings, support of its effectiveness is highly debatable.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the degree to which the RE affects a group of young L2 learners' reading comprehension skills. The empirical background to the study will be presented in the first part of the paper. Following, the context, the participants and the instruments for data collection will be described. Next, the results and findings will be presented and discussed. Finally, the conclusions will be given. Limitations and suggestions for further research will be addressed.

2 Empirical Background

Reading comprehension in L2 is a complex process. As a result of this status, it has been given high priority in the field of second language acquisition. There are a number of interactive variables involved in the process of reading comprehension. When learners read a text, they turn to assorted cognitive procedures to process information such as the retrieval and storage of new input. To access and process this information, learners need to use reading strategies which often entail comprehension processes to make sense of what they read.

Moss et al. (2011) indicate that the complexity of reading comprehension processes is the result of individual differences in the strategies that learners use to understand texts along with what they actually learn from them. Many cognitive processes lie beneath reading comprehension. These processes take hold in a number of theories, many of which suggest that the reader creates a situation model

that comprises a representation of text content (Kintsch, 1988, 1998; McNamara & Magliano, 2009; Zwaan, Langston, & Graesser, 1995). These theories mainly claim that the reader builds up a situation model that is a representation of text content that draws away the attention from the written form of the sentences that make up the text and incorporates knowledge not enclosed openly in the text. To construct a logical situation model the reader needs to form a text based on the propositions contained directly in the text itself, and work on this information by using prior knowledge through inference processes (Brantmeier, 2002; Kintsch, 1988, 1998; Zwaan, 1999; Zwaan & Radvansky, 1998). These cognitive processes frequently involve skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, and separating main ideas from supporting or secondary ideas (Barnet, 1988).

Cognitive load theory is an instructional theory that takes root in Cognitive Science. It deals with the mental processes of learning, memory and problem solving. This theory describes learning structures in terms of an information processing system involving long term memory, which effectively stores all our knowledge and skills on a more-or-less permanent basis and working memory, which performs the intellectual tasks associated with consciousness (Sweller, 1994, 1999).

Information may only be stocked up in long term memory after first being attended to, and processed by, working memory. Working memory, however, is extremely restricted in both capacity and duration. It is the medium through which we are allowed to think both logically and creatively, to solve problems and to be expressive. Working memory is closely related to where and how we direct our attention to think about something, or to process information. The biggest restraint of working memory is its capability to deal with no more than about eight elements of information at the same time (Miller, 1956). If the capacity of working memory is surpassed while processing a body of information then some, if not all, of that information may not be recovered. These restrictions may somehow slow down and even obstruct learning. Learning entails the capacity of encoding or storing knowledge and skills into long term memory so that they can be easily recovered and later on applied on demand. This knowledge base is held in a well-structured information network which is itself linked to other networks. It can be said that when something has been learnt, this has been effectively encoded into long term memory and can later be retrieved when needed.

The limited resources of working memory mean that only a few elements of information may be attended to at any given time. New information that is loaded with a high level of element interactivity[1] impinges on learners a cognitive load over and above that imposed by the elements themselves because a need to attend to the relationships between these elements is created. Thus, high element interactive material increases the difficulties which result from working memory limitations.

[1] An activity is considered difficult when there is a need to attend to the relationships between the elements that constitute a piece of complex information. These elements interact with each other and, as a result of the high element interactivity, the cognitive load induced goes beyond the resources of working memory.

For pedagogical purposes, the quality of instructional design may affect foreign language reading comprehension instruction and language acquisition in general (Sweller, 1999).

Cognitive load may be classified into intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic cognitive load is due exclusively to the intrinsic nature or difficulty of some to-be-learned content. Intrinsic cognitive load cannot be tailored by instructional design. For example, content which is high in element interactivity remains high in element interactivity regardless of the way it is presented. On the other hand, extraneous cognitive load is due to the instructional materials used to present information to learners. By altering these instructional materials then the level of extraneous cognitive load may be customized to facilitate learning. Redesigning instructional materials may reduce the levels of extraneous cognitive load and this may, in turn, enhance learning (Cooper, 1998). Cognitive load theory has been largely used to generate many instructional procedures (Sweller, 2003, 2004), one of which is the RE.

The RE may occur when spoken and written texts are presented concurrently (Craig, Gholson, & Driscoll, 2002; Kalyuga, Chandler, & Sweller, 2000, 2004; Mayer, Heiser, & Lonn, 2001). Presenting information to learners using a dual-format pushes them to synchronize psychologically these forms, generating an extraneous cognitive load on learners that hinders learning (Chandler & Sweller, 1991; Sweller, 2005; Sweller & Chandler, 1994). It follows then that information should be presented in ways that do not impose heavy extraneous cognitive load on learners. And dual-mode presentations do not meet this criterion. Therefore, if the aim is to teach learners to read effectively, all distinct sources of information should be conflated into one to save learners from performing unnecessary mental integrations that interfere with learning.

In situations where a source of textual instruction, or a source of auditory instruction *alone* provides full intelligibility then only one source of instruction should be used, and the other source, which is redundant, should be removed completely from the instructional materials. In these contexts reading alone would return higher levels of learning than reading and listening presented in parallel.

3 Research Questions

When teaching reading comprehension skills, many teachers commonly resort to an overt twofold mode of instruction. They mistakenly believe that presenting their students with both written and spoken texts is more useful for reading comprehension than using a single mode. Some believe that simultaneous reading and listening is less effective than reading alone. Others uphold a contradictory idea. Triggered by these conflicting views, this paper sets out to find a plausible answer to these research questions:

(i) Is a single mode of instruction (reading alone) more beneficial than a multiple mode (reading and listening) for reading comprehension?
(ii) If instructional design were given more consideration in terms of the role and limitations of working memory for language acquisition to occur, could better results be obtained?

4 Method

4.1 Participants

Participants were 24 young learners aged 13. They were enrolled in a low-intermediate course at Colegio Atlántico del Sur (CADS), Mar del Plata, Argentina. CADS is a private school where students receive a total of 4 weekly hours of instruction, and they have their English classes twice a week. They learn English from kindergarten to high school. When the data were collected, these learners were enrolled in 1st year of high school. As part of their English background, these learners were preparing to take the PET Cambridge Exam. To carry out this experiment, these learners were divided into two homogeneous groups: Group A (n = 12) and B (n = 12). The selection of students was made randomly. Each group completed a reading comprehension task separately. Group A was exposed to a single mode of instruction (reading alone). Group B was asked to read and listen to the same scripted text simultaneously.

4.2 Instruments for Data Collection

The instruments used for data collection were a full text of about 500 words and students' summaries. The text was taken from the students' course book *PET Result* (Baker, 2010). The reading passage was deliberately chosen from this source to safeguard that its linguistic difficulty and length would not become an internal factor that would eventually threaten the validity of the study. Right after the students completed their reading tasks, they were all asked to write a summary of what they had understood and remembered. To release them from time constraints, they were allotted sufficient time to complete this writing activity.

4.3 Procedure

Three evaluators segmented the text into main and secondary ideas. Initially, two evaluators worked together to spot main ideas, and then a third assessor third cross-checked their findings. Whenever there was inconsistency between the raters, the

three evaluators worked jointly to discuss them until they reached consensus. A total of 9 main ideas were identified. These ideas were used as 'master rating' to analyze the students' summaries and evaluate their productions. So the measure of main ideas in each group was the total number of main ideas divided by 108 main ideas (12 students in each group × 9 main ideas: 'master rating').

The text was fragmented into five different paragraphs, each similar in length (approximately 100 words). These paragraphs were shown to the learners on five successive power point slides. Each slide was held on display for about 30 s. Learners were not allowed to control the pacing of the slides. The time allotted for learners to read each slide was calculated taking into account a pilot experience carried out by their teacher, prior to data collection, through which it was possible to measure the average time it took the learners to read and understand excerpts of a similar linguistic complexity and length.

As was said earlier, Group A was asked to read the narration on slides, while group B was presented with the audio narration along with a synchronized redundant on-screen text. The slide presentation was shown to both groups individually on two consecutive turns. Right after they completed their reading/listening tasks, the learners were asked to write a report of what they had read, containing as much information as they could retrieve. They were allowed to write their summaries in L1 or L2 according to their preference to facilitate the expression of their ideas.

5 Results

There were significant differences in gain scores across the two presentation modes. The students exposed to the reading alone treatment identified 51 main ideas out of the total average of 108 gathered per group. The learners presented with the dual mode of instruction spotted 32 main ideas. Table 1 shows the number of main ideas identified by each student in both groups.

Text comprehension scores indicated that the learners exposed to reading alone obtained better results than those exposed to the redundant mode. The analysis of means indicates that Group A scored 47.22 %, while Group B achieved 29.62 %. That is, on average, the difference between the means reached 17.6 percentage points. This difference suggests that Group A was able to retrieve more main ideas than Group B on the whole.

These results confirm the initial hypothesis in which it was claimed that a single mode of instruction decreases the RE and thus facilitates reading comprehension. On the other hand, it may be pinpointed that an instructional design that integrates a dual mode imposes an extraneous cognitive load that manifestly obstructs reading comprehension.

Table 1 Number of main ideas identified per student and groups

Group A: Read alone		Group B: Read & listen	
Participants	Main ideas	Participants	Main ideas
Student 1	6	Student 1	6
Student 2	2	Student 2	6
Student 3	6	Student 3	1
Student 4	4	Student 4	5
Student 5	4	Student 5	2
Student 6	4	Student 6	4
Student 7	3	Student 7	0
Student 8	7	Student 8	0
Student 9	6	Student 9	2
Student 10	5	Student 10	1
Student 11	2	Student 11	3
Student 12	2	Student 12	2
Total	51	Total	32

6 Discussion and Conclusion

The first research question we sought to address in this study was whether a single mode of instruction is more beneficial than a dual mode for the development of reading comprehension skills. As shown in the results section, the group exposed to the reading-alone treatment outperformed the other group exposed to the multiple mode of instruction. That is, an instructional design that integrates a dual mode impinges an extraneous cognitive load that affects reading comprehension. This claim may contradict some SLA theories which foster the use of multiple presentations. However, the results of this experiment indicate that when the same text is presented using two different modes, L2 learners are pushed to activate two different channels simultaneously to process the same information and to build up referential networks connections. Interpreting any given text in L2—using a single mode, already implies a demanding cognitive load on working memory. Reading and listening simultaneously implies even a greater competition of resources in working memory. Therefore, it is very unlikely that L2 learners will have sufficient working memory capacity to be able to handle this.

A second objective in this study was to determine whether better results could be obtained if instructional design were given more attention in terms of the limitations of working memory for language acquisition to occur. In reference to this aim we observe that research on CLT provides some sensible answers to manage high intrinsic cognitive load by means of approaches that consider learners' prior knowledge or that allow for the level of relevant load imposed on learners by different instructional materials. We know that some tasks pose more intricate challenges on learners than others because they trigger more high-element interactivity. One of these challenging activities is L2 reading comprehension because,

as was already mentioned earlier, it calls for the construction of complex mental representations. CLT argues that the load directed towards constructing, processing and automatising schemas can be engineered and optimized by means of good instructional designs that help learning by directing attention to more relevant learning processes. And the findings of the present research study show that this outcome was achieved more effectively by the group exposed to the single mode of instruction than the other group exposed to the redundant mode.

From a pedagogical perspective, this study suggests that teachers and material designers should appraise their work in ways that they reduce learners' extraneous or unnecessary cognitive load. This will eventually enhance schema construction and automaticity, and thus facilitate learning. A series of actions should be taken in the L2 reading comprehension class. First, teachers should reconsider the impact of RE on the reading aloud of instructions for completing an activity, for instance. A popular common misconception among English language teachers is that by reading these instructions aloud along with their students, reading comprehension is facilitated. Even if the primary goal of a task is not reading comprehension, students need to process and understand its instructions accurately before completing it. If teachers read instructions out loud at the same time that students are reading them, the understanding of those guidelines may be impinged as a result of RE. And cognitive load is not necessarily connected with text length, because it has been empirically demonstrated that the length of a text does not have any statistically significant effect on students' performance (Mehrpour & Riazi, 2004). Therefore, the most appropriate practice in this scenario would be to allow students to read instructions on their own and give them time to process and comprehend that information. Only then could teachers paraphrase, clarify, or enlarge on the written instructions provided to clear any possible doubts.

Another common practice that reinforces the RE consists in teachers reading out loud a passage along with their students who are later asked to retell what they have understood. In some other cases, teachers often appoint one student to read aloud a text while the rest of the class does it silently. Once the reading stage is over, one of them is asked to reconstruct what he has understood. Very often teachers read aloud a text along with their students with the intention of assisting comprehension. RE is also present in some standardized international tests such as the TOEFL exam on its paper-based format. In this test, candidates must read and listen to the instructions in the test booklet. The purpose of this dual mode is to assure that all candidates have fully understood the exam guidelines. Because all these practices reinforce extraneous cognitive load on L2 learners, they should be avoided in the reading comprehension class.

Although the findings in this study provide interesting and useful information for researchers, teachers and material designers, there are a number of limitations that need to be addressed. First, the number of participants was fairly limited. Results coming from a larger population would have provided stronger and more generalizable claims. More qualitative data emerging from semi-structured interviews or questionnaires to student-participants would have given the teacher-researcher more data about the students' insights into their feelings, perceptions, preferences and

opinions regarding the use of single/multiple modes of presentation. Multiple sources of information coming from different data sources could have been compared to cross-check the results obtained here. Data triangulation processes contribute to validate findings. Finally, although inter-rater reliability was used, the number of raters to analyze and interpret the data was not large enough. More evaluators should have been appointed to increase the homogeneity of their work. Unfortunately, no more raters were available at the time the data analysis was carried out.

The number of analogous studies to the one conducted here is relatively low. Motivated by the need of counting with more empirical results to inform teaching practice, similar investigations to the one shown here have been carried out with more advanced students in other contexts (see Tuero & Gómez Laich, 2012a, b). Interestingly, the results of these experiments also demonstrate that the redundant mode has negative effects on the participants' reading comprehension skills. At the moment, another two comparable projects are underway. One of them aims at investigating whether text complexity along with a dual mode of instruction take a toll on TOEFL students' reading skills (Machado & Luchini, 2013). Using a more qualitative method, the other research work seeks to explore in depth the students' beliefs and preferences when it comes to completing reading tasks using a single/dual mode of instruction (Luchini & Ferreiro, in press). In the light of these conclusions, a reasonable next step then would be to conduct other experimental studies of this type in diverse contexts and with different and larger populations to compare results and thus corroborate these findings.

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Associative Links in the Bilingual Mind

Marek Kuczyński

Abstract Over the centuries scholars have been interested in the area of bilingualism, especially in the ways the mother tongue affects the target language. There have also been studies exploring the influence which the L2 has on the L1. Beyond this, there are also questions related to the links between verbal and conceptual representations. Research in this, however, has mainly been confined to the relationships between thought and the first language. The present article addresses the following question: How do the L1 and L2 affect conceptual processing related to the same cognitive content? In the world of growing bilingual (and multilingual) population, this question is worth addressing. The issue, namely, is this: When a bilingual speaker processes conceptual content through the L1, within a speech event, certain associations are activated. When the same speaker processes the same, or corresponding, content through the L2, other associations are activated because the L2 was acquired in different circumstances. The present author has referred to this phenomenon as 'associative shifts'. The article overviews the research studies addressing this issue and proposes tentative answers.

Keywords Bilingualism · Cognitive lexicon · Associations

1 Introduction

The acquisition of a linguistic system other than one's native language has attracted a lot of attention over the last several decades. In most cases researchers focused on various aspects of syntax, morphology, phonology and vocabulary, originally studied from the perspective of contrastive analysis. Studies on bilingualism have focused predominantly on the above-mentioned language subsystems and, affected by notions such as 'transfer' or 'interlanguage', they have resulted in an extensive

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body of knowledge concerning second language acquisition, though many issues continue to be contentious.

Relatively less work has been done in the area of the conceptual structure of the bilingual person, though, with the publication of a number of books and articles in the second half of the last century and the beginning of the present century, the issue has already become a subject of vivid discussion among scholars. Coining such terms as 'subordinate', 'compound', 'coordinate' (Weinreich, 1953) or 'mixed-type' (De Groot, 1993) bilinguals has largely contributed to exploring the conceptual structure of the bilingual person together with its links to lexical representations but the very notion of conceptual links and the circumstances which contribute to their nature is still open to scientific exploration. At this point we do know that notions such as 'coordinate' or 'compound' etc. should be considered in terms of word-level rather than 'person-level' (e.g. Kroll, 1993) and hence the idea of mixed models. We should not ask whether a person is e.g. a coordinate or compound bilingual, or whether s/he is a subordinate or compound bilingual. The question to be asked is rather this: what proportions in a person's bilingual lexicon are, within our estimative capability, subordinate, compound or coordinate?

Since a person is not a globally subordinate, compound or coordinate bilingual, and s/he has L1-L2 lexical links of different nature, the interesting question to ask is this: what factors contribute to what kinds of links in the bilingual lexicon? A lot has been said about such factors (Kuczyński, 2007, summarizes the discussion) and, to put it simply, the following can be said: the topical areas in which the person has not had much L2 input are likely to hold subordinate links; those lexical areas which were acquired in the same circumstances are likely to hold compound links, whereas areas covered in the L1 in circumstances different from those covered in the L2 typically accommodate coordinate links. This is compatible with the statement that convergent contexts of L1 and L2 acquisition tend to result in compound links, whereas divergent ones—in coordinate.

The issue under discussion has to do with analyzing the relationship between thought and language (for an overview of discussion in this matter see, e.g. Besemeres & Wierzbicka, 2010; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008); here we tackle an extension of the problem—that is, the issue of how the *second language* is related to thought as such. Within the area of bilingual lexico-conceptual structure, I have been studying lexico-conceptual links from the perspective of associative shifts. They consist in the subject's having certain associations with certain concepts lexicalized in L1 and different associations with 'the same' concepts lexicalized in the L2. In other words, the bilingual person has some associations with something in one language and different associations with the same thing in the other language. I have been referring to this phenomenon as 'associative shifts' (Kuczyński, 2007) and the description of the role of language in this phenomenon has been presented within the 'switchboard theory of second language' (Kuczyński, 2003). The present paper summarizes the research I have done in this area and attempts to provide an answer to this question: what factors contribute to a particular nature of a

lexical link? When are associations with one entity similar in the two languages and when are they different? Among the explored variables are proficiency in the L2, nature of concept (universal or cultural) and learning circumstances.

To paraphrase the above question: When is a link between a concept, an L1 word and an L2 word likely to be subordinate, when coordinate and when compound? While in the subordinate link we deal with a lexical link without a conceptual link (an L1 word linked to an L2 word which is not linked to concept), the conceptual links are in principle discussed in terms of compound and coordinate links. In my studies I have been working on the assumption that in a compound link the words in both languages have similar sets of associations owing to shared conceptual content, whereas the words have some different associations in a coordinate link owing to the (at least partial) separation of the conceptual structures (based on the L1 and based on the L2).

First I discuss the basic notions in which 'associative shifts' are grounded: the typology of lexical links within the bilingual lexicon as well as universal and cultural concepts. Then I discuss the phenomenon of associative shifts, reviewing other researchers' as well as my own studies. This will enable me to present an answer to the question asked above.

2 Lexical Links in the Bilingual Lexicon

The issue of lexical interplay in the bilingual lexicon has received a considerable amount of attention (see, e.g. Singleton, 2010), though there have also been simplifications which I do not subscribe to. Lest it should be thought that I am basing my framework on descriptions which have been largely criticized (e.g. Arabski, 1996, criticizes the idea that coordinate bilingualism is a global state which obtains only when one lives abroad), let me reiterate that I am describing the nature of individual lexical links, not global states of persons. I shall first review what is known about subordinate links and then I shall consider the other categories: compound and coordinate, upon which mixed models will be discussed.

Subordinate links are involved when a concept is directly attached to an L1 word which, in turn, is attached to an L2 word. Such links dominate in early bilingualism and in such cases it is the L1 word which mediates between the concept and the L2 word (Marton, 1978). In this case there is no direct link between the conceptual content and the L2 verbal expression, as a result of which both comprehending and producing speech is slower: the listener/speaker needs time to sub-vocally translate utterances from and into the second language. Subordinate links, although dominant in the early stages of L2 acquisition, may prevail in those areas which do not get practice coverage when one is even more advanced. My research (Kuczyński, 2007) clearly indicates that, congruously with what is commonly known, the number of subordinate links is inversely proportional to the level of proficiency in the L2 as well as to the amount of speech production practice in a particular lexical area.

We deal with compound links when there is one concept and two verbal expressions—one in the L1 and one in the L2 (De Groot, 1993). In this situation, although the corresponding words may not be lexical equivalents in analytical terms, they function in the mind as equivalents because both are attached to one and the same concept. Comprehending and producing speech is faster on account of the direct link between the L2 (alongside the L1) and the concept, but the categorical processing is based solely on the native culture. For this reason, the person is a fluent speaker in particular areas, but s/he still thinks in the L1 in that no L2-specific semantic structure for the particular area has been created yet.

Coordinate links, formerly considered in terms of a global state of a person (Weinreich, 1953), appear in a situation where the bilingual mind develops one set of concepts attached to L1 expressions and another set of concepts for L2 expressions. This typically takes place when the L1 and L2 lexical items are acquired in different circumstances and, primarily, in different cultural environments (Kolers, 1963). As Lambert (1990) says, the separation of the two conceptual systems will provide such translation equivalents as *lemon* and *citron* with separate nodes in the cognitive structure. For this reason, it may be said that the person not only speaks fluently but also 'thinks in' the L2 owing to a separate semantic universe. However, there have been statements, e.g. by Odlin (2005), that a complete departure from the conceptual 'bindings' of the L1 is impossible.

As has been said, it is not the case that a bilingual person can be globally categorized as a particular kind of bilingual. As observed by scholars (e.g. Kroll, 1993), there are usually lexico-conceptual links of different kinds within the same person. Additionally, as my own research (Kuczyński, 2007) shows, there are tendencies in different learners to have more links of particular types, proficiency in the L2 being one, but not the only one, factor involved. While high levels of proficiency in the L2 consistently reduce the number of subordinate links, a relative balance between the number of compound and coordinate links are observed beyond the intermediate level.

Within the present framework I do not ask whether a person is subordinate, compound or coordinate bilingual because, at the advanced level in the L2, each person is a mixed type. Each person will obviously have a unique proportion of different links because every person has a different cognitive history which accompanied L1 and L2 acquisition. What I do ask is which factors contribute to the probability that one individual link will display a particular nature: that associations with translation equivalent may be the same, slightly or significantly different. If associations with or reactions to expressions from a pair of translation equivalents (words, statements or questions) are the same, it is assumed that the conceptual content for those expressions is shared and so a compound link emerges as a high probability; if they display different associative patterns, a coordinate link is thought to be involved.

3 Universal, Cultural and Personal Concepts

Concepts are generally referred to as mental representations of reality, though there is an ongoing discussion concerning their nature. The intricacies of this area will not detain us here on account of the limited scope of the present article (an interesting overview is offered by Rosch, 2010). In the commonly known literature (e.g. Wierzbicka, 1992) it is often assumed that conceptual content should be divided into universal and culture-specific. The former is defined as concepts (not to be confused with lexical expressions) shared by all cultures (e.g. the mental representation of the sun), while culture-specific as concepts/schemas which represent products of a particular culture (e.g. the mental representation of the sequence of events which take place during a wedding). While universal concepts are shared by all members of our species and are easily transferred by bilinguals (e.g. Latkowska, 2013), culture-specific ones are intrinsic to a particular ethnic or social group.

Furthermore, a large proportion of conceptual content is neither universal nor cultural. Many mental representations are unique to a particular person (e.g. Barsalou, 1985, shows that prototypicality patterns for one concept may even change over time within one person) and, as Carruthers (1996) states, it makes sense to speak of person-unique concepts which are unlike culture-specific in that in the latter the content is shared by many individuals. Person-unique concepts are developed as a result of experiences which involve unique configurations of elements of reality repeated frequently enough to enter semantic memory. In what follows I define, exemplify and list sources of all three kinds of concepts.

3.1 Universal and Cultural Concepts

As has been said, universal concepts involve matter which is shared by all humans. The matter, as Wierzbicka (1992) proposes, is shared by each human being because of similar conditions of human life. Universal conceptual matter consists of both primitive and complex concepts. Primitive concepts (believed to be innate) are not so numerous; amounting to several dozen, they exhibit the following properties: they are difficult to define yet self-evident, present and *lexicalized* in all cultures as well as useful for building more complex concepts (Wierzbicka, 1992). Primitive concepts, such as ‘thing’, ‘feel’ or ‘big’, are the smallest components of meaning which do not contain their own attributes. The latter (complex concepts), by far more numerous, are easy to define (because they consist of the aforementioned primitive concepts which cannot be further split into meanings) and are developed as a result of the ‘similar conditions’ in which humans throughout the globe live. Such similar conditions may involve the natural world (sea, elbow, grow, hot), global technology (mobile phone, car, shoot, digital) and global administrative solutions (prison, military, teach) considered on a general level.

I said above that global administrative solutions may be regarded as universal on a general level. The point here is that all civilized cultures have agencies such as government, school, prison or the army, though the organizational and legislative detail will in most cases be different. The generality/specificity principle also holds for natural categories. Although each culture is familiar with the general category of, for example, a bird, many cultures are familiar with different instantiations of this general category and therefore different *prototypes* of birds are held in different cultures which are surrounded by different natural settings (Rosch, 1975). This fact well illustrates Wierzbicka's (1992) statement that, although many entities are universally available, people think about them in different ways.

As my experimental work (Kuczyński, 2003, 2007) shows, thinking about things in different ways involves different associative patterns with the same entities. The entities themselves may be objectively defined in terms of denotation or, as Yule (1996) puts it, the dictionary meaning of a word. The denotation is shared by cultures if the concept is universal. The entities also have sets of associations to go with them, and such associations, called 'associative meaning' by Yule (1996) and commonly known as connotation, are often not shared even if the denotation is shared. To illustrate this, let us consider the natural category 'sun'. While the denotation of the word *sun*, the core of the concept 'sun', is universal and can be specified as the closest star (at least among educated people), the connotative embedding is different in many cultures due to different experiential influence the star has had on our perceptions of it: different experiential salience is observed in the Sahara desert, different in the moderate climatic zone and different in, say, Alaska. This remark is critical for the notion of associative shifts: although many categories are universal, not everything in them is in fact universal. While the core of the concept, or the denotation of a word, may be universal, the conceptual periphery involving different prototypes and different associations will in many cases be different.

According to Tomalin and Stempleski (1993), cultural concepts have the following sources: literature, folklore, art, beliefs, values, institutions, customs, habits, dress, foods and leisure. Unlike universal concepts, they are not shared by many cultures, though there is still something they do share. That universal primitive concepts serve as building blocks of complex concepts. If so, then it follows that even cultural concepts consist of attributes many of which are primitive and therefore universal. The denotation of cultural terms is not shared across cultures but, owing to such concepts consisting of smaller attributes, many of which are universal primitive attributes, such terms may at least partially be paraphrased for explanation to members of other cultures. While the American concept of 'secretary of state' is culture-specific (not to be confused with, e.g. Polish 'sekretarz stanu') because it represents a node in the unique American organization of government administration, it can be paraphrased by using universal attributes, some of them primitive and some complex: secretary of state—job in American government which involves doing important things which the head of state himself cannot see to; it involves home matters and foreign matters.

Explaining concepts is not, of course, the same as literally translating them, but since cultural concepts always involve some limits in translatability (Wierzbicka, 1992), it will often be the only option available. In such cases the denotation will be more or less successfully rendered, but the connotational 'embedding' will often be left behind.

3.2 Personal Concepts/Representations

While a considerable amount of human activity is coded as universally available categories and some other activity is socially shared within a culture, there are also phenomenological configurations which present themselves consistently and repeatedly to individual persons. We shall refer to mental representations of these as person-unique concepts (Carruthers, 1996). It is easy to imagine what components of reality they will frequently involve: familiar situations with familiar people and places, familiar intrinsic sensations in the face of such familiar situations, unique sensory representations such as smell, shape or texture, or all combined, and so on. Unique mental representations are not easy to verbalize because such concepts are unlexicalised (Carruthers, 1996) and may only be conveyed by some metaphorical or poetic reference.

Personal concepts will be discussed here as mental representations rather than categories. When a subject in my study reacts to a lexical stimulus (family) by saying 'dad', I understand that she activates her mental representation of her father, who is a unique person to her, and not a category: 'dad' may be a part of something, but not a kind of something. Perhaps it might be safer to refer to such entities in the mind as 'personal representations' rather than 'personal concepts' because the latter by nature involve abstracted commonalities (Maruszewski, 2002). However, it is a lexical solution and, since we have seen such terms as 'person-unique concepts' in the literature, what is more important is that we appreciate what kind of ingredient of cognitive structure we are dealing with.

And what we are dealing with is this: not only associations may be different (this happens with universal concepts, too), not only may denotations be different from culture to culture (this happens with cultural concepts); the core of a concept itself may differ from person to person and many people hold, in their semantic memory, representations which are their own epistemological 'inventions'. A manager's assistant who is in charge of preparing the weekly management's meeting in a particular room, with a particular set of crockery on the table and some particular cuisine to go with it, in which a particular group of people typically takes place, discussing a particular kind of local company-intrinsic problems, involving problems some of which are also local and company-unique, is very likely to have in his mind a mental representation of 'management meeting' for which he may coin a unique expression because the configuration of attributes is so unique, so unlike any other management meetings. For the present discussion it does not matter so much whether we call it a schema (it is a situational representation), a concept or, more

generally, a representation. What matters in the context of associative shifts is that references to such entities in the mind are frequently made—it will be seen later that they are made more often in the L1 than in the L2.

3.3 Summary

Conceptual content in the mind is species-specific when it is present in all cultures, in the minds of all members of our species. On the one hand, it may be thought to be inborn, as was said about primitive concepts. On the other, universal concepts may owe their omnipresence to the omnipresence of certain components of reality, involving nature, technology or general administrative solutions. The detail of such solutions, however, is often culture-specific and on a high level of specificity we will have cultural concepts, which also involve different cuisine, dress, beliefs, etc. What is important is that in cultural concepts the denotation differs across cultures, while universal concepts only allow variable connotation with non-variable denotation. While some representations are shared by all humans because all humans share some experiences and while some representations are shared by all members of a culture because the culture shares some experiences (and invents many), some other representations are person-unique because a particular configuration of experiential details may often not produce itself in front of other persons. The more such repeated configurations, the more individualist the person may be.

4 Associative Shifts

4.1 Defining Associative Shifts

Associative shifts have been defined (Kuczyński, 2005, 2007) as changes happening as a result of activating a different language, in associative patterns with [the same or corresponding] entities. The entities are assumed to be 'the same' when they correspond to universal concepts. Such universal concepts may have a semantic core shared across cultures, though both their connotative embedding and prototypical realization often change. The fact that such entities involve different associative patterns can merely be concluded from what was said above about connotation and denotation (while some denotations may be shared, their connotative embedding does differ across cultures), but what kinds of such entities involve what kinds of associations in the L1 and the L2 is not known unless studies are carried out.

The associative areas of the bilingual person consist of three sub-areas: those associations which are typically evoked by L1 stimuli, those evoked by L2 stimuli and those which produce parallel associations in both languages (Kuczyński, 2003). It is certainly not the case that one stimulus will always produce the same response

and we should discuss the phenomenon in terms of tendencies rather than static links. Although a person may associate an L1 stimulus and its L2 translation equivalent with the same thing on numerous occasions, there will always be a possibility that a different association will be triggered. A number of reasons may be considered to account for this. The subject may have had intensive experiences with an entity via the L1, not the L2, in very recent past, and so the previous coordinate links may be overridden by the strength of the experience, and so both the L1 and the L2 will trigger associations related to that entity. Besides, the learner may be in a different language mode (Grosjean, 2008) than before—a monolingual mode may trigger different associations in each language, but a bilingual mode is likely to cause parallel associations more often.

Considering the above, it needs to be added at this point that, in studying individual lexico-conceptual links, we study tendencies rather than a fixed network. A word is undoubtedly linked to many other entities in the mind (another word in the same or different language, an image, an exemplar or a prototype), some links being weaker and some stronger. The one which most frequently emerges is taken to correspond to the nature of lexico-conceptual organization, though one should always allow for the possibility that there are factors which may cause rare associations to 'come to the surface'. Associative shifts do exhibit patterns, but beyond those patterns there are individual occurrences which result from a number of different factors.

4.2 Other Researchers' Studies

A number of studies have shown clearly that the language in current use affects the associative patterns with entities or situations. In a research project (reported in Beatens Beardsmore, 1982), French-English bilinguals had different associations with the same entity, depending on the language. They associated *the Bible* with God, but *La Bible* was associated with a book, not with God. Similarly, in a research project reported by De Groot (1993), the English word *church* was associated with a building visited on Sunday, whereas the French word *l'eglise* with a Gothic cathedral. Beatens Beardsmore (1982) also reported other studies. For example, English-French bilinguals displayed different associative patterns for the word *child*. In English, they associated the word with a mother, whereas in French with a baby. In his study, Laitin (1977) observed that bilingual English-Somali speakers not only had different associations with the same referents in both languages, but they also assumed different attitudes and roles in such situations as bargaining, depending on the language. English-Chinese bilinguals, studied by Hoffman, Lau, and Johnson (1986), after reading the same text either in English or in Chinese, were to retell the story. Those who had read it in Chinese tended to distort the description of the characters in favor of Chinese stereotypes. All these examples show that the particular language in current use not only triggers different associations with individual expressions, but also attitudes and interpretations may shift.

4.3 Own Studies

In my first research project (Kuczyński, 2003), I provided statements or questions as stimuli for 65 Polish-English bilinguals who were supposed to respond immediately to those statements. The statements (such as *Children should always obey parents*) or questions (such as *What is the first word you associate with love?*) were provided in Polish and a week later in English. Then I categorized all the responses provided in Polish and in English and divided them into convergent (the same responses in both languages) and divergent (different responses). There were stimuli which provided the same responses and ones which provided different responses. For example, the question *What is the most important for you?* got the answer *love* both in English and in Polish within a comparable percentage of the subjects, and the statement *Children should always obey their parents* got a comparable ratio of agreement in both languages. On the other hand, the question *What time do people drink tea most often* produced different answers in Polish and different in English. While in Polish most answers centered around the early hours, the same subjects pointed at 5 p.m. in English. When asked to give examples of rivers or cities, they most often gave Polish rivers and cities in Polish and foreign ones in English.

Although some of the conclusions I offered were criticized, one idea emerged as clear: there was content which produced similar associations in both languages and there was content which produced largely different responses in the L1 and in the L2. The content which produced different responses was predominantly culturally marked in one way or another and the content which did not involve associative shifts so much involved largely universal categories. This pattern was repeated in another study carried out with 50 Polish learners of English (Kuczyński & Wałukiewicz, 2005). The subjects were to fill a cloze in which some of the blanks needed cultural concepts, such as the name of a currency or the title of the head of state, and some others—universal ones. The cloze was run in Polish and in English after some time. Again, there was a clear presence of associative shifts in the case of cultural concepts and very little associative variation in universal concepts. These studies were criticized on account of the following: How do we know that we would obtain the same responses if we ran the study again? How do we know it was not a coincidence? As a way of responding to this challenging remark, I embarked upon another project.

In the new project (Kuczyński, 2007), a group of 120 Polish-English bilinguals (a third of the group were true bilinguals, one third were intermediate in English and one third—upper intermediate) were exposed to stimuli in Polish and English, twice in each language, with average time interval between sessions being one week. The stimuli included thirty six words and fourteen questions. The subjects were alternately exposed to English and Polish stimuli. Each stimulus was thus to produce four responses: two in Polish and two in English. Those responses which were consistent in each language (they were the same in Polish during the two sessions or the same in English during the two sessions) were assumed within high probability to correspond to relatively fixed associative patterns and they were

processed for statistical analysis. Those responses which were not consistent in one language were excluded from further analysis because they were unlikely to correspond to any fixed patterns. The consistent responses were then classified as those which were the same/similar in both language and as those which were different in both languages.

In all, I obtained almost 5,000 consistent responses (each resulted from four sessions). A third of this database was provided by intermediate learners, another third by upper-intermediate and the last third by advanced. The following observations were made after a general analysis: the percentage of divergent responses corresponded to the level of proficiency. In the intermediate group, the divergent responses rated below 12 %, in the intermediate—above 16 % and in the advanced—approximately 26 %. It was therefore congruously concluded that the probability of associative shifts rose proportionally to the level of proficiency in the L2.

Other observations were also made with respect to the kinds of responses which tended to be divergent (associative shifts present) and convergent (similar associations). The following could be observed:

- Cultural content tends to provide associative patterns, that is if a response is culturally-specific it tends to correspond to the culture of the language which is currently in use (e.g. the response *Tower of London* as a response to the stimulus *tower*); *Independence Day* is a good example of a stimulus which produced cultural responses: most advanced subjects associated it with July 4 in English and with November 11 (independence anniversary) in Polish—this switching pattern dropped with proficiency,
- Universal content has a smaller ratio of associative shifts but they are still observed. It is interesting that many divergent associations, though they correspond to universal concepts, correspond to different learning circumstances. For example, *love* was associated with marriage in Polish, whereas the same person consistently associated it with friendship in English. The Polish association resulted from being a part of family which had a husband and wife, but this association was lacking in English because in the subject's English-teaching materials *love* had not been presented in the context of marriage.
- Many subjects had universal associations in their L2 and personal associations in their L1. For example, *street* was associated with traffic in English (L2) by many subjects, whereas the Polish response involved the name of the street where they lived; similarly, the English response to *family* involved the abstract category 'father', while the Polish association involved the image of 'my mum'. It is very interesting to observe that in this pattern the associative shift was from personal associations (association with a personal concept) in the L1 to universal associations (associations with universal concepts) in the L2.

5 Conclusions

To conclude, a few remarks should be made about associative shifts. Firstly, they are proportional to the level of proficiency in the L2. The more cognitive history learning/acquiring the L2, the more likely progression towards the advanced level, and so it is this level that maximizes the possibility of associative shifts. Many of the cited studies have consistently shown that associative shifts display a marked presence on the advanced level, when bilingualism is well-grounded. Additionally, associative shifts involve different cultural concepts in the L1 and the L2, but they also involve concepts which have been shaped differently owing to different learning histories, even if they are universal. This is so because the more separate the learning histories are (through the L1 and the L2), the more either code will evoke the content which was learnt through it. Lastly, personal experiences tend to adhere to associative patterns in the native language and they are frequently replaced by associations with universal concepts in the L2. Despite the possible factors, such as recent experiences or language mode, which may frequently affect the individual occurrences, I have successfully gathered a database of consistent responses which shows that acquiring another language to the advanced level contributes to the make-up of semantic memory as such (inasmuch as fixed associations are a part of semantic memory). The contribution to cognitive structure corresponds to the context in which language is acquired.

It is obvious that learning two cultures involves two different learning histories and it is also therefore obvious that associative shifts occur frequently in (or between) cultural areas. What also emerges, though, is that different learning histories involving universal concepts also lead to different texture of semantic memory, some of which is triggered by the L1 and some by the L2. My projects cannot answer the question of whether thought is substantiated in language or beyond (in some sort of Fodor's 'mentalese'), but they offer a consistent basis to assume that different natural languages known by one person underlie different semantic structures which only partially overlap. If so, providing learners with language input inevitably contributes to building certain areas in cognitive structures and certain connections in the overall cognitive structure. From this perspective it can be said that acquiring another language involves the construction of another semantic universe some of which may be latent while the L1 is active, and which is activated when the L2 comes into play.

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Part II
External Processes

EFL Teachers' Affective Competencies and Their Relationships with the Students

Nina Barłożek

Abstract A number of investigators highlight the affective competencies of teachers explaining that they directly impact student learning (Olson and Wyett in Education, 120:741–74, 2000). A lack of affective skills can be detectable in many educators and a teacher cannot be considered effective if he or she ignores the affective domains (Aydın et al. in Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences, 9:263–280, 2009). Affective teaching should underscore the superior role of emotions in order to enhance reasoning and enrich students' integrative qualities (Zhang and Lu in International Journal of Psychological Studies, 1:35–41, 2009). Undesirable emotions may impede gaining new knowledge, therefore more insight into the significance of emotional literacy appears to be indispensable. This study examines the relationship between the level of emotional intelligence (EI) of foreign language teachers and their success in terms of classroom interaction. Moreover, the importance and value of a positive teacher-student relationship is investigated. For this purpose, 20 secondary school teachers of the English language together with their students (493) in Częstochowa were chosen. Initially, the teachers were asked to take a test on emotional intelligence (TIE 1.0 test). Simultaneously, a questionnaire was completed by each student with the aim of evaluating the students' attitude towards a given teacher and 4 selected teachers were interviewed (2 presenting a high level of emotional intelligence and 2 presenting a low level of the concept in question). The results indicate that a teacher with a higher level of EI has a much better relationship with students, which in turn results in an emotionally friendly environment where students are able to acquire their knowledge in a faster way.

Keywords Emotional intelligence in SLA · Affect in teaching · Teachers' level of emotional intelligence

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1 Introduction

School is an institution in which systematic knowledge is received. Students are gradually prepared to lead a responsible and independent adulthood; however, the increased number of behavioral problems suggests that there is a missing link in the way a young person is educated. More often than not what matters the most is how highly the school is classified in the ranking of the best schools (Wosik-Kawala, 2013). Hence teachers are required to do everything in their power to live up to parents' and authorities' expectations. Unfortunately, the price for that is high as the teachers' major attention is paid to constant preparation for various competitions, tests, and exams essential in proving the schools' position. The students' upbringing is completely forgotten. Nevertheless, the process of learning does not involve simply perceiving, incorporating and acquiring information. It does not apply particularly to learning foreign languages. Williams and Burden (1997) ascertain that the process of learning a foreign language does not resemble learning other school subjects. There is a social nature involved in this venture. "Language, after all, belongs to a person's whole social being; it is a part of one's identity, and it is used to convey this identity to other people" (p. 115); therefore, learning a language requires, apart from possessing learning skills or the knowledge of a system of rules and grammar, development of new abilities, for instance cultural and social behavior. Hence, while communicating in a foreign language, an individual ultimately consciously or subconsciously learns how to become another social being. Consequently, the objectives of foreign language teachers seem to be far more demanding and challenging compared to the aims of teachers of other school subjects for the reason that they are obliged not only to teach a given language but also how to communicate in it. Certain conditions must be fulfilled in order to meet those requirements.

Many researchers (Andres, 2002; Arnold & Brown, 1999; Wosik-Kawala, 2013) emphasize the positive influence of well-established teacher-student social and affective relationships on a learner's academic success. Due to the constantly occurring social and economic changes, contemporary educational institutions are focused on introducing a great number of adjustments, mainly concerning educators' attitude towards learners. Many parents who struggle to maintain the family, because of a lack of time, delegate an upbringing obligation to school. Thus a teacher has become a crucial component of a young person's developmental process. This young person needs support, affection, understanding, compassion as well as security for the sake of establishing decent learning conditions, especially needed during foreign language classes.

The author set out to investigate the level of emotional intelligence among teachers' of English. Additionally, the examined teachers were evaluated by their students who completed a questionnaire in which they assessed their teachers' abilities in terms of emotional intelligence. The researcher's final objective in the study was to select teachers who demonstrated the highest and the lowest level of emotional intelligence to determine the possible correlation between the utilized instruments.

2 Defining Affect

The term *affect* is related to the aspects of one's emotional being (Arnold & Brown, 1999). Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts (2009) define it as an "umbrella term for feeling states that include emotions and moods" (p. 375). Affect is broadly divided into positive (e.g. happiness) and negative (e.g. anxiety, unhappiness, or anger). The first type of affect appears particularly important while initiating a social exchange and experiencing positive affect. Happy children generally tend to be more liked by teachers and peers. Positive feelings assist a child in sustaining social interaction and enhance general communication with peers. The second type of affect, namely the negative one, leads to withdrawals and difficulties with socializing. The quality of social competence is influenced by enduring anger which, in turn, is expressed as hostility expressed by such children (ibid., pp. 152–153).

Mayne (1999) highlights that there exist two diverse classifications in order to describe the phenomenon of affect. The first one refers to the theory of discrete emotions in which words such as fear, distress, and anger are utilized to define basic effects, which Izard (1978, in Mayne, 1999) expands to *affective-cognitive orientations* justifying that "more elaborated cognitive and behavioral elements" (p. 602) are included. Subsequently, over a period of time, the previously mentioned group of emotions undergoes the process of schematization, association with specific memories, behavioral repertoires as well as conceptualization expanding the basic emotions into independent ones such as anxiety, depression, and hostility. The second classification of affect refers to a dimensional approach in which emotions are described by valance (positive/negative, pleasant/unpleasant) and arousal (high/low). Hence, affect might be investigated from the perspective of emotions. In the present context, affect will be investigated in terms of emotional intelligence which will be explained in the next part of the present article.

3 Affect in Learning

Brown (1994, in Andres, 2002) affirms that acquiring a new language involves a wide range of variables: from psychological to neurological, as well as cognitive and affective ones. A distinctive definition of two domains of learning was provided by Bloom (in Andres, 2002) who claims that learning involves the cognitive and affective domain. The first domain refers to the mental side of human behavior and the latter one embraces the emotional side of that. Nevertheless, as Arnold and Brown (1999) sustain, "the affective side of learning is not in opposition to the cognitive side" (p. 7) and if the learning process is to be formed on a more solid foundation, cognitive and emotional sides must be applied. A very strong opinion is expressed by a professor at the Centre for Neural Science at New York University, LeDoux (1999), who states that "minds without emotions are not really minds at all. They are souls on ice—cold, lifeless creatures devoid of any desires, fears, sorrows,

pains, or pleasures" (p. 25). Hence, separating emotions from cognition would be extremely destructive for human beings, limiting their potential in life. Present research indicates that if learning is to take place, education must involve not only the learner's brain but it must also engage feelings. Fortunately, many educational institutions have started paying attention to affective variables which account for the process of learning. What should matter is not only what a student knows but how he feels and whether he is able to absorb new knowledge. Obviously teachers' knowledge of a subject matter is fundamental but not sufficient if a teacher aims to make the most of all the potential of a learner (Olson & Wyett, 2000). A significant importance of affect in language learning was expressed by Arnold and Brown (1999) who explain that utilizing affective aspects in the teaching process may enhance not only leaning potentials but also may entail more effective language acquisition. In addition, Goleman (1995) emphasizes that schooling should be based on educating "the whole student, bringing together mind and heart in the classroom" (p. XIV). He also postulates that human competencies, such as self-awareness, empathy, self-control, the ability to listen, to solve conflicts and cooperate must be a part and parcel of the school curriculum if education aims to cater for responsible people, more satisfied with life. The central mission of the school is "to educate students to be knowledgeable, responsible, socially skilled, healthy, caring, and contributing citizens" (Greenberg et al., 2003, p. 466). Accordingly, as a response to the above mentioned requirements, John Heron founded the Human Project at the University of Surrey in 1970 (Arnold & Brown, 1999). Since 1970s similar concerns have been expressed by a great number of foreign and second language teacher trainers.

Education ought to be the institution employing professionals equipped with all the tools which are essential to achieve all the competencies presented by Goleman. The required educators are those who are experts at teaching affectively and conveying information (embracing learners' emotional aspects). Olson and Wyett (2000) define an affective teacher by stating that such a teacher is an authentic person who is genuine, self-aware and able to behave in accordance with his or her true feelings. Also, such teachers need to see all people as worthy of unconditional positive regard and treat them with dignity and respect. In addition, an affective teacher is an empathic person who understands the feelings of students and responds appropriately to those feelings. And each person working in school must be equipped with the above presented characteristics, predominantly a foreign language teacher who finds plenty of room for dealing with affect during the lesson which is based on meaningful interaction among students. By embracing cognitive and affective domains in teaching, one may enhance the teaching and learning processes. The author of this article pays the greatest attention to the affective side of English language teachers and concentrates on emotions, principally on emotional intelligence.

4 The Emergence of Emotional Intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence appears to be extremely important for the reason that it "provides a rationale for teaching about emotions, their meanings, and how they operate more generally in our educational programs, and for creating specialties in the understanding of emotion" (Mayer, 2006, p. 23). However, emotional intelligence (EI) was only recognized about three decades ago. The beginning of the twentieth century marked the emergence of cognitive intelligence research and the first psychological test measuring the concept was developed. Soon after, it appeared that this type of intelligence disappointed the researchers and psychologists, predominantly for not being a reliable predictor of one's life and professional success (Ledzińska, 1999, in Knopp, 2010) which resulted in deeper and further research into the intellectual potential of human beings. Since that time, the concept of general intelligence has been broadened and expanded in the eyes of various researchers. In 1920 Thorndike, for instance, postulated *social intelligence* claiming that this type of intelligence can be detected in human relations. He defined *social intelligence* as "the ability to manage and understand men and women, boys and girls, to act wisely in human relations" (Thorndike, 1920, in Taracha, 2010, p. 59). A few decades ater Gardner (1983, in Taracha, 2010) proposed the model of multiple intelligences. He distinguished eight intelligences, among others, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences whose definitions resemble the abilities included in the definition of emotional intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence refers to the ability to understand others while intrapersonal intelligence includes such abilities as understanding oneself and one's inner side and using this knowledge for the sake of managing one's life. These are the intelligences which are responsible for appropriate human interactions, solving practical life problems, self-understanding and managing other people. "These factors are now described as emotional intelligence" (Michalska, 2004, p. 26), which in many cases appear to be a better life success predictor than generally perceived cognitive intelligence (Goleman, 1995). How to understand this new concept and how can it be defined?

Emotional intelligence, which has received a great deal of attention, is made up of two components: intelligence and emotion. Intelligence encompasses the cognitive spheres of the brain, whereas emotion refers to the affective sphere of the functioning of the brain. Mayer and Salovey (1997) illuminates that "definitions of emotional intelligence should in some way connect emotions with intelligence if the meanings of the two terms are to be preserved" (p. 4). The concept of emotional intelligence was created in 1990 by the abovementioned psychologists who define EI as "the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (ibid., p. 5), hence the name—the ability model of emotional intelligence. According to the definition, there are four main abilities which are the components of emotional intelligence: perception, understanding, managing and assimilation of emotions.

The basic and the first ability of EI, perception, embraces mainly the knowledge how to identify one's own and others' emotions in appearance, behavior, sound and pieces of art. The second ability, understanding, includes conscious analysis and interpretation of emotions and complex feelings as well as the ability to predict transitions likely to occur. Managing emotions consists of emotional self-regulation and self-control, whereas assimilation of emotions deals with such abilities as thinking and reasoning crucial in integrating emotions (Karwowski, 2005). Five years after the introduction of the definition of EI Goleman (1995) published a book entitled *Emotional Intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ*, in which his model of emotional intelligence is called the mixed model and does not only refer to mental abilities but also other characteristics, dispositions and traits. The researcher explains that being emotionally intelligent means "…being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope" (Goleman, 1995, p. 34). Nevertheless, there is a great deal of criticism mainly that the construct is not scientific enough but that it was constructed from a journalist's viewpoint.

Why, therefore, can emotional competence be so crucial in educational context? The main and fundamental reason is the fact that emotional intelligence can be developed and enhanced throughout our entire life (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). Additionally, "Children's effective use of emotions enables them to control their instinctive reactions in stressful conditions, to learn to better communicate their emotional state, to develop healthy relationships with family and friends, and to become successful in school, work and life" (Elias & Weissberg, 2000, p. 180). Therefore, one's life success in adulthood does not only relate to a high level of general intelligence presented by a student at school. It is more likely that an emotionally intelligent student will have more friends, will be more popular in a group, will be more successful at school and later in professional and personal life than a talented student with a high level of general intelligence. In order to achieve this, educators, parents and teachers should aim to develop students' abilities of emotional intelligence and this should take place in educational institutions in which human interactions are taught (Michalska, 2004). For that reason, the approach that teachers of foreign languages take advantage of must aim at regulating learners' emotions and motivating them. When affective factors are taken into account, the cognitive process is initiated as well (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, in Saeidi & Jabbarpour, 2011). Teachers' emotional intelligence as well as their affective competencies make the process of teaching absolutely meaningful. Such teachers are efficient in building positive relationships with their students which are based on empathy, respect and encouragement.

The present study examines the level of emotional intelligence of teachers of English and their students' perception of the examined teachers. After gathering all the data, four selected teachers are interviewed.

5 Method

In order to analyze the relationship between English teachers and their students the researcher measured the teachers' level of emotional intelligence and then the students taught by the above mentioned teachers completed a questionnaire in which they assessed them. Subsequently, the researcher selected two teachers with the highest and two teachers with the lowest level of EI.

Three main questions were investigated:

RQ1 Are the teachers with a high level of emotional intelligence better perceived by their students?
RQ2 Are the teachers with a low level of emotional intelligence worse perceived by their students?
RQ3 How do high and low EI teachers perceive their students?

5.1 Participants

Three groups of participants took part in the research. The first group consisted of 20 secondary school teachers of English from four the most popular secondary schools in the heart of Częstochowa—19 females and 1 male, aged between 26 and 53 years. The second group involved 493 students of the secondary schools taught by the examined teachers: 332 women and 161 men, aged between 16 and 18 years. The last group, the selected teachers, consisted of 3 females and 1 male, from the group of the abovementioned twenty teachers. The researcher analyzed the TIE 1.0 outcomes of the test and chose 2 teachers demonstrating the highest and two teachers with the lowest level of emotional intelligence.

5.2 Instruments

There were three instruments used in the research. The aim of the first instrument was to assess the teachers' level of emotional intelligence. It was achieved by means of the TIE 1.0 test created by Śmieja, Orzechowski, and Beauvale (2007). The test, adapted to the Polish context, is a performance test which assesses four abilities based on the model formulated by the creators of the definitions of EI—Mayer and Salovey (1997). These include: perception, understanding, assimilation, and management of emotions. The test consists of 24 items and is divided into two parts. The first part refers to the ability connected with perception and understanding of emotions. The respondents' task is to reflect on what the main characters felt and thought in a described situation. On a 5-point Likert scale anchored at the ends with a 'very bad answer' and a 'very good answer' respondents evaluate a protagonist's

probability of experiencing certain emotions. In the second part, which refers to assimilation and management of emotions, the respondents indicate which character's behaviour would be most effective in a given situation. Also on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'very ineffective' to 'very effective' respondents judge the level of accuracy for the three situations provided (see Appendix 1—it presents exemplary items from each part of the test). The scoring applied in analyzing the responses was based on the comparison of a participant's responses with answers provided by the panel of experts (52 professionals, including 13 psychotherapists, 14 trainers of management, and 25 HR specialists). The higher the score achieved in the test, the higher level of emotional intelligence. Approximately 30 min are needed to complete the test, which begins with the following exemplary item and answers to it.

Zosia bangs her fist on the table. She has knitted eyebrows, reddened cheeks, and clenched teeth. Probably:

(a) she is watching a popular game show on TV
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5
(b) she has cut herself again while cutting the bread
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5
(c) a friend, who she was supposed to do a project with, has told her that he won't be able to help for the reason that he is going on a last-minute holiday
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5

Another instrument utilized in the research was the questionnaire entitled *Characteristics of the teacher-student relationship* (see Appendix 2) created by the researcher with the aim of evaluating the teacher-student relationship taking into account emotional aspects demonstrated by teachers. The questionnaire was formulated on the basis of the publication *Teaching with Emotional Intelligence: A step-by-step guide for higher and further education professionals* (Mortiboys, 2005) and consisted of 18 items with answers given on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1—*strongly disagree* to 5—*strongly agree*. The lowest possible score was 18 points and the highest 90 points. Approximately 10 min are needed to complete it.

The third instrument was an interview with four selected teachers. They were chosen after the analysis of the outcomes of the TIE 1.0 test on emotional intelligence, earlier completed by the teachers from the research. Two teachers with the highest and two teachers with the lowest level of emotional intelligence were interviewed. The teachers agreed to devote a part of their free time after their work, the researcher spend approximately 10 min with each teacher. By interviewing the teachers, the researcher was able to determine their attitude towards their students (see Appendix 3). The issues that they were asked about referred to their self-assessment and experience in teaching, the way they are perceived by their students as well as their general knowledge about emotional intelligence and willingness to develop and increase it.

5.3 Procedure

All the data mentioned in the previous part was gathered at the beginning of the school year in 2012. The researcher first asked the head teachers for permission and then individual English teachers from four secondary schools in the centre of Częstochowa. Because of the amount of time needed for completion of the TIE 1.0 test on EI (approximately 25 min), the researcher asked the teachers to complete the tests at home and bring them back the following day. Subsequently, the students of the selected teachers were asked to complete the questionnaire during one of their English lessons, which took about 10 min of their lesson. After gathering all the information, arithmetical means of the results of the questionnaires were counted and computed and STATISTICA 10 programme was utilized in order to calculate the teachers' level of EI. The final point in the research was the interview with the selected four teachers who presented a variety in terms of their level of emotional intelligence.

6 Results and Discussion

The researcher's primary aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between the level of emotional intelligence of teachers of English and the way they are perceived by their students. Additionally, the selected teachers' attitude towards their learners was analyzed. In order to examine the above mentioned correlation, three main questions were investigated. The first two questions referred to the teachers' level of emotional intelligence and its possible impact on the way they perceive their students.

In order to assess the teachers' level of emotional intelligence, the TIE 1.0 test was applied. Four subscales were taken into account: perception, understanding, assimilation and management. The results are presented in Table 1.

The figures presented in Table 1 indicate the teachers' level of emotional intelligence. Four subscales of EI were investigated and as the results show, the highest mean outcome was obtained in the ability to perceive emotions (M = 8.44). The management of emotions appeared to score the lowest mean (M = 6.91) of the four components of EI, which means that managing emotions is a matter which needs to be thoroughly examined and developed.

Table 1 The teacher's level of emotional intelligence

	N	M	Minimum	Maximum	SD
Perception	20	8.44	4.88	10.62	1.67
Understanding	20	7.80	4.43	9.85	1.66
Assimilation	20	7.28	4.94	9.94	1.35
Management	20	6.91	5.52	8.42	0.85
Total	20	30.45	21.43	36.98	4.75

Examining the students' perception of their teacher was the next step in the research. It was conducted by means of a questionnaire created by the researcher (see Appendix 2) and it enabled the researcher to determine a correlation between the utilized instruments. Also, the students' completion of the questionnaires aimed to detect the students' relationships with their teachers in terms of emotional intelligence.

Table 2 presents the correlation (r) between the two variables: the quality of the teacher-student relationship and the teachers' global level of emotional intelligence examined in four areas: perception, understanding, assimilation, and management, where X is the value of a teacher-student relationship, Y is the teachers' global level of emotional intelligence examined. The data was obtained via the TIE 1.0 test on EI and the applied questionnaire designed by the researcher. A significant correlation in terms of perception, understanding, assimilation and the general score of EI is visible and it takes the value $p < 0.05$. The management scale does not correlate, however, the overall results indicate a correlation between the teacher's EI and their relationships with the students.

The results of the study provided the answers to the subsequent research questions (RQ1 and RQ2) and indicate that there is a correlation between the teachers' level of emotional intelligence and the way they are perceived by their students. The higher the teachers' level of EI, the better they are perceived by their students. The teachers demonstrating a higher level of EI are more positively assessed and perceived by their students. Also, such teachers show greater empathy towards learners, taking into account their affective side as well as listening carefully and respecting them. What learners value and appreciate in an emotionally intelligent teacher is motivation and enthusiasm and the fact that the teacher is able to devote some part of the lesson to a free discussion if the situation requires it. Analogically, the teachers of lower level of emotional intelligence are not so positively assessed by their students and seem to lack emotional competence treating their students not in a holistic way but rather as subjects to teach.

The researcher's final research question (RQ3) was answered by means of interviews conducted with the selected teachers. There were eleven questions created for that purpose. The interviews were recorded and then analysed (see

Table 2 The relationship between the instruments

Summary	The value of the correlation	
	r (X, Y) Pearson	*p*
Perception	0.50*	0.02
Understanding	0.45*	0.04
Assimilation	0.53*	0.02
Management	0.35	0.12
Total	0.55*	0.01

Note X—the value of a teacher-student relationship, Y—the teachers' global level of emotional intelligence examined, *p* (*p*-value)

*a significant correlation which takes the value of $p < 0.05$

Appendix 3). Four teachers were selected (2 with a high level of EI and 2 with a low level of EI) and interviewed by the researcher. The gathered information was analyzed and slight differences in the examined teachers' treatment towards learners were visible. Teachers No. 1 and 2 are the people who value self-development and they are eager to increase their qualification in teaching. They also demonstrate a friendly approach towards a learner and a desire to motivate him/her. An obligatory aspect which must be present is mutual cooperation between a teacher and a student, so as to enhance a student's performance. Emotions and moods are taken into account during an English lesson. These teachers would like to enhance and develop their emotional competence, as they realize the importance of emotions in a young person's life. The teachers with a low level of emotional intelligence (teachers No. 3 and 4) belong to a group of strict and demanding people that try not to display emotions at work keeping a distance to their students. The learner, obviously, is not a friend but somebody who must learn and pass the tests. These are the teachers who will not necessarily acquire better qualification for the sake of improving the effectiveness of teaching, particularly taking into account the emotional aspects. Teacher No. 3 is not eager to increase her level of emotional intelligence and teacher No. 4 believes that her level of emotional intelligence is at an appropriate level.

7 Conclusions

The results of the above presented study indicate that affective competencies demonstrated by teachers of English are of great importance. Their attitude towards their learners may in many cases be a great factor in academic achievement. Those teachers who presented a higher level of EI were much better assessed by their students. Also, the two selected teachers with a high level of EI treat their students differently from the teachers with a low level of EI. Therefore, teachers must realize how important their emotional intelligence is and then they will be able to perceive and recognize students' emotional needs during the English lesson. In order to be successful a teacher ought to know not only what learners know but also how they feel and whether there are aspects by means of which the learning process can be enhanced. When teachers create a friendly atmosphere based on positive emotional climate in which they recognize students' feelings and treat them with respect, the teacher-student relationship is much greater which in turn reflects the students' progress in learning the language. Additionally, in such learning conditions students do not experience anxiety and stress, hence they participate more often and take risks while speaking in a foreign language. Not only are students satisfied with a teacher who creates a friendly and approachable environment but also such teachers may gain more satisfaction from their profession.

8 Implications

Higher academic outcomes and overall development are within the reach of each educational institution. Nevertheless, in order to achieve this, teachers must not focus only on mastering reading, writing, science, mathematics, history, etc. but also on "broader educational agenda that also involves enhancing students' social-emotional competence, character, health, and civic engagement" (Greenberg et al., 2003, p. 466). The contemporary school must undergo transformation so as not to resemble the school from the past any more. The requirements are a great deal higher and very often the resources are inadequate. Nowadays the school is the place of a multicultural and multilingual community of wide-ranging abilities and motivations for studying. Young people experience mental health problems, high-risk behaviors, violence, substance abuse, etc. These concerns contributed to the introduction of a new term—social and emotional learning (SEL) during the Fetzer Institute in 1994 (Greenberg et al., 2003). Denise Scala (a guidance counselor at the Stillman Elementary School in Plainfield, US) in the introduction to Elias's (2006) article affirms that "SEL by itself cannot move schools forward. However, balanced with an exciting and relevant curriculum, it can help to push students to the next level. All students have the potential to succeed … the emotionally healthy will" (p. 3). Keeping that in mind, educational institutions should fulfill the needs of every student. The journey, however, should begin from teachers' emotional balance, appropriate management of their emotions and only then should they proceed to incorporate aspects of emotional intelligence in the process of teaching so as to make the journey fruitful and based on supporting students' abilities and potentials.

Appendix 1

Last night Agata was assaulted on the street. Luckily she managed to escape an aggressive assailant. The following day, while meeting her friends, she behaves in an easy-going way, she even smiles. Do you think that:

(a) the assault did not make any difference to her
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5
(b) she tries to deal with damming the emotions up
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5
(c) she has already overcome the stress
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5

In the second part the participants ought to apply their ability to use and regulate emotions, e.g.:
Again Iza's latest job application has been rejected. She is tired with these fruitless attempts to find a job. How should she spend the afternoon so as to get back a good mood?

(a) to go for a drink with her friends
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5
(b) once again concentrate and work on improving her CV and letters of application
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5
(c) watch TV
1 …… 2 …… 3 …… 4 …… 5

Appendix 2

Questionnaire
Age……..…..
Sex……

Characteristics of the teacher-student relationship

Respond to the following statements using the scale from 1 to 5 where: 1—'strongly disagree' and 5—'strongly agree'.

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I have got a good contact with my teacher					
2.	I would like to have a better relationship with my teacher					
3.	The teacher devotes his/her attention equally to all of the students					
4.	The teacher is of assistance inside and outside the classroom					
5.	The teacher encourages and motivates students to learn a foreign language					
6.	The teacher eagerly listens about the students' problems					
7.	The teacher has a friendly and warm approach to the students					
8.	The teacher talks to the students in an appropriate way					
9.	The teacher treats the students with respect					
10.	The teacher takes an interest in the students					
11.	The teacher lets the students freely express their thoughts and feelings					
12.	The teacher takes initiative in showing appropriate interest in a student's private life					
13.	The teacher takes into account the students' opinions					
14.	The teacher tries to assist the students who need help					

(continued)

(continued)

		1	2	3	4	5
15.	The teacher displays empathy towards the students					
16.	The teacher is receptive to constructive criticism in a skillful way					
17.	The teacher treats fairly all the students					
18.	The teacher permits 'a free discussion' to take place during the classes					

Thank you for completing the questionnaire!

Appendix 3

Interview conducted with the selected teachers

No.	Questions asked during the interview
1.	How old are you? How long have you been working as a teacher?
2.	How good are you as a teacher? From 1 to 6 assess yourself selecting the correct number (1—a very bad teacher; 6—a very good teacher)
3.	Using 5 adjectives describe what kind of teacher you are
4.	Who is 'a student' to you?
5.	How would you describe your attitude towards the students?
6.	How are you perceived by the students? Give a few expressions that come to your mind
7.	What would you like to change in your attitude/approach towards the student?
8.	Where is your success teaching? How do you teach to 'really teach?'
9.	Do you pay attention to emotional side of your students?
10.	Do you know what emotional intelligence is?
11.	Would you like to increase your level of EI? Why yes/no?

Interviews with the selected teachers (answers by interview questions)

High level of emotional intelligence

	Teacher No. 1	Teacher No. 2
Q1	Male, 39, 14 years of experience	Female, 35, 12 years of experience
Q2	5—there is always something that needs improvement, e.g. taking advantage of the latest technology in teaching (something I am working on at the moment)	Between 4 and 5
Q3	I hope that I am creative, inspiring, motivating, fair, and eager to introduce innovations	I am a student-friendly person but demanding at the same time. I try to treat all my students fair and make the process of teaching English enjoyable
Q4	What comes to my mind is the world of sport in which my role is to help a student in his or her development, to find motivation and willingness to learn. Also, I need to show the right, effective and quicker way to succeed without offering just one possible solution. The teacher is a bit like a coach and a student is like plasticine which is used to create something nice together—but only together, otherwise the result is not as desired	The learner is somebody who needs respect. It is obvious that we must expect a lot but on the condition that he or she is constantly guided and prepared
Q5	I try to find a balance between being a teacher and being a friend (however, I personally prefer the term "a coach"), which may differ from student to student	I provide the students with more help if it is needed. I do understand when I am expected to do that. I motivate to take action and reward their effort
Q6	That's not actually a question to me. I hope, that my assistance is useful; maybe I have inspired a few students. I don't think that they are particularly afraid of me; on the other hand they are aware that my policy of giving them 'pluses' and minuses' means that there is always the slightest reaction to their engagement and lack of it	Friendly, with a positive attitude, creative—it's hard to assume their points of view

(continued)

(continued)

	Teacher No. 1	Teacher No. 2
Q7	I am thinking about taking more advantage of new technology. I've just come back from the course devoted to it and I can see that we are a bit behind, compared to England for example	I'd like to devote much more time for practical side of the language. There is not much time for that as the main thing is to prepare them well for the exams. But students must know how to use the English language in a communicative way and not only doing automatically grammar exercises
Q8	I believe in the rule 'step by step'. What also matters is variety in achieving a goal. The most important aspect, however, is the student's inner motivation	It is commonly known that good preparation, interesting lessons and the ability to motivate students are predominantly a key to successful teaching. But while teaching I believe in partnership; I expect but not only from them but from myself as well
Q9	Yes, however, it's not so easy when you work with a large group. Anyhow, some dose of plasticity to set rules is very useful	It often happens that a student is not present, daydreams and worries about something. If I see that he is not ready to cooperate for the time being, I do not push but observe and try to bring him back to reality by engaging him in something interesting
Q10	I've read two Daniel Goleman's books on this subject, if I remember correctly. I believe that in the future emotional side of teaching and learning will be taken into consideration	Not precisely, although the term rings a bell. That's probably something connected with wisdom and knowledge what, how, and when to feel appropriately
Q11	Yes, I would. I think you can shape it through the whole life. Of course, there are certain psychological conditions in the case of each person but a training, even the basic one, would come in handy	Of course. A training how to control and manage your negative emotions is always and everywhere welcomed

Low level of emotional intelligence

	Teacher No. 3	Teacher No. 4
Q1	Female, 38, 14 years of experience	Female, 41, 17 years of experience
Q2	5	5
Q3	I am rather strict and prefer to stick to the set rules	Demanding, direct, fair, consistent, businesslike
Q4	The learner is a person who, taking advantage of my knowledge and abilities, undergoes training	He or she is a customer who has to be served while I am doing my job
Q5	Businesslike (definitely) and, as I said earlier, sticking to my rules	I am distant. I do not open up in front of them. I am just at work which I need to do
Q6	They say (that's what I think) that I am a teacher who keeps distance. I am not fond of becoming too friendly with my students for the reason that they can take advantage of it what may interrupt the process of teaching	I am said to be a demanding, distanced and businesslike person
Q7	I don't know. I've put so much work in order to achieve what I have achieved that now I base my teaching on that	Nothing. In my opinion, I do my job efficiently
Q8	I expect not only from my students but from myself as well	I fully get involved. Everything is well-organised. A lesson, which lasts 45 min., is fully taken advantage of
Q9	I try but everyone must know how to close the door behind in certain moments in life. I forget about my private life and I think they do the same. There are far too many of them to ask everyone how and what they feel	Yes, I do but that's some kind of disturbance in the process of teaching. I feel overwhelmed then, disorganised by the lack of progress during the lesson. The core curriculum does not let us do anything additionally and you have to strictly stick to the plan of the lesson

(continued)

(continued)

	Teacher No. 3	Teacher No. 4
Q10	I've only seen the cover of the book written by Daniel Goleman. I guess I know what it means	I believe I do but it may turn out that I don't
Q11	It depends what you mean. Do you mean the emotions shown at work—at school—or in my private life? In my private life, why not? But when it comes to school, as I said previously, I concentrate on teaching and put my emotions aside	No. I think that my EI is on an appropriate level

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An Investigation into Classroom-Related Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Among in-Service Teachers of English

Małgorzata Marzec-Stawiarska

Abstract This article aims to combine and discuss a rarely investigated issue: foreign language speaking apprehension experienced by non-native teachers of English. In detail, 75 in-service teachers, who were also MA students in a university English department, were asked to fill in a scale measuring the foreign language speaking anxiety they experienced during classes while completing their MA programme. The study showed that the majority of participants experienced a medium level of anxiety, with the vision of making errors and speaking publicly as the most intensive stressors. Furthermore, the study showed a negative correlation between perceived competence in FL speaking, actual speaking competence, self-efficacy and speaking-in-class apprehension, and a positive correlation between speaking anxiety and age, general speaking anxiety, perceived difficulty of speaking, and amount of teaching experience. Moreover, female participants in the study were found to experience greater stress while speaking than males. All the results reached the level of significance.

Keywords Speaking apprehension · Speaking anxiety · Skill specific anxiety · NNS teachers · FL teachers

1 Introduction

Speaking was reported by foreign language learners to be the most stressful language skill (see, Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Kitano, 2001). Although research on language anxiety has intensified, studies on speaking apprehension understood as a separate skill-specific construct have been scarce. Moreover, language anxiety and speaking anxiety have been analysed most often among learners of foreign languages. The issue of whether non-native (NNS) teachers of foreign languages suffer from

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language anxiety seems to have been overlooked, although, as Horwitz (1996) reports, this problem may be very common among NNS teachers of English and many studies (e.g. Amin, 2001; Morita, 2004) investigating non-native speakers as teachers of foreign languages report teachers' frustration, self-doubt and self-confidence problems connected with the need to acquire native-like competence. The aim of this article is therefore to investigate the issue of speaking apprehension experienced by in-service teachers of English who assumed the role of students again and participated in MA programme classes.

2 Language Anxiety

Language anxiety may be defined as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284). Research into anxiety experienced while learning foreign languages started in the 1980s and a groundbreaking point seems to be the publication entitled "Foreign language classroom anxiety" by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986). This innovative study defined foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), identified the sources of it and constructed a scale for measuring it called the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). Horwitz et al. (1986) suggested that language anxiety may be connected with three types of performance anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation and test apprehension.

Alpert and Haber (1960) stressed that anxiety may have a dual nature: facilitative and debilitative. The former may have a motivating function and its results can be observed in better academic achievements. The latter has a negative impact on foreign language performance as students may feel reluctant to speak, forget words or have problems with concentration. In extreme cases they may skip classes or avoid courses in which speaking or writing in a foreign language is required (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Students suffering from a certain level of debilitative language anxiety may experience two kinds of symptoms: psycholinguistic and physiological. Psycholinguistic reactions to fear may manifest themselves as a distortion of sounds, intonation changes, pronunciation errors, and forgetting or mixing words (see for instance Haskin, Smith, & Racine, 2003). Physiological effects of stress include blushing, becoming pale, headaches, shaking, perspiration, a dry mouth, muscle tension and an increase in heart rate (Andrade & Williams, 2009; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000; von Wörde, 2003).

Proficiency seems to play a significant part in the degree of apprehension experienced by students of foreign languages, and though it might be assumed that the more proficient students become, the less apprehensive they seem to be, studies on the correlation between language anxiety and students' linguistic knowledge did not bring unanimous results. It was observed by Gardner, Smythe, and Clement (1979), Baker and MacIntyre (2000) and Tanaka and Ellis (2003) that the increase in

proficiency in a foreign language acquired by students learning abroad correlated positively with a rise in their confidence which subsequently decreased their language apprehension. Similarly, Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) conducted a longitudinal study among Polish grammar school students. Her observation revealed that during their three years of linguistic education a steady decline in language apprehension was observed. A parallel pattern was discovered also by Yamashiro and McLaughlin (2001), and Kondo and Yang (2003).

In contrast, there is some research that shows an opposite tendency; language anxiety can occur at an advanced level of linguistic knowledge. Kitano (2001) observed that Japanese students experienced a high level of apprehension and this increased as they furthered their language studies. Moreover, this fear was intensified by the vision of going abroad and needing to communicate with native speakers. Ewald (2007) found that advanced students of Spanish also displayed language apprehension in a classroom-related context. The most extensive study on this matter was conducted by Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) who measured language anxiety experienced by beginner, intermediate and advanced students of Spanish using the FCLAS scale. Out of these three groups, advanced learners obtained the highest scores on the scale. Yet the authors suggested that this did not seem to affect their grades as they did not receive lower final grades than beginners. Consequently, the authors concluded that this anxiety might not have been of a debilitative type.

3 Speaking Anxiety

Very few studies have been conducted concerning exclusively speaking anxiety[1] as a skill-specific anxiety type. Woodrow (2006) analysed the second language speaking apprehension of students living in Australia. She investigated this from two perspectives: an in-class and outside-class construct. This dual conceptualisation of speaking anxiety proved to be right as there were students who experienced the two types of speaking apprehension to a different extent. The author identified oral presentations and performing in front of classmates as the most stressful factors in classroom interaction, and the most stressful element in out-of-classroom communication was talking to native speakers.

Another study on this issue is Mak's (2011) project which analysed the speaking-in-class apprehension of Chinese advanced students learning English as a foreign language. Mak's aim was to identify factors that added to speaking apprehension with reference to the FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). The factor analysis conducted for the purpose of this study indicated five major

[1] Speaking anxiety, similarly to reading anxiety or listening apprehension, is a skill-specific anxiety type and it has been investigated by researchers as a different and separate construct from language anxiety, which is of more general character.

stressors, namely "speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation; uncomfortableness when speaking with native speakers; negative attitudes towards the English class; negative self-evaluation; and fear of failing the class/consequences of personal failure" (Mak, 2011, p. 207). Furthermore, some additional causes, besides those included in the FLCAS, were identified. The participants reported that the exercising of a no L1 policy during lessons, insufficient time to think over what one wants to say, correcting students while they were speaking, and the necessity to speak spontaneously in front of the class significantly increased their fear of speaking during classes.

Gkonou (2014) investigated the relationship between language anxiety and speaking anxiety among Greek adult students of English (from B2 to C2 level). She observed that the higher a student's speaking anxiety and fear of negative social evaluation (these two constituted one factor together), the higher a student's language anxiety. A quantitative data analysis revealed that fear of social evaluation had two sources: peers and the teacher. Students were ashamed of their errors being witnessed by other group members and were scared of "not meeting teachers' expectations, of poor communication skills in the L2, and of error correction" (Gkonou, 2014, p. 29).

Finally it should be added that no widely acknowledged scale for measuring speaking anxiety has been constructed. It may be agreed that to a great extent the FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) measures speaking apprehension; however, it was not designed to measure this anxiety type as a separate construct. Both Mak and Gkonou applied items from the FLCAS to assess speaking anxiety but the fact that they used a different set of items from the same scale (Mak used 15 items, Gkonou 12) shows a void in the research on this skill-specific anxiety type.

4 Language Anxiety and Its Influence on Speaking

A number of studies have been undertaken which did not analyse speaking anxiety as a separate construct but which are connected with this issue since they measure the influence of general language anxiety on students' oral performances. Firstly, a negative impact of language apprehension on student's achievements during oral examinations was observed (e.g., Cheng et al., 1999; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Phillips, 1992; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Young, 1986); the more stressed students became, the worse grades they obtained for their oral tests. The symptoms of this debilitative form of apprehension were as follows: problems with correctness, the use of simple grammatical structures, longer responses (a lot of words, no content) (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011), shorter than planned responses (Phillips, 1992), a greater number of errors (Gregersen, 2003) and problems with self-correction (Gregersen, 2003; Sheen, 2008).

Self-efficacy and self-evaluation were discovered to play a significant role in the context of FLCA. Millis, Pajares, and Herron (2006) found a negative correlation between language anxiety and belief in one's capacities and chances of becoming a successful language learner. Furthermore, it was observed that students who rated

their speaking skills as low tended to suffer from a higher level of apprehension (Cheng et al., 1999; Gkonou, 2014; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004) that could lead to unwillingness to communicate (Liu & Jackson, 2008). Horwitz et al. (1986) and Gregersen (2003) found that high language anxiety resulted in students' use of withdrawal or avoidance strategies, for example skipping classes, sitting in the back row, and avoiding eye contact with a teacher in order to avoid being asked to speak.

Intensity of language anxiety also depends on the interlocutor. A level of familiarity seems to matter as less apprehension was observed to occur when talking to friends than to strangers (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008). The interlocutor's expertise in language also plays a significant part as talking to native speakers was discovered to be one of the greatest stressors (e.g. Kitano, 2001; Woodrow, 2006), as does the level of the interlocutor's anxiety—Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) observed that a speaker may adopt some degree of anxiety from the other, more stressed, partner in a conversation.

5 Teachers and Language Anxiety

In 1996 Horwitz published an article entitled "Even Teachers Get the Blues: Recognising and Alleviating Teachers' Feelings of Foreign Language Anxiety" in which she stressed that numerous non-native language teachers suffered from language anxiety. The author also claimed that while taking care of students' language apprehension, teachers might not even be aware that they, too, may experience language anxiety and suffer all the symptoms observed among their students. Teachers' anxiety may be caused by numerous factors: teachers' educational history in which overconcern about correctness and perfect pronunciation dominated, 'a feeling of inadequacy in the language' that a teacher experienced as a student of a foreign language, the need to speak spontaneously to students with no means of predicting the path a classroom conversation might follow, which, consequently, might easily result in mistakes and language lapses, being expected to be a proficient user of a language, and pursuing 'an idealised level of proficiency'.

The need to conduct studies on teachers' language anxiety is significant as its consequences can seriously affect language instruction. Horwitz (1996) suggested that teachers may shy away from using a foreign language in the classroom, engage mainly in predictable and easily controlled interactions, avoid "more innovative and more language-intensive teaching practices" (p. 368) and finally, unconsciously send a negative message to students about speaking in a foreign language.

As can be observed, very few empirical studies have so far addressed the problem of experiencing speaking apprehension as a separate construct. Moreover, it seems there is a crucial need to focus language anxiety studies on teachers and not just students since the consequences of teachers' language anxiety can seriously impair the teaching process. Therefore, this study aimed to analyse the in-class

speaking apprehension of in-service teachers who were also students on an MA programme in the English department. More specifically, it seemed vital to find out what level of speaking apprehension was experienced by this particular group, which stressors were mainly responsible for this anxiety type, and which factors correlated with speaking apprehension experienced by the participants. Similarly to Piechurska-Kuciel's study (2008), the factors were divided into three groups: (1) personal: gender and age, (2) educational: perceived difficulty in speaking, perceived competence in FL speaking, general speaking anxiety, actual speaking competence, self-efficacy[2] and (3) professional: teaching experience. For this purpose the following two research questions were formulated:

1. What level of classroom-related foreign language speaking anxiety is experienced by in-service teachers during classes being part of their MA programme?
2. What factors correlate with foreign language speaking anxiety experienced by in-service teachers during classes being part of their MA programme?

6 Research Method

6.1 Participants

The study was conducted among quite a unique group, namely MA students in the English Department at the *Uniwersytet Pedagogiczny w Krakowie* (Pedagogical University of Cracow) who were also in-service teachers of English. Participants in the study were extramural students specialising in one of two fields, namely: literary studies or linguistics and the study was carried out during their last academic term. In total, 75 students participated in the study.

During their MA, the study participants had successfully passed two practical examinations in English at C1/C2 level. The threshold for passing these exams was 61 %.

As mentioned before, all participants in the study were working as teachers of English. The length of their teaching experience was highly diversified. Ten participants had been teaching for 1–2 years, 29 for 3–5 years, 28 had 6–8 years of teaching experience and 8 had been working as teachers for more than 9 years.

As far as their age is concerned, 17 participants were 20–25 years old, 27 students were 26–30 years old, 20 participants were 31–35 years old, 7 students were 36–40 years old, and 4 participants were aged 41–45.

The data was collected over two years and consequently two different year groups participated in the study.

[2] Self-efficacy was interpreted in this study as one's belief in becoming a successful foreign language speaker. Therefore, it was not qualified as a personal factor.

6.2 Instruments

For the purpose of the study a scale measuring foreign language speaking anxiety was constructed (see Appendix). It is referred to in this article as the Classroom Related Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (CRFLSAS). It contained 22 Likert scale items on the five-point Likert scale: 5—I strongly agree, 4—I agree, 3—I neither agree nor disagree, 2—I disagree, and 1—I strongly disagree. (In the Appendix, these items are presented in Part 2 of the questionnaire).

A few items (item 1, 8, 9, 14, and 20) in the CRFLSAS were adapted from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) constructed by Horwitz et al. (1986), for example question 2: 'I don't worry about making mistakes in language class' was changed to: '9. I do not worry about making mistakes while speaking' to refer it exclusively to a speaking context, and question 10 from the FLCAS: 'I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class' was changed to '8. I do not worry that the way I speak English will affect my final grade in my index book'. Other items in the scale were prepared by the author of the article. They were developed from the results of research into the causes of general foreign language anxiety and adapted into the context of foreign language speaking. For example, as language anxiety was found to arise due to a lack of satisfaction with one's skills (e.g., Dewaele et al., 2008), item 4 was formulated thus: 'I believe that at this stage of learning I should speak English better.' Furthermore, Young (1986) and Ewald (2007) observed that teachers' behaviour was a major cause of students' language anxiety. Young even proposed a separate group of stressors, which he called teacher-dependent. Consequently a number of items connected with teachers' behaviour and didactic decisions were included in the scale, e.g., item 11: 'The way my course instructor behaves during classes makes me afraid of speaking' and item 19: 'The form in which the course instructor assesses students makes me stressed while speaking'.

The scale's reliability was estimated in terms of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the outcome was .92, which can be qualified as very high. The minimum number of points obtainable from the scale was 22 and the total number of points was 110. The range of points one could obtain from the scale was divided into three equal parts in order to interpret the results from the perspective of apprehension intensity. Consequently, those whose score was within the range of 22–51 points were qualified as low apprehensives, 52–81 points indicated a medium level of anxiety, and 82–110 points, a high level of apprehension.

The CRFLSAS was the second part of the questionnaire which consisted of two sections. In the first four questions of the first section the participants marked their sex, age, teaching experience and the grade they received in their most recent oral examination. In items 5 and 6 they assessed difficulty with speaking on a scale of 1–5 (in order to measure their perceived difficulty with speaking), and graded their speaking skills from very good (5) to very poor (1) (to analyse self-assessment of their speaking skills). There were also two Likert scale items (the scale ranged from 1—'I strongly agree' to 5—'I strongly disagree') to assess the level of general speaking anxiety (item 7) and self-efficacy (item 8). The data acquired from these

eight items were later used in the study as eight independent variables to investigate the interaction between them and an in-class speaking anxiety level.

6.3 Data Analysis

The data analysis was computed with the SPSS programme. It involved both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive procedures aimed to characterise the sample, therefore mean values (arithmetic average) and standard deviation (SD) were calculated. A Spearman rank order correlation coefficient (rs) was also used to measure the relationship between personal, educational and professional factors and speaking apprehension (speaking anxiety was assessed on an ordinal scale). Additionally, for the purpose of discussing the study's results, a Spearman rank correlation was calculated to establish the relationship between age and experience in order to check whether an older teacher was also a more experienced one.

In order to predict the probability of getting a given pattern of data or, in other words, to make conclusions beyond the chosen sample, inferential procedures were employed. A student's t-test for independent samples was used to analyse differences in language anxiety between males and females.

6.4 Procedure

The students were asked to fill in the questionnaire after their classes. Participation in the research was voluntary. They were asked to provide sincere answers and assured that the questionnaire was anonymous. The questionnaire was in English, therefore the participants were assured that they could ask for clarification if any of the items were not clear. (Participants had some doubts over how to calculate their teaching experience; no questions were asked with reference to the scale items). No time limit was imposed on students, however all questionnaires were completed within 20 min.

7 Results

In order to answer the first research question, an average of results from the scale measuring in-class speaking anxiety for the whole sample was taken. This amounted to 59.03 (SD = 14.876) points and this number can be interpreted as a medium level of anxiety. The lowest score obtained by the respondents was 24 and the highest was 88 (with 22 being the minimum and 110 the maximum number of points obtainable). As three levels of anxiety were identified, namely low, medium and high, it seemed reasonable to calculate the number of students falling within

each category. The statistical analysis showed that the greater number of students, namely 50 (67 %), displayed a medium level of in-class speaking anxiety, 23 respondents (30 %) showed a low level of apprehension and 2 (3 %) students could be described as high apprehensives.

A closer look was also taken at individual items on the scale in order to identify those elements which contributed the most to speaking apprehension. The analysis revealed that there were four major stressors giving a mean score above 3.3. The first was the belief that at this particular stage of learning students should speak English better (M = 3.69, SD = 0.944). The second was the vision and fear of making errors during public performances (M = 3.36, SD = 1.123). Respondents were also stressed by the requirement to participate in class discussions which necessitate spontaneous speech (M = 3.35, SD = 1.180). The fourth major anxiety-causing factor was the possibility that they would have to stand up in class and give a presentation (M = 3.31, SD = 1.325). Two more stressors stood out from the items in the scale, namely public-speaking during classes (M = 2.96, SD = 1.299) and spontaneous participation in a class (M = 2.84, SD = 1.295), for example by answering the teacher's or other students' questions. The detailed results can be observed in Table 1.

The second research question concerned correlates of in-class speaking anxiety. Three groups of elements were analysed, specifically, factors related to the idea of becoming and being a speaker of a foreign language (an educational dimension): for example, perceived difficulty of speaking in a foreign language, actual speaking competence, and perceived speaking competence; the second group took into consideration personal factors: general speaking anxiety, age and gender; and finally, a professional factor was considered, namely teaching experience. Spearman's rank order correlation was used to calculate the relationships as at least one variable was measured with an ordinal scale.

As far as perceived difficulty of speaking English is concerned, a positive correlation between this factor and CRFLSA was found (rs = 0.628, n = 75, $p = 0.000$). The more difficult the speaking skills seemed to students, the greater the level of

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the prevailing stressors causing speaking apprehension

Speaking anxiety stressors	N	Min.	Max.	M	SD
I should speak better	75	2	5	3.69	0.944
Errors	75	1	5	3.36	1.123
Spontaneous discussion	75	1	5	3.35	1.180
Standing in front of the class	75	1	5	3.31	1.325
Speaking publicly	75	1	5	2.96	1.299
Spontaneous participation	75	1	5	2.84	1.295

in-class speaking apprehension they displayed. The obtained result was statistically significant.

The next element analysed was perceived foreign language achievement. The respondents were asked to self-assess their speaking skills by stating whether they could speak English very well, well, in a satisfactory way, in a poor or in a very poor way. A negative correlation between perceived achievement in speaking skills and CRFLSA was discovered ($rs = -0.351$, $n = 75$, $p = 0.002$). Students who stated that they spoke well experienced a lower level of speaking stress than those who reported to speak poorly. The result was statistically significant.

The research also aimed to investigate the relationship between actual speaking competence and CRFLSA. Students were asked to report their grade from an oral examination they had taken in the previous term. The analysis revealed a negative correlation between actual achievement in speaking skills and speaking apprehension ($rs = -0.333$, $n = 75$, $p = 0.004$). Students who were assessed as better speakers experienced language anxiety less intensely. The result was statistically significant.

An investigation was also made of general speaking anxiety. The participants assessed on a scale of 1–5 the level of anxiety they experienced when they spoke English in all possible situations, not only in the classroom. The analysis performed with Spearman's rank correlation gave statistically significant results. It revealed a strong, positive correlation between general speaking anxiety and CRFLSA ($rs = 0.790$, $n = 75$, $p = 0.000$). The students who experienced high general speaking anxiety tended to experience high speaking apprehension in classroom conditions.

Self-efficacy was also investigated in order to find a relationship between the participants' belief in becoming a successful speaker of a foreign language and speaking apprehension. The result of the analysis reached the level of significance and it revealed a negative correlation between these two factors ($rs = -0.351$, $n = 75$, $p = 0.002$). In other words, students whose self-efficacy was high experienced speaking anxiety less intensely.

The next investigated factor was age and its influence on experiencing speaking apprehension during classes. The analysis performed for this purpose revealed a positive correlation between age and CRFLSA ($rs = 0.511$, $n = 75$, $p = 0.000$). The older the students were, the more intensely they suffered from speaking apprehension and, vice versa; the younger a participant, the lower the level of stress observed. The result was statistically significant.

The influence of gender on experiencing in-class speaking apprehension was also taken into account while analysing independent variables. The student's t-test for independent samples analysis showed that there was a difference in the scores of female ($M = 62.2$, $SD = 12.9$) and male participants ($M = 47.4$, $SD = 16$) in CRFLSA test results. The female teachers tended to experience a higher level of CRFLSA while participating in classes. The result was statistically significant [$t(73) = 3.84$, $p = 0.000$].

Finally, the influence of teaching experience was analysed. The obtained result reached a level of significance. The study showed a positive correlation between

experience and CRFLSA. It may be concluded that the longer the teachers worked at school, the greater the level of speaking-related anxiety they claimed to experience (rs = 0.440, n = 75, p = 0.000). It was also estimated that experience correlated positively with age (rs = 0.748, n = 75, p = 0.000).

8 Discussion

The study revealed that in-service teachers with a high proficiency of English are still subject to experiencing in-class related speaking anxiety when they adopt the role of students again. Although the MA programme classes are mainly based on voluntary participation in discussions, working in groups and in pairs—student proficiency is tested with final examinations at the end of an academic year—which one would expect to be a rather anxiety-free atmosphere, still more than half of the participants (67 %) were found to experience a medium level of speaking apprehension. It is difficult to determine whether this observation is in line with studies showing that language anxiety negatively correlates with linguistic proficiency (e.g., Tanaka & Ellis, 2003; Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 2001) or with research supporting the thesis that a high level of proficiency correlates positively with high apprehension intensity (e.g., Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009). Firstly, the fact that the students still experienced a medium stress level seems to corroborate the second thesis that advanced proficiency does not eliminate stress, and here the study shows this tendency in a new context, namely that of speaking in a non-native language. However, the observation that in the group of proficient speakers there were only two respondents who experienced a high apprehension level and 23 (30 %) could be described as low apprehensives may lead to the conclusion that speaking apprehension, similarly to general language anxiety, might have decreased over the course of students' linguistic education and their development of proficiency.

The occurrence of anxiety at an advanced level of proficiency in this particular group might be also explained by the type of anxiety. As the participants did not seem to have any problems with speaking English and seemed to communicate in an effortless way, it could be argued that their apprehension was of a facilitative rather than debilitative nature. A similar situation was observed by Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009), though in the context of general language apprehension. In other words, the participants might have experienced some degree of tension, worry and discomfort while speaking English, which was undoubtedly an uncomfortable situation for them, however, it did not seem to affect their performance in a negative way.

The most stress-provoking factors in this group was the feeling that at this stage of learning students should speak better and their fear of making errors. These two factors may be strictly connected with the profession of the participants. Being an English teacher means being a language model and striving for perfection and for a native-like manner of speaking seems indispensable in this profession. Kitano (2001) observed that only the fact that students believed speaking to be the most important skill made them automatically more stressed while speaking, which can

be interpreted as a kind of self-imposed pressure or self-generated anxiety. A similar situation can be seen in this group: a belief that the way a teacher speaks shows how competent s/he is might also raise the level of speaking apprehension of the participants.

The problem of stressors identified in this study and the fact that more than half of the teachers experienced a medium level of speaking apprehension during classes may also be explained with reference to the debate over native versus non-native speakers as teachers of English. Although there are numerous advantages of non-native teachers of English (e.g., Moussu & Llurda, 2008), many teachers may have an inferiority complex when it comes to language proficiency. Medgyes (1992) reported that it is a very common belief that the ideal NNS teacher is the one who achieves near-native proficiency and Amin (2001) observed that expectations towards NS and NNS teachers discriminate the latter group: when NS teachers made mistakes while teaching, or did not know certain details about English language usage, the situation was acceptable, but when NNS teachers made the same mistakes or showed some doubts over the use of FL structures, their competence and teaching were immediately put into question. Moussu and Llurda (2008) observed this tendency among students, NS colleagues, and even among NNS teachers themselves. There is little doubt that such a situation could lead to feelings of inadequacy and self-doubt (Morita, 2004; Moussu & Llurda, 2008) and could also cause speaking anxiety. The detrimental consequences of the too high expectations teachers set for themselves was also described by Horwitz (1996): "Language teachers who pursue an idealised level of proficiency are likely to experience anxiety over their own levels of competency no matter how accomplished they are as second language speakers" (p. 367).

To continue discussion of the research results, it may be concluded that this study is partially in line with those studies which found that perceiving a task or skills as difficult generates a high level of anxiety (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008; Yan & Horwitz, 2008), but it allowed this hypothesis to be verified in a new dimension, namely in a speaking context. Participants who assessed speaking as difficult experienced speaking apprehension more intensely even though they could still be qualified as proficient users of English and had successfully passed their oral examinations.

It was also discovered that speaking apprehension and experience correlated positively. How is it possible that the more experienced professionally the teachers were, the more stressed they felt when speaking in a classroom context? It may be stated that the greater the experience, the more pressure teachers felt to speak well in order to confirm the expertise that some might expect to result from extensive teaching practice (although exposure to students' incorrect speech, the necessity to modify one's speech, and being in constant linguistic contact with less proficient interlocutors might actually lead to a decrease or regression in teachers' speaking competence). It is commonly expected for experienced teachers to speak well, and there is a common belief that impeccable speech is a kind of certificate of one's capabilities. Furthermore, teachers could treat their classes as a chance to check their speaking skills and test themselves. Nerlicki (2011) observed that students of

German philology treated a course instructor not as a partner but rather as a judge. A similar situation could occur in the context of this study which might have resulted in an increase in speaking apprehension. It might also be suggested that with many years spent at school some teachers could have stopped developing linguistically which might cause some nervousness. One of the reasons could be a burn-out syndrome that gradually leads to the loss of enthusiasm for self-development. As Kostrzewski and Miączyński (2011) reported, in 2011 in Poland almost 40 % of employed people experienced a burn-out syndrome, with teachers being in the group of the most vulnerable professions.

Age was also found to correlate positively with speaking apprehension. Since, in this sample, teaching experience correlated positively with age, i.e. the more experience the teacher had, the older s/he was, it may be assumed that some reasons for speaking apprehension presented in the paragraph above may also be partially age dependent. The probability of a burn-out syndrome and the necessity to confirm one's competence as a foreign language teacher may intensify with age and cause tension and worry while speaking.

Finally, the study revealed some gender-dependent differences in experiencing speaking apprehension. It should be stressed firstly that gender studies of language anxiety brought conflicting results and their outcomes show two dominating tendencies: (a) women are more anxious than men (Abu-Rabia, 2004; Elkhafaiti, 2005; Koul, Roy, Kaewkuekool, & Ploisawaschai, 2009; Park & French, 2013; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008) and (b) there are no gender-dependent differences in experiencing language apprehension (Bekleyen, 2009; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Although this research is connected with a skill-specific anxiety, it may be suggested that it is more in accordance with the first group of studies. Also in this context it may be stated that on some occasions the anxiety experienced by female students might have been of a rather facilitative nature, as in the studies conducted by Koul et al. (2009) and Park and French (2013) these were women who showed greater academic achievement than men although they simultaneously experienced apprehension more intensely. The reason for this phenomenon may arise from the observation made by Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) who said that girls are expected to do better at school, especially in modern languages which are treated as 'female subjects'. This expectation could have become activated when adult females assumed the role of students again and started their MA programme. As Piechurska-Kuciel states, there were numerous studies (e.g., Wright, 1999) that reported that 'girls are found to care more about the quality of their work'. This may be interpreted also as the pressure to speak well during classes which might automatically give rise to a certain level of anxiety in some females. There may also be some biological reasons beyond a greater susceptibility of females to stress and anxiety, as Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) suggests, connected with hormonal changes. For example, Lebron-Milad, Graham, and Milad (2012) discovered that the change in oestrogens levels experienced by women every month makes them more prone to stress and anxiety.

9 Conclusions

The main implication of this study is that discussion and studies of speaking language anxiety should not focus exclusively on learners but also on teachers since this group also experiences worry, tension and discomfort while speaking English as a foreign language (although in this study teachers were investigated in the role of students, and not when they were teaching English to their students). Consequently, suggestions should be made regarding how to alleviate anxiety. First, as Horwitz (1996) put it, teachers should allow themselves "to be less than perfect speakers of English" (p. 368) since they are also learners of a foreign language. Moreover, focusing on the numerous advantages of being a NNS teacher of English may also raise someone's self-confidence and help with feelings of self-doubt and tension. Secondly, it is very important to acknowledge that someone actually feels foreign language anxiety and observes its symptoms while speaking. Only then can some steps be taken to alleviate the tension, worry or stress experienced in a classroom. Furthermore, teachers should "give themselves credit for target language achievement" (Horwitz, 1996, p. 369). It would seem beneficial to take a proficiency test to measure and recognise how much someone actually knows. By that, teachers could focus on their achievements and have a sort of 'objective' confirmation of how much they have accomplished so far. Teachers should also construct a plan to improve their language proficiency. Thanks to new technologies and, for example, Web 2.0 social software applications teachers have infinite possibilities of being in touch with the living language. Finally, employing the technique of visualisation may also be helpful in this context. Imagining oneself using the language easily and without stress may help alleviate speaking anxiety during classes.

Finally, it should be added that speaking apprehension in this study was investigated only with reference to factors occurring in class, therefore items that could influence speaking anxiety but are connected rather with out-of-class communication were excluded. The study analysed the responses of students of only one university, hence investigating students from different universities might give a more generalised picture of speaking apprehension, since the practices at this particular university could have been quite unique. Furthermore, the analysis of speaking apprehension experienced by in-service teachers while they are conducting their lessons in the role of teachers seems worth investigating as it would show how and whether speaking apprehension experienced by NNS teachers affects their teaching.

It is hoped that this study has deepened the understanding of speaking apprehension and shown it from a different perspective, namely that of the teacher. Some of the observations and implications may be useful to enable teachers to understand their feelings while speaking a foreign language and, if needed, help them to deal with speaking apprehension in order to improve their well-being and job satisfaction.

Appendix: The Questionnaire Used in the Study

Part 1:

1. Sex: F/M
2. Age:….19–25,…26–30,…36–40,…41–45,…45–50
3. Grade from the last oral examination:
4. Teaching experience[3]: 1–2 years, 3–5 years, 6–8 years, 9 and more
5. On the 1–5 scale (1—very easy. 5—very difficult) assess how difficult for you speaking in English is.
6. How do you assess you speaking skills in English?
   5—very good; 4—good; 3—satisfactory; 2—poor; 1—very poor
7. I am relaxed and at ease when I speak English (in and outside the classroom).[4]

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

8. I believe I can learn speaking in English successfully.

Part 2: The Classroom Related Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale

1. I am not afraid to speak English during classes.
2. I can overcome the stress of speaking English during classes.
3. I eagerly participate in discussions in English.
4. I believe that at this stage of learning I should speak English better.
5. I am afraid of speaking during classes as I fear what others will think about me.
6. I am afraid of what my course instructor will think about me when s/he hears me speaking English.
7. I am nervous by the fact that although I have a lot to say about a given topic my English knowledge is too scarce to say what I want.
8. I do not worry that the way I speak English will affect my final grade in my index book.
9. I do not worry about the mistakes I make while speaking.
10. I get nervous when the course instructor corrects my errors while or after my speaking English.
11. The way my course instructor behaves during classes makes me afraid of speaking.
12. I feel stressed when the course instructor asks me to correct the error I have just made.
13. The way my course instructor reacts to the errors I make while speaking makes me afraid of speaking.
14. I am worried when I know I will have to say something spontaneously.

[3] Teaching in the class room only. Individual lessons do not fall within this category.

[4] Item 8 and all the items in part two had the same format.

15. I would feel less nervous if I knew the topic of a discussion and could prepare for it in advance at home.
16. I am afraid of speaking during classes because we haven't practised speaking enough.
17. The activities my course instructor uses to assess my speaking make me afraid of speaking.
18. The way the course instructor assesses my proficiency makes me afraid of speaking.
19. The form in which the course instructor assesses students makes me stressed while speaking.
20. Speaking in front of a class is not stressful for me.
21. I am not afraid of giving presentations or speaking English at the front of a classroom.
22. I am not stressed when the course instructor asks some other students to correct the error I made.

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Development of EFL Teacher Training Materials: Lessons from Co-ordinating a Multilateral Project

Joanna Nijakowska

Abstract The paper shares the experience of coordinating the EU multilateral project whose major objective involved the EFL (English as a foreign language) teacher training materials development. It tackles the nature of the process of project implementation and the challenges the beneficiary of the grant has to face in order to administer the project successfully, complying with all sorts of formal, financial and legal regulations. The paper aims to present the EU multilateral projects' life cycle and to reveal the peculiarities of the project administration. Special attention is given to the project approach and design, to strategies and tools developed to monitor timely completion of the assigned tasks, to procedures used for the execution of the work plan, and, last but not least, to the project outcomes, whose excellence heavily depends on the expertise of the involved partnership, quality of cooperation and project management. The DysTEFL—Dyslexia for teachers of English as a foreign language Lifelong Learning Programme, Comenius Multilateral Project (the *European Language Label 2014 Award* winner), whose aim was to bolster support for dyslexic foreign language learners in mainstream education through EFL teacher training, serves as an example here. The DysTEFL project, coordinated by the University of Łódź, Poland, gathered the consortium comprising seven institutions from six European countries. The major objectives achieved during the project's lifetime covered conducting a detailed analysis of the EFL teachers' professional training needs on dyslexia across European countries and designing the structure and content of the course on EFL and dyslexia for initial training and continuing professional development of EFL teachers. The DysTEFL course (the *ELTons 2014 Award for Excellence in Course Innovation* winner) is now available in the face-to-face, self-study and interactive distance learning modes.

Keywords EFL teachers · Teacher training · Materials development · Project management · *DysTEFL* · Dyslexia

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1 Introduction

Foreign language learning is perceived, rather unsurprisingly, as a dynamic complex system (Harshbarger, 2007). The editors of this collection bring the ecosystem metaphor to indicate and highlight a complex and multifaceted network of relations and interactions existing in the EFL environment, being activated between and within the participating parties and the learning environment. The EFL learning and teaching, viewed from the ecological perspective (Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Tudor, 2003), involve multitude of organisms and processes, being exposed to and influenced by the operation of the plentitude of interweaving factors and forces of different nature—psychological, cognitive, experiential, and socio-cultural, apparently shaping the type and quality of mutual relations between and within the ecosystem's elements. By far the most pivotal organisms in this ecosystem are learners and teachers and the multilayer processes taking place inside and outside them. However, the emerging picture of EFL learning and teaching is also shaped by other parties such as educational stakeholders, political authorities, policy makers, sponsors, parents, institutions of higher education, materials writers, and teacher training centers to name but a few.[1,2,3,4]

This paper redirects focus from EFL learner towards EFL teacher, EFL teacher trainer and the sociocultural influences brought about by the external factors such as teacher training schemes and teacher training materials, which directly imprint the EFL teachers' ecosystems and indirectly impact the ecosystems of their learners. Tudor (2003) accurately notices that the teacher's reality is of ecological nature and

[1] This project has been funded with support from the European Commission. *DysTEFL—Dyslexia for teachers of English as a foreign language*, www.dystefl.eu. Project-Number: 518466-LLP-1-2011-PL-COMENIUS-CMP. Grant agreement number: 2011-3631/001-001. This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.

[2] 'The *European Language Label* is awarded to local, regional, and national projects that have found creative ways to improve the quality of language teaching, motivate students, make the best use of available resources to diversify the languages on offer, and other innovative initiatives' (http://ec.europa.eu/education/language/label/label_public/index.cfm?CFID=1630919&CFTOKEN=29314108&jsessionid=13edf4a1ff7bf43462f5457754313d412876TR). *European Language Label* database contains projects that have received the European Language Label since 1999 and are considered to represent best practices in the field of language teaching and learning. The database serves as a source of inspiration to practitioners, stakeholders and policy makers in the field of language teaching and learning.

[3] *DysTEFL*project's coordinators: Joanna Nijakowska (Department of Pragmatics, University of Łódź, Poland) and Marcin Podogrocki (International Educational Projects Office, University of Łódź, Poland).

[4] 'The *ELTons*, sponsored by Cambridge English, are the only international awards that recognise and celebrate innovation in English language teaching (ELT). They reward educational resources that help English language learners and teachers to achieve their goals' (http://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/eltons). Applications are invited for the following award categories: Excellence in Course Innovation, Innovation in Learner Resources, Innovation in Teacher Resources, Digital Innovation and Local Innovation.

it "is shaped by the attitudes and expectations of students, of parents, of school administrators, of materials writers and many others including, of course, each teacher as an individual in his or her own right" (p. 6). This paper deals with the issue of responding to European EFL teachers' professional training needs with regard to teaching foreign language learners with learning differences, dyslexia in particular, by running an international educational project—*DysTEFL*, co-financed by the EU, whose aim was to design and produce the tailor-made EFL teacher training course on EFL and dyslexia.

The paper acquaints the reader with the logistical intricacies, responsibilities and management procedures involved in coordinating the work of a consortium of seven partner institutions from six European countries—a massive undertaking. It attempts to demonstrate how high quality international cooperation and joint venture of experts from several European research, educational and teacher training centers can result in, first, producing a successful application and getting the grant, and then coordinating the award winning project and producing the award winning teacher training materials, to eventually receive international recognition and approval from EFL teachers and experts. This cannot possibly leave the EFL learners' ecosystems unaffected.

There emerges yet another dimension of the issue discussed here, namely preparing successful applications, winning research and educational, EU and ministerial, grants as well as participating in or running/coordinating various types of projects, where international cooperation is highly valued and promoted, has become an expected, if not required, activity in the academia. This has naturally led to incubation of new procedures, attitudes and good practices among academic community members, who have to face new challenges posed on them by both highly competitive grant application procedures and detailed formal, financial and legal requirements that grant beneficiaries are obliged to meet. There is no denying that this new (at least in some European countries) reality impacts any large scale educational initiative in the teacher training sector as well.

2 Major Objectives and Results of *DysTEFL* Project

The project this paper reports on is *DysTEFL—Dyslexia for teachers of English as a foreign language*—the Lifelong Learning Programme, Comenius Multilateral Project, *ELTons 2014 Award for Excellence in Course Innovation* and *European Language Label* (*ELL*) *2014 Award* winner, whose aim was to boost and promote support for dyslexic foreign language learners in mainstream education through EFL teacher training. The *DysTEFL* project gathered the consortium of seven institutions from six European countries. *DysTEFL*'s objective assumed working collaboratively across the partnership in order to engender high quality educational practice to be spread and shared by the European EFL teacher training schemes. The partnership encouraged European cooperation and exchange of expertise and good practice with reference to EFL teacher training systems functioning in the

project partners' countries. The project's target audience included the European pre- and in-service EFL teachers and institutions of higher education; local, regional, national and international institutions and associations preoccupied with the professional EFL teacher training, and other educational stakeholders and authorities from project partner countries and beyond.

3 Professional Training Needs Analysis of EFL Pre- and in-Service Teachers

One of the project's major objectives concerned analyzing European EFL teachers' professional training needs on catering for the special educational needs of foreign language learners with dyslexia. These learners are capable of successfully acquiring at least satisfactory competence in a foreign language, provided they receive accurate support from their EFL teachers. However, the prerequisite of successful foreign language provision for dyslexic students is teachers' understanding of the nature of dyslexia and the difficulties it causes in foreign language learning. Teachers' familiarity with the relevant teaching techniques triggering the language learning in students with dyslexia and with the ways of accommodating them in mainstream classrooms to a large extent conditions dyslexic learners' educational achievements and is in line with the principles of inclusive education.

The philosophy and the practices of inclusive education reinforce the idea of equal rights and treatment offered by educational systems to all students, including those with specific learning differences such as dyslexia (EFA FTI, 2010; European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, 2009, 2012; Hanks, 2011; Herbert, 2011; Kearney, 2011; Keay & Lloyd, 2011; Leicester, 2008; Porter & Richler, 2011; Rose & Shevlin, 2010; Terzi, 2010; Travers & Day, 2012; UNECSO, 2005). Accommodating such students in regular EFL classroom usually requires introducing various types of adjustments and diversifying the teaching/learning process so that it is tailored to the special needs of individual students (Kormos & Kontra, 2008; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Nijakowska, 2010, 2012, 2013; Schneider & Crombie, 2003). EFL teachers are obliged by the ministerial regulations to respond to educational needs of dyslexic learners (e.g. in Poland: Regulation of the Ministry of Education, 2010), however, both pre-service and in-service teachers report that they receive insufficient training on EFL and dyslexia (Nijakowska, 2014).

According to Tudor (2003), "understanding what takes place in classrooms (…) involves exploring what different participants—students and teachers in the first instance, but many others, too—bring with them to the classroom and how this influences what they do within it" (p. 6). Thus to avoid ill-formed judgments with regard to EFL teachers' professional training needs on dyslexia, the project activities in the needs analysis stage were twofold. They involved desk research analysis of information on the current approaches in EFL teacher education in Europe with

regard to training teachers to be able to deal with dyslexic learners, available courses offered by teacher training institutions, and legal educational regulations concerning dyslexia. Then, an online questionnaire was distributed to collect data on the EFL pre- and in-service teachers' perceptions with regard to their knowledge and experience of dyslexia, and, also their professional training needs and preferences (including course format and content) concerning EFL and dyslexia (Nijakowska, 2014).

Almost 400 responses had been collected through the online survey. In order to reach the immediate target group of the project, namely the EFL teacher trainees, practising teachers, mentor teachers supervising teacher trainees and teacher trainers, the project partners capitalized on the chain of already existing connections among higher education institutions preoccupied with EFL teacher training and used their existing networks of professional contacts. The project partners also contacted schools, teacher training institutions, and teacher organisations (e.g. IATEFL), they organized a number of seminars, workshops, meetings and conferences, and, extensively popularized the project and its activities (institutional websites, *DysTEFL* project website, newsletters, posters, flyers, posts, announcements etc.).

The findings of the desk research confirmed that the issues of EFL and dyslexia were virtually absent from the EFL teacher training schemes and curricula across Europe, while at the same time legal regulations required teachers to accurately accommodate dyslexic students in their classrooms. Majority of survey participants stressed that the pre- and in-service teacher training they had undergone did not equip them to a sufficient extent with the necessary knowledge about the nature of dyslexia, difficulties that dyslexic learners encounter in foreign language study and suitable teaching approaches and techniques. Respondents identified the areas of weakness and indicated low perceived levels of confidence, knowledge and experience concerning identifying, teaching and assessing dyslexic individuals. Teachers also clearly expressed the need and interest in undertaking further professional training on teaching English to dyslexic students (Nijakowska, 2014).

Listening to voices from teachers from different European countries constituted a crucial step and provided insights into local realities, unique teaching and learning situations, and contexts meaningful to survey participants. This, in turn, helped the researchers and course materials writers, who also represented diverse educational contexts, to better understand teachers' professional development needs and to accurately address them in the mode of delivery and content of the *DysTEFL* course.

3.1 DysTEFL Course for EFL Pre- and in-Service Teachers on EFL and Dyslexia

The findings of the needs analysis confirmed the need for professional training on EFL and dyslexia that could be implemented into already existing schemes of initial and in-service EFL teacher professional training offered by initial and continuous training institutions.

In response to the professional training needs articulated by the teachers, the tailor-made *DysTEFL* training materials were designed. The structure and content of the course on EFL and dyslexia for novice and in-service EFL teachers were developed, which constituted another major objective of the project. The materials were then extensively piloted (testing stage of the project). Feedback from teachers and experts was carefully analyzed and necessary changes, adjustments and improvements were introduced to enhance the quality and comprehensibility of the final drafts of the *DysTEFL* teacher training materials. The *DysTEFL* course is freely available for interested parties in three modes: face-to-face (Trainee's and Trainer's Booklets with accompanying CD; downloads and printable files), self-study (Internet-based learning modules with sample answers, available at the project website www.dystefl.eu) and distance interactive learning (available at partner institutions' Moodle platforms).

Research findings indicate clear links between teacher knowledge, teacher practice and student learning and achievement. Research studies also confirm that on-going professional development which precisely addresses the areas of weakness and creates chances for practice and feedback is likely to bring about improvement in teachers' classroom practices (McCutchen & Berninger, 1999; McCutchen et al., 2002; McCutchen, Green, Abbott, & Sanders, 2009). The *DysTEFL* course aims to close the gap in EFL teachers' knowledge on dyslexia and was designed so that it is adjustable enough to be congruous with and relevant for different educational contexts. The course and materials fit into both pre- and in-service training programs and are suitable for teachers working with students of different ages. The course bases on sound research findings and offers a solid theoretical background.

The course uses a task-based approach to teacher training and promotes the model of the teacher as a reflective practitioner (Wallace, 1991). All course units follow the pattern of a reflective circle. The emphasis is put on practical, hands-on tasks, which first require drawing on existing know-how and identifying attitudes and preconceptions, then digesting new input, experimenting with, designing and adapting methods and techniques to particular contexts, collaborating with other course participants, exchanging experiences and, finally, analyzing the outcomes and reflecting on the learning process. The *DysTEFL* course comprises 10 units of identical structure, composed of several tasks and steps, some of which are obligatory, while others are optional. Units are scheduled to cover a 90-120 min long classes and provide at least 4 h for self-study. So, depending on the needs, the course can be taught over 10 to 15 weeks, thus the course structure is flexible enough to be incorporated into the academic terms of different European higher education institutions. Units employ a wide range of activities and plentitude of diverse, motivating and inspiring materials and modes of presentation.

Prior to production the course units and materials in all modes of delivery were subject to extensive piloting by the EFL teachers and teacher trainers. Approximately 310 teachers either participated in the entire course or tried out single units and 15 teacher trainers taught either the whole course or individual units. In order to collect feedback in the testing phase a collection of online survey feedback forms (powered by Survey Monkey) or printed questionnaires were used. Comments and suggestions

from the testing phase participants were compiled into a report. Following the report conclusions, required modifications and improvements were introduced into the structure and the content of the course to further enhance its quality.

Overall, the evaluators, experts, EFL teachers and teacher trainers expressed their appreciation of high quality of the learning units of the course, recognizing it as an extraordinary and truly useful resource, capable of providing practical learning to pre- and in-service EFL teachers. The *DysTEFL* project's external evaluator expressed their opinion as follows: '(…) the resources bring together a range of materials that represent the best that are currently universally available.'

4 Approach of the *DysTEFL* Project

4.1 Life Cycle of the Project

The *DysTEFL* project life cycle comprised a sequence of stages and steps, starting with the preparation and submission of the application to the European Commission—Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA). A board of external experts assessed the application according to a number of criteria specified in the Call for Proposals (e.g. relevance, quality of the work programme, innovative character, quality of the consortium, European added value, cost-benefit ratio, impact, quality of the valorisation plan—dissemination and exploitation of results). Based on this evaluation, the Agency allocated European Union funds for the realization of the *DysTEFL* project. All projects funded by the Lifelong Learning Programme were expected to contribute to the policy priorities for which the programme was established, so was *DysTEFL*. As successful applicants project coordinators received the grant agreement which specified the grant awarded and set out the financial rules to be followed.

The project started after all parties involved had signed the agreement. The eligibility period, defined as the time during which expenses can be incurred and covered by the European Communities' grant, was set out in the grant agreement. The project team realized the work programme step by step, as had been specified in the agreement, completing a number of activities and following the milestones in accordance with the rules set out in the grant agreement. Dissemination and exploitation activities were carried out from the start, within the project lifetime and then project results were further disseminated and exploited beyond the project lifetime in order to reach wide target audience and get utilized.

The European Commission/Executive Agency regularly monitored the implementation of the project during consecutive stages of its life-cycle by assessment of the work carried out and reported by the project team. Reporting involved the preparation and submission of a progress (interim) and a final report, each of them comprising a public (for widespread dissemination) and confidential part (for the Agency use only). The progress report was submitted at the mid-point of the project life cycle, and included information on the project activities and expenditure

incurred thus far. The interim report was assessed and accepted which conditioned the payment of the grant instalment. The final report, containing details of project implementation, outcomes and expenditure incurred, was submitted to the Agency at the end of the project. As was the case with the progress report, the Agency evaluated the final report and gave it a very high rating, which secured the full final payment of the grant. The Agency may decide to carry out an audit within 5 years of the project closure date. Detailed *Guidelines for administrative and financial management and reporting* are available at the EACEA's website (http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/llp/beneficiaries/2011/reporting_lifelong_learning_2011_en.php) and they include the following: a project handbook, reporting templates, amendment requests, and contractual documents.

4.2 Partnership

The *DysTEFL* consortium comprised seven institutions from six European countries—Poland, the UK, Germany, Austria, Hungary and the Czech Republic. The partners were spread in terms of geography, language and culture; they were both public and private institutions and organizations. The balanced structure of the consortium involved three institutions of higher (tertiary) education, namely University of Łódź (Łódź, Poland)—the project coordinator, Lancaster University (Lancaster, the UK), and Masaryk University (Brno, the Czech Republic); a public research centre—RCNS HAS—Research Centre for Natural Sciences, Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Institute of Cognitive Neuroscience and Psychology (Hungarian acronym—MTA TTK) (Budapest, Hungary); a school association—TAK—The Society for Alternative Education (Opole, Poland); a non-profit organization—vocational training centre—VHS—Volkshochschule im Landkreis Cham e.V. (Cham, Germany), and a private educational organization—an independent vocational qualification institute—BEST—Institut fuer berefsbezogene Weiterbildung und Personaltr. Most of the *DysTEFL* partners had previously participated in the Lifelong Learning Programmes. Some partners had worked together before joining this consortium.

Addressing the issue of EFL teachers' professional training needs and materials development covering the area of specific learning differences and learning needs of dyslexic foreign language students required cooperation, joint effort and, most crucially, qualifications, competence, skills and recognized expertise in the field of EFL, dyslexia, curriculum design, course and materials development, and teacher training. The structure of the project consortium reflected the diversity of educational traditions and providers. The project partners brought to the project different education and training traditions, teaching attitudes, cultures and established practices, as well as perspectives on teacher training principles and priorities. The consortium was composed so that it consisted of people with diverse backgrounds and specializations, possessing relevant skills, knowledge and experience to be able to collaboratively carry out the project activities with success and to achieve high quality results—applicable and relevant both to their local context as well as to a

much broader—European context. The project's output as well as its short- and long-term impact depended on and resulted from the partners' pooled expertise and commitment to the ideas and values promoted by the project, namely inclusive education, equal rights and access to high standard schooling for all learners.

Tasks in the project work programme were distributed according to the partners' expertise and resources. All partners contributed to the management and realization of all work packages, either as their leaders or as partners. All partners also engaged and added to the project and quality management activities, whose aim was to ensure timely project progress, fine-tuned to the objectives, producing planned and expected deliverables and reaching milestones during particular stages of the project. The consortium was very much devoted to this project, they worked and communicated smoothly and efficiently, provided supportive and constructive feedback to all project activities, and equally contributing to high quality outcomes.

Drawing on diversified partners' expertise, building on rich experience and good practices of EFL teacher training systems operating in the project partners' countries, and carefully listening to the European EFL teachers' voices enabled the consortium to generate high quality results—flexible, easily transferable and adaptable across borders and educational systems. This outcome has been promoted and disseminated to a wide community of educational stakeholders in Europe and beyond and it has already gained recognition from the experts and practitioners in the field of EFL and has been recommended to be shared by the European teacher training schemes as an example of good practice.

4.3 Management and Coordination the Project

Managing and coordinating the project required implementing a coherent and consistent strategy and a framework for the effective and efficient running of the project, ensuring adherence to the grant agreement obligations. The process of administering the project was substantially aided by making use of the project management tools, based on assignment of tasks, which enabled the tracking and evaluation of the project's progress (Kennett, 2014).

An action plan, which constituted a list of accurately sequenced activities and tasks, whose accomplishment guaranteed the achievement of the objectives set up in the application, their distribution among partners as well as time frames and deadlines for their completion, was suggested by the coordinator and agreed upon by the project partners. The project coordinator established a *management plan*, which specified the project's internal procedures, channels of communication (e-mail, telephone, skype, face-to-face meetings, and virtual, online storage place for the project's documents with restricted access limited to project partners), workplan, monitoring tools and financial guidelines. The method of cooperation approved of and applied by the project consortium was that the direct responsibility for achieving objectives and delivering results of each work package (WP) on time and of fine quality was allocated to one of the partners who then acted as a given

WP leader. The coordinator, in addition to leading particular WPs, was in charge of the overall coordination, monitoring progress and performance, supporting, motivating partners, and, finally, validating the WPs' outcomes.

The consortium respected and closely followed the management plan. The planning of the project turned out to be appropriate and matched the complexity of the project.

4.3.1 Work Programme

The work programme of the project covered the period of 2 years during which the expected outcomes were developed, produced, and widely disseminated to secure their appropriate exploitation by individuals and educational institutions at the local, regional, national and international level. The project's work programme was composed of nine work packages (WPs) led by the assigned partners—WP leaders. Every work package required active involvement of all partners to secure accurate realization of all the activities planned in each WP. The obligation of the WP leaders was to compile a set of documents. They included the WP's methodology, plan and strategies for approaching and executing tasks (suggesting steps, dividing tasks, monitoring work), comprehensible guidelines for the partners for completing activities planned in a given work package, as well as a draft and a final (supported by partner feedback) version of the WP outcomes. WP leaders also took responsibility for monitoring the process of completing the activities and quality of produced outcomes, communicating with the partnership and making sure the deadlines were met. The partnership provided detailed feedback and comments to all the documents, procedures and products prepared in all work packages.

The work packages were of two types, namely, some of them were scheduled for shorter periods of time and realized in a predefined sequence. Successful completion of one WP conditioned proceeding to the next one. Some other work packages were planned for the whole project period, they required the involvement and focus of the partnership throughout the project's lifetime and their activities were scheduled for realization simultaneously to the activities completed in other WPs. The latter concerned four WPs, which dealt with project coordination and management (WP1), evaluation and quality management (WP2), dissemination (WP9), and exploitation (WP8). The former related to five WPs, which marked five major stages/phases of the project outcomes development. These WPs were realized in the following sequence: needs analysis (WP3), designing the structure of the course (WP4), designing the content of the course (WP5), testing phase—piloting the course (WP6), and producing final materials—printing the books, finalizing the self-study platform and distance learning (Moodle) materials (WP7).

Five transnational meetings took place in the project partner countries during the project lifetime. They were meant and planned to constitute the control/monitoring points of the work programme. During each of these meetings leaders of particular work packages reported on the progress, presented the results/outcomes/products of a given phase. They also collected feedback from the partnership, whose comments

and suggestions were then incorporated so that the final drafts and forms of all the documents and deliverables could be accepted by the whole partnership. During each of the project's meetings partners planned the forthcoming phases in details, including each partner's responsibilities, tasks and deadlines for their completion. The *DysTEFL* partnership managed to successfully complete all the work packages and produce required high quality results, as planned in the application.

4.3.2 Management and Monitoring Tools

The *DysTEFL* project team compiled several key documents and templates to aid, monitor and evaluate smooth, successful, and timely completion of the planned activities and observe progress against the project work plan. Among them there were the *Project management plan*, *Quality and risk management plan*, *Dissemination plan*, *Exploitation plan*, *IPR—Intellectual Property Rights Agreement*, and *Financial monitoring tools* comprising a set of financial templates for monitoring the costs incurred within 6-month periods.

In order to help systematically control the realization of the abovementioned plans as well as to record and document the activities undertaken by the partners a set of supporting documents in a form of tailor-made tables, charts and worksheets (e.g. Gantt chart, dissemination and exploitation monitoring templates, financial tables) was elaborated and regularly updated by the partnership. Filling up these templates required also documenting proofs of project activities (e.g. dissemination activities such as meetings with stakeholders, workshops, seminars and conferences required documentation in a form of photos, certificates, confirmations, lists of participants, conference materials etc.) This approach proved especially useful with regard to WPs with a complex work distribution. Also, intensive direct and daily communication among the partnership, meetings and simple monitoring tools such as to-do-lists (see Fig. 1) (compiled at the end of each meeting and routinely amended) significantly helped to verify the way the tasks were accomplished.

The budget was controlled through the internal system of financial reporting. For monitoring, guiding and supervising the realization of the work programme against the plan a Gantt chart was used. It had a crystal clear 'calendar view' of the project work plan, elucidating the sequence and duration of particular tasks. It gave a transparent, comprehensible representation of the project activities throughout the project lifetime, it was used to control progress and to see whether the milestones were achieved (Kennett, 2014, p. 44) (see Fig. 2).

4.3.3 Evaluation Strategy

The project evaluation strategy had three levels, namely internal evaluation, external evaluation and feedback from the project's target audience. The internal evaluator managed the evaluation process by regularly measuring and reporting on the partnership dynamics, internal processes, communication channels etc.

DYSTEFL - Dyslexia for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language
LIFELONG LEARNING PROGRAMME, COMENIUS MULTILATERAL PROJECT

To do list October 2013

WP	Action to be taken	Who	When	P1 ULO	P2 TAK	P3 RCNS HAS	P4 LU	P5 MU	P6 VHS	P7 BEST
WP1										
	Third financial report (01.11.2011 – 30.04.2012) - draft	All partners	10.05.2013	done	done	done	done	done	done	done
	Third financial report (01.11.2011 – 30.04.2012) - final	All partners	30.05.2013	done	done	done	done	done	done	done
	Submission of amendments request to EACEA	ULO	17.06.2013	done	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Preparing template for final technical report	ULO	31.10.2013	done	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Final report - input to technical part	All Partners	15.11.2013							
	Financial report - draft	All Partners	10.11.2013							
	Financial report - final	All Partners	30.11.2013							
	5th meeting +conference	ULO	10-11.10.2013	done	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
WP2	Post meeting evaluation	All partners	21.10.2013	done	done	done	done	done	done	done
	Post meeting evaluation - conclusion	BEST	31.10.2013	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	done

Fig. 1 A fragment of a sample *DysTEFL* project to-do-list

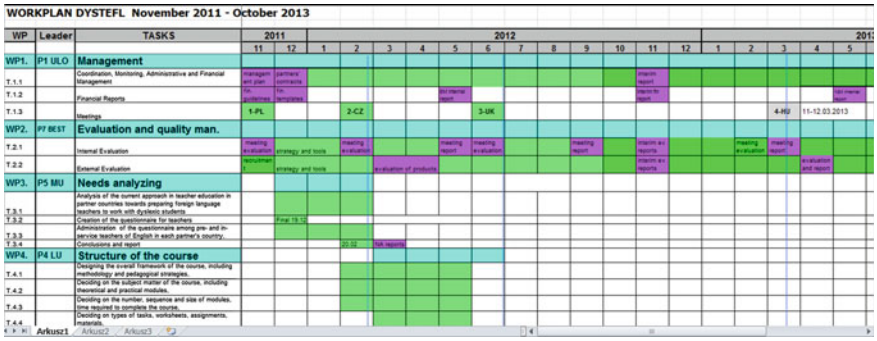

Fig. 2 A fragment of the Gantt chart—the *DysTEFL* project work plan with WPs' and individual tasks' time frames and deadlines

To assure internal quality, the *Quality and risk management plan* was developed, which involved, for example, collecting, via online questionnaires, the anonymous feedback from all participants of the project meetings on all aspects of a given meeting, from content to logistics. The questionnaire results were then communicated to the partnership by the leader of the quality assurance work package.

Reported problems were dealt with immediately to secure smooth cooperation and satisfying project outcomes. The internal evaluator was also responsible for compiling the internal evaluation interim and final reports.

Internal evaluation was supported by external evaluation conducted by experts (from outside the partnership), who monitored the realization of the project work programme, participated in some of the project meetings, and evaluated project's deliverables generating the phase, interim and final evaluation reports. The external evaluator of the *DysTEFL* project was the School of Education and Social Sciences at the University of Derby, who undertook the assessment of the products and results from an outsider perspective, which aimed at more objective evaluation of the project outputs, deprived of influences generated by the direct involvement in the project and partnership dynamics. The processes and products delivered by the partners underwent assessment against the targets set in the application form. In addition, the external evaluation involved the ad hoc feedback on the progress made, achieved milestones, and the delivered outputs within a given reference period. The external experts also performed assessment with regard to the monitoring and evaluation tools that the partnership used, and they kept providing support and feedback to the partnership on the project progress, sufficient coverage of topics/areas indicated in the application as well as consistency and quality of the produced content.

Finally, the feedback obtained from the project target group—EFL pre- and in-service teachers as well as from a broad network of educational stakeholders constituted the third level of project evaluation. Responses, comments, suggestions, criticism were collected from the target audience involved in the project dissemination and exploitation activities such as workshops, seminars, formal and informal meetings, the final project conference as well as in the testing phase, during which EFL novice and experienced teachers tested extensively the course materials in all three modes—face-to-face, self-study and distance learning.

4.3.4 Dissemination and Exploitation Strategy

Dissemination of the project activities and results meant spreading the news and raising awareness of the stakeholders. Exploitation primarily involved the mainstreaming (transferring the project products to the appropriate educational authorities in the local, regional, national systems) and multiplication activities (convincing individual end-users to adopt the project results).

The *DysTEFL* project dissemination and exploitation strategies based on the *Dissemination plan* and *Exploitation plan* which identified the ways and techniques for raising awareness and interest of the stakeholders, in particular educational authorities and policy makers, and incorporating the project outcomes into the mainstream education. Both plans involved individual national plans, these plans, in turn, detailed the most appropriate means and channels of dissemination and exploitation for each project partner. The national plans worked with reference to the local, regional, national and European level. During diverse dissemination and

exploitation activities the partnership managed to establish several thousands direct and indirect contacts, including teachers, schools, educational authorities and policy makers, universities, research centers, teacher organizations, associations, teacher training centers and pedagogical-psychological centers which expressed their interest and readiness to use and further disseminate the *DysTEFL* materials. Apparently, this could substantially contribute to enhancing mainstreaming and sustainability of the project results.

The project results were also popularized by networking with the stakeholders via regular and electronic mail, personal communication, announcements on the project's website and Facebook, printed and online flyers, posters, newsletters, posts, Internet based calls put out through established networks, publications, meetings, conference presentations, internal and external workshops, final project conference, valorization seminars and courses run by the project partners. Promotional activities were also supported by the project associated partners (e.g. Oxford University Press, Pearson, IATEFL Hungary, British Council). Project partners also introduced the *DysTEFL* course into the teacher training schemes and curricula at their institutions.

The effective approach to EFL teacher training, which reflects the latest pedagogical principles in teacher education, will be further promoted by the *DysTEFL2* project[5] (Erasmus+ Programme, Key Action 2: Cooperation for innovation and exchange of good practice; Strategic partnerships), coordinated by the University of Łódź, Poland,[6] which constitutes a continuation of the *DysTEFL* project. The specific aim of the *DysTEFL2* project covers spreading and further popularizing good practice established by *DysTEFL*. *DysTEFL2's* objectives follow from the ideas put forward in the *DysTEFL* project and involve the exploitation of the *DysTEFL's* outcomes to trigger further changes in the European EFL teacher training schemes, mainstream EFL teaching to dyslexic language learners and educational policy making as well. *DysTEFL2* will offer validated/certified training on EFL and dyslexia to European EFL teachers.

5 Conclusions

The constituent elements of a successful project seem to be multiple but, undeniably, the accurate risk and quality management throughout the project lifetime, including high quality of the application, partnership, cooperation, coordination,

[5] This project has been funded with support from the European Commission. *DysTEFL2—Dyslexia for teachers of English as a foreign language*, www.dystefl.eu. Project-Number: 2014-1-PL01-KA200-003578. This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.

[6] *DysTEFL2* project's coordinators: Joanna Nijakowska (Department of Pragmatics, University of Łódź, Poland) and Marcin Podogrocki (International Educational Projects Office, University of Łódź, Poland).

products, dissemination and exploitation constitute the fundamental components of success. However, behind the plans, strategies, procedures and outcomes there are always people—project partners and participants. Without their involvement, commitment, supportive attitude, skills, competencies and expertise, and, last but not least, their ability to work collaboratively on complex, multilayer tasks and to share responsibility for their outcomes with a view to accomplish the project goals and produce high quality deliverables no achievement would seem possible. The *DysTEFL* team was dedicated to the ideas promoted by the project, which, apparently, transpires in the impact the project has made.

The *DysTEFL* project promotes equity, social cohesion and social inclusion, it addresses an educational disadvantage through offering high quality, tailor-made training and more targeted support directly to EFL teachers and indirectly to dyslexic foreign language learners. The project output is consistent with the European educational priorities of reinforcing support and inclusion education for learners with special educational needs in that it is capable of closing the existing and frequently reported gap in the European EFL teacher training systems. As a consequence, maximising the quality of teaching English to dyslexic language learners, accommodating them in mainstream classrooms, reducing early school leaving, and, finally, making it possible for them to get the right skills and competences and to be able to use them in appropriate jobs seems a more achievable goal.

The project outcome can work as a point of reference for educational policy makers and authorities, researchers, teacher trainers, and materials designers. Consistently with national and EU educational priorities, the project invites the application of best practices, suggests and supports changes and improvements in the European EFL teacher training schemes, which clearly lacked the component devoted to developing foreign language competence in dyslexic language learners.

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Is Foreign Language Knowledge a Form of Capital Passed from One Generation to the Next?

Joanna Rokita-Jaśkow

Abstract The roles of family environment and parental involvement in child education have been particularly emphasised in recent pedagogical research, which indicates that children from more favourable family backgrounds, characterised by such distal variables as higher socio-economic status of the family (SES), higher level of parental education etc., are more likely to succeed at school than children from less favourable family backgrounds. This has been found to be partly due to the fact that such children tend to obtain more support and help from their parents at home, and have better access to material and educational resources. Parental Foreign Language (FL) knowledge can also be regarded as a form of capital from which children's eventual interest and success in FLs evolves. This paper reports the findings of a survey study that was conducted among parents of very young learners of L2 (n = 670). The aim of the study was to investigate whether there is any relationship between parents' own knowledge of foreign languages and their motives for enrolling their children into very early FL instruction, the level of parental aspiration for the children's FL achievement and parents' vocational plans for their children. A correlation was found to exist between maternal knowledge of FLs and certain motives for enrolment into very early FL instruction, as well as long-term FL and vocational aspirations. A similar relationship was identified between the paternal level of education and long term FL and vocational aspirations. In respect of current expectations in relation to the child's FL achievement, parents with higher levels of FL knowledge were found to have lower expectations than parents of lower FL competence. Finally, it is argued that the impact of the family environment is the key social factor that accounts for differences in very early FL acquisition; and, whilst family environment may not be deterministic in early childhood, it may be an early indicator of future ease of learning and a positive attitude to FLL.

Keywords Very young learners · Language policy · Linguistic capital · Parental aspirations

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1 Introduction

Recent research in SLA highlights the impact of social context on the outcomes of FLL, for example, motivational theories (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005; Williams & Burden, 1997) and input factors. Social context may refer to the widely understood outside world, which denotes areas such as educational language policy, educational systems, classroom dynamics, teacher competences and, finally, family environment. It is this last social setting that matters most in the case of very young foreign language learners. The young child's parents can have an impact on the rate of first language acquisition by providing an appropriate amount and quality of L1 input (cf. Rokita, 2007). A similar impact has been observed in the case of bilingual first language acquisition (Deuchar & Quay, 2000; Pearson, Fernandez, & Oller, 1993).

The influence of family environment and parental aspirations is, however, not limited to the linguistic sphere, but also has socio-pedagogical effects. It influences a child's interests (Hurlock, 1985) and how they spend their free time. It may also affect the child's educational achievement as parents often act as role models for their children. The purpose of this paper is to present the results of a study, which investigated the aspirations of parents of very young learners (aged 3–6) for their children's foreign language achievement. The study also considered whether the level of these aspirations is related to parents' own level of foreign language knowledge.

2 Foreign Language Knowledge as a Form of Linguistic Capital

In recent SLA research the dominant paradigm applied to early foreign language learning is Sociocultural theory. Originating from the work of the late Lev Vygotsky, Sociocultural theory specifically emphasises the role of parents in helping children clarify the meanings of concepts by adjusting to the current level of child development (the so-called Zone of Proximal Development). In its elaborated version (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), Sociocultural theory enables the expansion of various types of support given to the child during its development. Foreign language learning is perceived as a particular form of investment, a form of capital, which is supposed to bring certain benefits. The terminology is clearly rooted in economics, and signifies power and trade relations.

The notion of capital is particularly emphasised in Social Reproduction theory (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). Its basic tenet is that families reproduce their positions in the social structure of society through the accumulation and inheritance of capital. This capital not only refers to material wealth, but may take various other forms. For example, a social network constitutes social capital while participation in culture denotes cultural capital. These three types of capital are interrelated and secure an individual's privileged position in the social structure (Bourdieu, 2006).

More recently, Bourdieu (1991) distinguished yet another form of capital, language capital, which denotes various kinds of linguistic practices, also referred to as the 'linguistic habitus', defined as "a determinate form of speech on a determinate market" (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 56). This definition implies that speakers try to adjust their way of speaking in response to the demands of the situation at hand, thus establishing their position in the linguistic market. Every language exchange is the site of a power struggle, proving which party is higher in the social structure (i.e. more powerful, influential, better educated, etc.). The language habitus may denote usage of a highly elevated style, specialist jargon, or, as is the author's belief, plurilingual competence which is manifested, for example, in code-switching. If so, foreign language competence can be regarded as a form of language capital which is passed from one generation to another, as a special form of investment, which consequently secures one's privileged position in the language market, i.e. nowadays the global market.

This new approach to the study of language is called postructuralism/postmodernism, as it takes into account the wider social and political context in which language learning takes place. Language is studied in the "construction and reproduction of social relations, and the role of social dynamics in the process of additional language learning and use" (Pavlenko, 2002, p. 282). In other words it can be assumed that certain linguistic practices, such as plurilingualism, establish one's position in the social market.

3 The Impact of the Family Environment on Foreign Language Achievement

The impact of the family has been observed to be particularly important in the preschool years. The way a child is brought up is dependent on the family situation, i.e. its distal and proximal factors. The former denote such features as the socioeconomic status of the family (SES), parental level of education, material wealth, living conditions, etc. For the purposes of this paper, foreign language knowledge of the parents (FL) is also distinguished as a distal factor, because, especially in a largely monolingual country such as Poland, knowledge of a foreign language may bring practical benefits, such as obtaining a better-paid job, often in an international corporation, and thus may secure a better income, which influences the material situation of the family.

Proximal factors, in contrast, refer to cognitive stimulation and affective ties within the family (Marjoribanks, 2001). It is easy to imagine that the distal factors may impact the proximal factors, for example children from families of better educated parents may have better access to educational resources and cultural activities, which lead to more cognitive stimulation in the form of family conversations, travel, social events, etc. Additionally, distal factors influence parental cognitions, parental style, language use, educational behaviours, etc. (Feinstein, Duckworth, & Sabates, 2004).

Higher SES can be an additional attribute here, although the relationship between high SES and proximal factors is not that straightforward. Parents who have a higher level of income may not always have the time and willingness to provide high levels of support to their children's education, whereas well-educated parents on lower incomes may be willing and able to provide such support.

Family characteristics, as depicted by the amalgam of the distal and proximal variables, in turn influence child learning outcomes, and manifest themselves in achievement at school, behavioural adjustment, self-concept of ability, and self-regulation (Feinstein et al., 2004). This is the reason why some children succeed at school from the very beginning: it is their family background that equips them with capital which contributes to their success. These interrelationships also indicate why educational success is passed from one generation to the next (Feinstein et al., 2004). Educational level, including foreign language education, is a form of capital to which the same principles apply.

Of crucial importance here is the notion of educational aspirations, which are defined as "idealistic hopes or goals that parents may form regarding future attainment" (Holloway & Yamamoto, 2008, p. 753). According to another definition, aspirations constitute "the predicted result of an individual's activity aimed at reaching the goals established by the subject" (Okoń, 1998, the author's translation). Thus two key features of aspirations are established in these definitions: they are long-term and are the outcome of deliberate decisions of an individual. Consequently, aspirations will differ from individual to individual, depending on the distal and proximal factors of the family environment.

Aspirations are distinguished from expectations, which are "realistic beliefs or judgement that parents have about their children's attainment" (Holloway & Yamamoto, 2008, p. 753). It is evident that the realism of expectations is based on the prior learning experience and achievement of either the child (adolescent) or of the parent himself when it regards the very young child.

An abundant volume of research (Marjoribanks, 2001, 2003; Ojeda & Flores, 2008), including Polish research in pedagogy and sociology (Domański, 2002, 2007; Janowski, 1977; Kawula, 1998; Lewowicki, 1987; Sikorski, 2005; Ścisłowicz, 1994) indicates overwhelmingly that high educational aspirations of parents contribute to the rise of their adolescent children's educational aspirations and, consequently, result in high levels of achievement at school. Educational success, in turn, often translates into higher vocational achievement.

Whilst no studies have been conducted to date with reference to parental aspirations towards children younger than 11, it seems to be a novel sociological phenomenon of the postmodern/neoliberal world that many parents treat the upbringing of their very young child as a kind of special project and form of investment. Thus, an early start in foreign language learning may also turn out to be a form of such investment, guaranteeing a better occupational position in the future.

Foreign language learning in an instructional context can therefore be regarded as yet another kind of child education, and thus is subject to the same principles. It may be meaningful to apply the findings of pedagogical research to very early FL instruction, given that no specific research on early FL instruction has been carried

out, which would enable comparison. Therefore it can only be assumed that parental aspirations would be observed to have a similar impact on foreign language learning to that on other areas of child education. Parents who already have a high level of FL competence may regard plurilingualism as an important element of professional and social life, and in consequence, may wish their children to obtain the same level of FL competence, if not a higher level, and to use languages in adulthood for the same social and vocational purposes. Therefore, it is predicted that those parents will continuously invest in their children's FLL by arranging high level instruction, providing FLL materials and opportunities for usage, and finally by acting as positive role models themselves. By drawing on their own FLL experience, they may be more aware than parents with little or no FL knowledge of the fact that to successfully master a foreign language, it takes more than just early enrolment in a foreign language course. It requires frequency of exposure to a FL, motivation, learner's positive self-concept, a provision of high quality teachers and materials, and more.

4 The Study

4.1 The Aim

The aim of the study is to verify whether there is any relationship between very young learners' parents' FL knowledge and the type/level of aspirations held for their children's foreign language achievement. It is believed that parents who decide to enrol their children in foreign language courses very early must have certain expectations/aspirations as to the current and future foreign language achievement of the child. Traditionally, many parents opt for a very early start in the foreign language with a view to obtaining native-like fluency in the L2 in the future. Yet, according to the European language policy guidelines (European Commission, 2011), an early start in a foreign language is aimed more at laying the foundations for future plurilingual achievement rather than mastery of one high prestige language, most commonly English. Plurilingualism, i.e. knowledge of a few different languages within one individual, albeit to a different degree (Byram, 1997), seems to be a goal and necessity in the largely globalised world. Thus it remains to be answered which of the goals are aspired to. It may be suspected that parents who have a high competence in foreign language knowledge themselves and experience of FLL, including its strategies and mishaps, and the experience of intercultural encounters, may also have a more realistic view of what a very young child can achieve now, and what their child should know in the future (in order to achieve educational and vocational success).

To recapitulate on this discussion, this study aims to verify the following hypothesis.

H: There is a difference between parents' level of foreign language knowledge and the type of expectations, aspirations and vocational plans held for their children.

In order to verify the hypothesis, a statistical analysis was performed and statistically significant correlations were sought between parental aspirations, parental expectations, vocational aspirations, motives for very early FL course enrolment and maternal and paternal levels of FL knowledge.

4.2 Method

The following section gives details of the study: its participants, the instruments used and the data collection procedure.

4.2.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 335 mothers and 335 fathers (670 in total) of very young learners of L2 English (and sporadically of other languages). They were chosen on the basis of the random sampling method in selected public and private kindergartens in Cracow and villages in the Lesser Poland district. The participants responded to a larger survey, the partial results of which have been presented elsewhere (cf. Rokita-Jaśkow, 2013b); however, the variable of parental foreign language knowledge has not been studied and analysed before. Among the mothers, there were 22 who reported to have no knowledge of a foreign language, 60 had elementary knowledge, 159 had intermediate knowledge and 94 had advanced knowledge of a foreign language. In the case of the fathers, 49 had no FL knowledge, 69 had elementary knowledge, 126 intermediate knowledge and 91 reported to have an advanced level of FL knowledge. On the whole, it seems that in each quartile of the studied sample, mothers had a slightly higher level of FL knowledge overall. However, a comparison of the number of mothers and fathers reporting to have an advanced level of FL knowledge, shows that there were only three more mothers than fathers at this level.

4.2.2 The Instrument

The instrument was a survey developed by the author of the paper, which among other lines of research, consisted of four subscales relevant to the following study (cf. Appendix). These were:

1. A 14-item subscale of parental reasons for FL enrolment (dual choice)
2. A 10-item subscale of vocational aspirations connected with FL knowledge (dual choice)
3. A 11-item subscale of parental aspirations—5-point Likert type statements referring to children's long-term achievement (aspirations)
4. A 12-item subscale of parental expectations—5-point Likert type statements referring to the children's current/short term achievement (expectations)

As can be seen from the above, a distinction has been made between parental expectations and parental aspirations, following the definitions of Holloway and Yamamoto (2008), according to whom, parental expectations refer to the current achievement of children and are therefore more realistic, whereas parental aspirations refer to long-term goals. In addition, the second subscale required the respondents to indicate the expected vocational positions/situations they would like their children to find themselves in, for which they would require foreign language knowledge. The relationship between the level of aspirations, educational achievement and vocational plans has been established in pedagogical research (cf. Marjoribanks, 2001, 2003). Similarly, it is acknowledged that FLL has an instrumental value, and, when treated as an investment, is expected to bring concrete results, although in the short term, results are intangible.

Finally, it must be stated that parental aspirations, parental expectations and parental vocational plans for the future were identified as independent variables, whereas parental (maternal and paternal separately) level of foreign language knowledge was treated as a dependent variable.

Parental FLL was measured as a self-perceived feature on a 4-point scale [none (0)—elementary (1)—intermediate (2)—advanced (3)]. Here it must be noted that in most cases it was mothers who filled in the questionnaire and therefore evaluated their and their spouse's level of FL competence. As a result, judgements about the mother's FL knowledge may have been observed to be more realistic than these of the father's (estimated vicariously). No priority was given to the knowledge of any language. While in the majority of cases the participants excelled at English, the highest level of reported competence in any language was taken into account. This was due to the belief that the very experience of being bi- or multi-lingual influences parental standpoints on child language upbringing and education, and not the specific language known. (It should be acknowledged that the statuses and popularity of various languages also change over time).

4.2.3 Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed to parents, whose children learnt L2 English in both public and private kindergartens in Cracow and the Lesser Poland region. The questionnaires were distributed either personally (often with the help of the kindergarten teacher) or via the electronic database held by the kindergarten. While the random sampling method was attempted, it must be recognised that there was the problem of self-selection of the subjects, as many refused to respond to the survey. Also, a few head teachers did not agree to the distribution of the surveys in their institutions.

As the questionnaire contained statements of a qualitative nature, non-parametric tests were used for statistical analysis: Spearman's rho test for the statements containing dual choice (scale 1 and 2) and the Kruskal-Wallis test for the 5-point statements (scale 3 and 4). Calculations were done by means of the statistical programme STATISTICA.

5 Results and Discussion

The statistical analysis performed by means of Spearman's rho test between motives for very early enrolment in FL instruction (i.e. at pre-primary level) and parents' own level of knowledge showed a few statistically significant correlations (in Table 1 only statistically significant correlations are presented).

As seen above, the high level of FL knowledge of both parents correlated positively in respect of only one statement (statement 2). This shows that the higher the FL competence of the parents, the more realistic the expectation of early FLL outcomes. Such parents do not expect their children to achieve native-like competence in L2 either now or in the future. While they do have such an aspiration (see below), they probably realise that in order to succeed in a FL, many more factors are involved than just an early start. Instead they believe that development of language awareness is a goal which is both achievable and worthwhile since they have opted for an early start.

This finding is consistent with the other two correlations, albeit negative ones (statement 1 and 3), which relate solely to the mother's level of FL knowledge. Here it can be seen that the higher the level of the mother's FL knowledge, the less likely she is to subscribe to 'the earlier, the better' view (statement 1). She does not believe that as a result of an early start the child will have fewer problems in later FLL. These correlational relationships show that better linguistically-educated parents have more realistic expectations of the foreign language course. The link between the statements and mothers' FL knowledge could be ascribed to the fact that in the case of very young learners of L2, mothers are, on the most part, the major caregivers, and seem to make more decisions for their children, including the educational ones. Fathers are probably less aware/interested in the achievements of the young child, as can even be seen in the correlation between statement 4 and their FL knowledge. The fathers seem to take advantage of any educational opportunities available, being content to wait and see what future benefits these may bring.

Table 1 Correlations between parental motives for enrolment into L2 course and parental level of education

	Motive for early FL enrollment	Mother's FL level (n = 335)	Father's FL level (n = 335)
1.	The earlier the child starts learning a foreign language, the better s/he will learn it in the future	−0.12 $p = 0.02$	–
2.	I would like the child to develop awareness of other languages, cultures and countries	0.15 $p = 0.01$	0.17 $p = 0.00$
3.	Having learnt a FL in a kindergarten the child will not have any problems with it at primary school	−0.15 $p = 0.01$	–
4.	There was an offer of a FL at the kindergarten. I believe this will not do the child any harm, and he will always learn something	–	0.13 $p = 0.02$

Results of the Spearman's rho test, $p < 0.5$

Table 2 Correlations between paternal vocational aspirations and their FL knowledge

	Vocational aspirations	Father's FL level (n = 335)	*p* value
1.	Reading professional texts (documents, articles etc.)	0.13	0.02
2.	Socialising with foreigners	0.11	0.04
3.	Using cultural resources in a foreign language (literature, film, music etc.)	0.13	0.02

Results of the Spearman's rho test, $p < 0.05$

This observation may be further corroborated by the statistically significant correlations found between the fathers' FL knowledge and vocational aspirations for the child's future (Table 2). It is noteworthy that any such links have been observed only in relation to the fathers' level of FL knowledge. This may be explained by the fact that, firstly, fathers are more likely to perceive child education to be an investment and look for future rewards, and secondly, they are likely to use FLs at their own work and thus project their own experiences onto their ambitions for the child's future.

Consequently, fathers expect their children's future use of foreign languages to be for purposes similar to their own, i.e. for reading professional texts (Spearman's rho = 0.13), socialising with foreigners (Spearman's rho = 0.11) and using cultural resources, such as music, film, literature (Spearman's rho = 0.13). One can only speculate that such a functional use of language reflects the practice of those parents who are proficient in a FL.

An analysis of parents' long-term aspirations with reference to their children's long-term achievement by means of the Kruskal-Wallis test showed further correlations in this respect (Table 3).

A statistically significant correlation was found between the rather low aspiration which deemed it sufficient if the child just uses the language communicatively (Table 3, statement 1, H = 11.47, $p < 0.05$) and a low level of parental FL knowledge. The analysis shows that this was the aspiration of the mothers who did not speak any FL themselves (n = 22, Mean rank = 203.90) or had just a rudimentary knowledge of it (n = 60, Mean rank = 189.26). Another low aspiration, stating that it is enough if the child passes school exams in a foreign language, also correlated significantly with low levels of parental FL education, both of mothers and fathers. This statement correlated with the mother's level of FL knowledge, which was none (n = 22, Mean rank = 203.02) or elementary (n = 60, Mean rank = 205.24) and the father's lack of FL knowledge (n = 49, Mean rank = 208.79) or only elementary knowledge (n = 69, Mean rank = 166.15).

By contrast, mothers who had a higher level of FL knowledge expressed higher aspirations for their child's achievement and expected that the child would speak at least two foreign languages in adolescence (Statement 2, H = 8.83). This was the aspiration of mothers who estimated their FL knowledge as intermediate (n = 159, Mean rank = 175.18) or advanced (n = 94, Mean rank = 172.21).

Table 3 Correlations between parental aspirations with reference to their children's FL achievement and parental FL knowledge

	Parental aspiration	Mother's FL knowledge (n = 335)	Father's FL knowledge (n = 335)
1.	In adulthood the child does not have to speak a foreign language fluently; it is enough if he can just communicate, e.g. to make some arrangements	H = 11.47 p = 0.01	H = 1.95 p = 0.58
2.	In adolescence the child will speak at least two foreign languages	H = 8.84 p = 0.03	H = 4.71 p = 0.19
3.	It is enough if the child passes school exams in a foreign language	H = 32.06 p = 0.00	H = 12.46 p = 0.01
4.	In adulthood the child will use a foreign language fluently at work (reading texts, conversations)	H = 14.78 p = 0.00	H = 8.45 p = 0.04
5.	The child has to know a foreign language well enough in order to study/work abroad, etc.	H = 10.53 p = 0.0146	H = 13.57 p = 0.00
6.	The child will have foreign friends, with whom s/he will communicate in a foreign language	H = 9.66 p = 0.02	H = 15.52 p = 0.00

Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.05$

Similarly, the high aspiration that in adulthood the child would use a foreign language fluently at work was expressed mainly by mothers who spoke a FL fluently (n = 94, Mean rank = 188.133) and fathers who had a similarly advanced level of FL knowledge (n = 191, Mean rank = 183.68). A high level of FL competence also correlated significantly with the remaining two high aspirations (Statements 5 and 6). These were mothers who had an advanced FL knowledge (n = 94, Mean rank = 184.29 for statement 5, and Mean rank = 190.40 for statement 6) as well as fathers with an advanced FL knowledge (n = 91, Mean rank = 189.04 for statement 5, and Mean rank = 197.89 for statement 6).

All these findings imply that the higher the level of parental knowledge of a foreign language, the higher the level of aspiration in respect of the child's achievement. In consequence, the children of parents with higher levels of FL knowledge are indeed likely to achieve more in foreign language learning, compared to children of parents with little or no FL knowledge, as parents with higher levels of FL knowledge trust their child's ability to succeed in FL learning and also make more demands on the child to achieve, not to mention the amount of additional support given to the child in the form of additional FL practice which greatly enhance the chances of high achievement (cf. Rokita-Jaśkow, 2013a).

Finally, the last analysis aimed to identify whether there is any correlation between parental expectations of the current FL achievement of the very young child and their level of FL knowledge (Table 4).

Statistically significant observations have been found only with reference to two expectations. Firstly, it seems that parents of advanced FL competence do not have any specific expectations of an 'early start' except for the development of broadly

Table 4 Correlations between parental expectations in reference to their children's FL achievement and their FL knowledge

	Parental expectations	Mother's FL knowledge (n = 335)	Father's FL knowledge (n = 335)
1.	The child will be aware of the existence of other languages	H = 9.66 $p = 0.02$	H = 13.9 $p = 0.00$
2.	The child will speak a foreign language fluently	H = 13.45 $p = 0.00$	H = 17.60 $p = 0.00$

Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.05$

understood language awareness (mothers: n = 94, mean rank = 182.707; fathers: n = 91, mean rank = 186.406).

Secondly, the rather unrealistic expectation that by early enrolment in a FL class, the child will speak a foreign language fluently gained most support among those parents who did not speak any FL (mothers: n = 22, Mean rank = 200.84; fathers: n = 49, Mean rank = 203.377) or had only elementary knowledge (mothers: n = 60, Mean rank = 192.85; fathers: n = 69, Mean rank = 189.81).

These results, as well as the mere fact that statistically significant correlations have been found only in reference to two expectations, may suggest that many parents enrol their children in early FL instruction with no clear expectations or little awareness of the goals of early teaching of foreign languages. It seems that by an early start they wish to secure the child a good chance of FL mastery in the future.

To summarise, in view of the results obtained, we can confirm the hypothesis which postulates that there is a difference between the parental level of education and the level of their aspirations, expectations, and motives for enrolment in very early instruction, and vocational aspirations. Whilst it is the mother's level of FL knowledge that seems to be more relevant in current decision-making, the father's FL knowledge is equally important in terms of long term goals.

At this point it should be acknowledged that the correlations found, although positive, are weak, and the results should be treated with caution. They indicate a possibility that a certain relationship between the variables exists, yet these results may also be due to chance. Therefore these findings should be treated as prognostic, and further study of the issue, possibly with a more detailed instrument and a larger number of subjects, would be recommended.

6 Conclusions

From the above findings it can be observed that parental knowledge of foreign languages has an impact on the decisions made with reference to children's foreign language learning. In the case of mothers, the impact concerns the very decision to enrol their child into early FLL and points to an expectation of the child to acquire language awareness, possibly as a background for further FLL. It seems mothers assume that FLL will be a long process and do not ascribe success in FLL merely to

an ‘early start’, but to other factors as well (such as intensity of exposure and type of instruction). In the case of fathers, the impact of their FL knowledge on very young learners’ FLL seems to be small, yet their aspirations for children to have high vocational achievement may reap rewards in the later stages of education. As is known from pedagogical research, secondary school children whose parents hold high aspirations for their achievement usually achieve high results both in education and later on in their professional careers (Domański, 2002; Lewowicki, 1987). One can speculate that a similar relationship may be true in respect of further FLL.

It should be noted that a similar relationship between parental FL knowledge and long term expectations has been observed in the qualitative part of the project (personal interviews), cited elsewhere (cf. Rokita-Jaśkow, 2013b), which constituted an incentive for conducting this quantitative analysis. In that study it was also found that parents possessing plurilingual competence imagined that their children would possess similar competences in the future and were prepared to support their children in achieving this goal.

Thus the conclusion is tenable that the family environment plays an important role in the very young child’s achievement and parents’ own knowledge of foreign languages is an important distal variable that accounts for differences in very early FL acquisition and may be prognostic of further success. However, favourable family background should not be regarded as deterministic in achieving success. While it takes many more factors to succeed in a foreign language than merely good learning conditions, it should also be recognized that children coming from less favourable backgrounds can achieve similar results, thanks to motivation, perseverance and high quality of teaching in educational institutions.

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Appendix—Survey Statements

Motives for early L2 enrolment

1. The earlier the child starts learning a foreign language, the better s/he will learn it in the future.
2. FL classes are an appealing way of complementing kindergarten curriculum.
3. FLL will help the child become more open and self-confident in interpersonal contacts, also with foreigners.
4. FLL is a good ‘mental’ exercise (‘brain gym’).
5. I would like my child to get used to other languages, their sound, words, grammar, etc.
6. I would like the child to develop awareness of other languages, cultures and countries.
7. I believe the child can learn a foreign language easily, quickly and as well as its mother tongue.

8. Having learnt a FL in kindergarten the child will not have any problems with it at primary school.
9. As most of the other parents enrolled their children in a FL course, I did too.
10. In a FL class a child would learn how to cooperate and socialize with others.
11. Children learn FLs easier and faster than adults, and so can achieve better results.
12. Attending a language course with a child was for me a way of socialising with other parents.
13. I was attracted by a language course advertisement.
14. There was an offer of FL instruction in the kindergarten. I believe this will not do the child any harm, and he will always learn something.

Vocational aspirations

It is hoped in the future the child will use the language:

1. In order to get any job
2. In order to get a better-paid job (e.g. at managerial position) and higher salary
3. In contacts with foreign clients
4. In contacts with an employer
5. To read professional texts (documents, articles etc.)
6. To travel abroad
7. To socialise with foreigners
8. To work abroad
9. To use cultural resources in a foreign languages (literature, film, music etc.)
10. In all of the situations above

Parental aspirations

1. In adulthood the child does not have to speak a foreign language fluently; it is enough if he can just communicate, e.g. to make some arrangements.
2. In 2–3 years the child will be able to communicate in a foreign language, e.g. on holidays abroad.
3. In 5–6 years the child will be able to speak a foreign language fluently.
4. In adolescence the child will speak at least two foreign languages.
5. Learning effects will depend on a school and the teacher.
6. Learning effects will depend on the child's aptitude.
7. It's enough if the child passes school exams in a foreign language.
8. In adulthood the child will use a foreign language fluently at work (reading texts, conversations).
9. The child has to know a foreign language well enough in order to study/work abroad, etc.
10. The child will have foreign friends, with whom s/he will communicate in a foreign language.
11. In the future the child will have a native-like competence in a foreign language.

Parental expectations

1. The child will be aware of the existence of other languages.
2. The child will become interested in learning other foreign languages.
3. The child will understand simple commands, e.g. in a game, etc.
4. The child will understand a general sense of a book read in a foreign language/ TV cartoon, etc.
5. The child will know the names of single items in a foreign language.
6. The child will know how to say 'hello', 'goodbye', introduce each other.
7. The child will be able to sing a song/say a poem, etc.
8. The child will guess the meaning of unknown words from context in a TV programme, song, computer game, etc.
9. The child will insert foreign words and expressions in a spontaneous talk in Polish.
10. The child will try to create new sentences and words in a foreign language.
11. The child will try to talk in a foreign language, e.g. with foreigners on holiday or playing with toys and acting out scenes from class.
12. The child will speak a foreign language fluently.

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Rhetorical Criticism as an Advanced Literacy Practice: A Report on a Pilot Training

Katarzyna Molek-Kozakowska

Abstract This paper sets out to advance the notion of critical literacy in view of the growing shortage of critical analytic skills even among college students. Critical literacy is defined as a disposition for critical reflection and critical practice. It is employed in the academic context in the systematic interrogation of discursive practices which are sometimes ideologically motivated. Being skilled at critiquing in the advanced EFL context is derivative of a certain general level of critical literacy. It is claimed here that this can be attained through introducing students to categories and procedures of the main rhetorical traditions: neo-Aristotelian rhetoric, the New Rhetoric and Burkean dramatism. Subsequently, the paper reports on a pilot rhetorical training administered to undergraduate students majoring in Cultural and Media Studies at the Institute of English, Opole University, Poland. It describes the main contents of the training, which culminated in students' applying rhetorical criticism in an analysis of a worthy text of their choice. Students' proficient applications of diverse rhetorical categories in their final assessment tasks are exemplified and discussed. Even though the majority used simple neo-Aristotelian categories, some combined various rhetorical procedures, including the sophisticated notions of Burkean rhetoric. The results of students' evaluation of the training are also presented. Students find rhetorical criticism a difficult but rewarding, and, above all, increasingly indispensable skill. Both types of data testify to the usefulness of rhetorical training in the advanced EFL context, particularly in fostering critical literacy skills in a student-centered approach.

Keywords Rhetorical criticism · Critical literacy · Rhetorical training

This study is a follow-up to an action research devoted to diagnosing students' problems with critical literacy which was presented in Molek-Kozakowska (2013). How to foster critical literacy in academic contexts: Some insights from action research on writing research papers. In E. Piechurska-Kuciel & E. Szymańska-Czaplak (Eds.), *Language in cognition and affect* (pp. 95–110). Heidelberg: Springer.

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1 Introduction

Under the communist system, people in Poland used to be fairly skeptical with respect to broadcast messages in public media, and often engaged in oppositional readings of government propagandas. As regards artistic output, both producers and audiences knew how to write/read between the lines to circumvent censorship. This contrasts starkly with how uncritically students that now come to humanistic faculties—over 20 years after Poland's political transformation—seem to approach mainstream media.

In the same vein, many undergraduate students who prepare research projects in Cultural and Media Studies (CMS) at the Institute of English of Opole University, Poland, find it difficult to critically interrogate dominant discursive formations, cultural practices and media uses. When faced with their research objectives, apart from lacking skills and experience of doing critiques, such students often report having problems with overcoming cultural inhibitions related to criticality Critical literacy is expected of students, yet it seems to be rarely encouraged (Molek-Kozakowska, 2013). This perceptible shortage of critical literacy skills of our CMS students has thus far led to an action research devoted to identifying and remedying some of the problems they face when writing research papers (Molek-Kozakowska, 2013), and a course book evaluation of selected CMS textbooks with regard to their potential for fostering critical thinking (Molek-Kozakowska, 2015).

The present project aims to review the main rhetorical traditions from the educational perspective. It is devoted to exploring how rhetorical criticism can be used for the purpose of fostering more critical awareness of linguistic, semiotic and argumentative resources in CMS texts. It would be ideal to have students become acquainted with the whole rhetorical tradition, but the current curriculum at the Institute does not admit of that. Alternatively, CMS seminars could be partly devoted to developing rhetorical skills. It can be assumed that when introduced to some rhetorical categories, argumentative schema/fallacies and procedures of rhetorical criticism, students could become empowered to approach discourses they are supposed to critique in a more "symbol-wise" manner (Burke, 1966). Administering such a pilot rhetorical training can be justified with the belief that the role of the humanistic faculty is to educate students not only for an academic degree and professional fulfillment but also for an enlightened and responsible citizenship.

This paper is an argument for including more fine-tuned rhetorical training to advanced EFL curricula, which tend to be oriented towards making students acquire a certain amount of knowledge and communicative competence rather than towards motivating students to explore issues critically. In addition to reporting on CMS students' progress and attitudes to rhetorical training, this paper explores the merits of selected rhetorical categories in terms of their applicability for critical analyses of CMS texts by undergraduate students. Apart from basing on the classical Aristotelian rhetorical theory (*ethos*, *logos* and *pathos*), the training draws from modern sources, particularly Chaim Perelman and Lucie Olbrechts-Tyteca's *New Rhetoric* (1969), with a focus on argumentation techniques rather than figurative language.

Rhetoric is seen here as a relation between a rhetor and an audience, and as a culturally situated practice of persuasion, not a guide in style. Finally, Burke's (1945, 1950, 1966) notion of rhetorical quality of human symbolic action informs the understanding of rhetoric as an art of identification through persuasion. Burkean theory of dramatism, terministic screens and language symbolism has already inspired many educators to seek how to move from rhetoric as a technology for outwitting the opponent to rhetoric as co-operation with the others (Enoch, 2004). This type of rhetoric is, arguably, an increasingly indispensable literacy practice for students not only of the humanities.

2 The Theory Behind Practice: The Notion of Critical Literacy

Literacy is traditionally understood as a set of skills that enable people to process and create texts (Holme, 2004, p. 5). We adopt here a broad definition of texts that include variously coded meanings in which linguistic signs are frequently complemented by paralinguistic, visual, auditory, video, or hypertextual meaning-making elements. Such texts (e.g., political speeches, newscasts, webpages, blogs, documentary films, music videos/lyrics, advertisements) are often subject to exploration and evaluation in Cultural and Media Studies college courses. Adept 'decoding' of such messages, sometimes termed as *functional* literacy, is a pre-requisite for being able to consume them. Yet, this type of literacy is not always sufficient to empower a student willing not only to consume, but to fully participate in the contemporary discourses of the public sphere. Hence, another sort of skills is needed to 'deconstruct' or challenge dominant ideologies, especially when they naturalize social inequalities or legitimize cultural oppression. This could be termed *critical* literacy (cf. Holme, 2004; Morgan, 1997). The aims of critical literacy educators can be characterized in the following way:

> In addressing critical literacy we are concerned with the extent to which, and the ways in which, actual and possible practices and conceptions of reading and writing enable human subjects to understand and engage in the politics of daily life in the quest for a more truly democratic social order. Among other things, critical literacy makes possible a more adequate and accurate 'reading' of the world, on the basis of which people can enter into 'rewriting' the world into a formation in which their interests, identities and legitimate aspirations are more fully present and are present more equally (Morgan, 1997, p. 6).

Critical pedagogies have been advocated in theory or implemented in practice by many philosophers, intellectuals and educators, including John Dewey, Antonio Gramsci, Paolo Freire, Henry Giroux and Kenneth Burke (for a review see, e.g., Kanpol, 1994). Postmodern social theory has also played a role in appealing for more critical awareness and self-emancipation through ideological criticism or deconstruction of dominant discourses (Morgan, 1997). In brief, critical literacy is a disposition for critical reflection and critical practice (Janks, 2010). Reflection is

needed for the study of the discourses of the public sphere and the media, where, it is often claimed, the interests of the powerful are often disguised as 'commonsense' beliefs (Fairclough, 1995). Engaging in critical reflection enables one to ask such questions as "Why do I believe in this particular idea or use this particular knowledge?", "Who benefits from what I know and do?" or "Whose interests does my knowledge or action support?" (Mac Naughton, 2005, p. 11). Critical practice, in turn, is understood as a systematic interrogation of social categories and discursive practices which are regarded as natural and uncontestable, whereas they are often ideologically motivated (Fairclough, 1995). Critical reflection and critical practice may lead to critical action, which can be manifested for example through selective consumer behaviour and media consumption or ballot decisions and political activism.

At this point it is worth noting that the choice for the term critical *literacy* in this paper has not been incidental. The habitual uses of language, the dominant patterns and styles of social interaction, the generic structures that conventionally regulate public communication can be insightfully described, analyzed and evaluated (perhaps even defamiliarized) with the aid of the conceptual apparatus derived from language studies (e.g., pragmatics, functional-systemic linguistics) and discourse studies (e.g., Critical Discourse Analysis). Indeed, there is a growing body of research that emanates from these perspectives and can be usefully applied by critical literacy practitioners (cf. Fairclough, 1992; Janks, 2010; Morgan, 1997). However, this paper looks at how the knowledge of rhetoric (owing to its long tradition of investigating style and argumentation in public communication) is likely to extend one's capacity for critical literacy (cf. Enoch, 2004). The following section is a necessarily selective review of some categories of rhetorical criticism that have been identified as potentially useful for this project devoted to developing critical literacy dispositions among CMS students at Opole University.

3 Selecting Categories for a Rhetorical Training: A Review of Rhetorical Traditions

Although no rhetorical system can be treated as universal, since each arose in a specific political and cultural context and tends to reproduce its elements (cf. Bertelsen, 2002, on ethnocentrism in the Burkean system), each can be, and has been, appropriated to new circumstances (e.g., organizational discourse, mass-mediated popular culture, and postmodern public sphere). According to Hunt (2003), quality rhetorical criticism, requires a degree of immersion in rhetorical theory, which enables its practitioner to select appropriately and operationalize aptly their rhetorical categories to suit specific critiques at hand. In likewise manner, this project explores the possible applications of selected rhetorical categories in the educational context with the aim to foster critical literacy.

Neo-Aristotelian rhetorical criticism is a relatively well-delimited procedure of attending to such aspects of the rhetorical text as its invention, disposition, style, delivery and effect (Hunt, 2003, pp. 380–381). These, however general and flexible, may be better graspable in the case of context-specific orally delivered speeches, but harder to account for in the case of cross-cultural contexts, mass-mediated messages and increasingly heterogeneous auditors. In this tradition, good rhetoric is often evaluated in terms of the rhetor's craft and the effective persuasive results. In particular, many contemporary critiques deriving from Aristotle's rhetoric focus on the distinction into three modes of proof—*ethos*, *logos* and *pathos* (Book II of *Rhetoric*). These three distinct modes of persuasion should be combined to maximize persuasive efficacy (cf. Pratkanis & Aronson, 2001; Richardson, 2007). Originally, ethos referred only to the moral stance of the persuader (Aristotle, 2010, pp. 74–75), but it has since been related to other ethical dimensions of persuasive messages (credibility of the source, authority, public good, moral cause in the argument, values contingent to the society). Logos has usually been related to the choice and organization of the arguments in a persuasive message. Pathos, although conceived by Aristotle as deeply ingrained human values (e.g., the desire for illumination and truth) is now treated as a diverse category encompassing presumed affective stances of the audience as well as the means to incite and control recipients' emotions to facilitate their acceptance of the argument. Aristotle believed that pathos would be used only as a subsidiary to ethos and logos, and that rhetorically trained and reflective citizens could well distinguish noble leaders and wise rhetors (*phronimos*) from corrupt manipulators.

In the past, one's rhetorical training used to be the cornerstone of civic and public participation, personal development and integrity. The *ethos-logos-pathos* distinction appears still to be a productive framework for rhetorical analysis as literacy practice (cf. Cockcroft, 2004). For example, Aristotle's *Rhetoric* (Book II) induces novices to examine popular lines of argumentation and dominant topoi (including those related to exemplification, analogy and causality). This type of rhetorical criticism also encourages students to pay attention to style (Book III of *Rhetoric*), for example to such master tropes as metaphors, metonyms, hyperboles or antitheses in order to see how they might be used by rhetors to simplify representations of social events or legitimize particular policy proposals. These exercises are likely to resonate with contemporary students of rhetoric who face the same challenges when evaluating the credibility of public discourse.

Chaim Perleman and Lucie Olbrechts-Tyteca, in their influential *New Rhetoric* (1969), draw heavily on the classical tradition to develop a theory of practical argumentation. Their other interest is in extending the knowledge of sound argumentation and rules of decent debate to all citizens interested in participating in deliberations that take place in the public sphere. To make that happen, the pragmatic aspects of public communication with respect to the needs of a fairly universal audience are considered. Hence, Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca's work (1969), as well as subsequent publications by Perelman (1979, 1981), focus on providing a framework of argumentative patterns and demonstrating their dialectical potentials (e.g., argument, counterargument and rejoinder).

Unlike formal logic, practical argumentation is predicated on the rhetor's generating or reinforcing of auditors' acceptance of claims presented verbally (Perelman, 1981, p. 22). Such argumentation is embedded in the cultural context, tends to be conventionalized and its results are heavily dependable on the expressive potentials (and ambiguities) inherent in natural languages. To achieve persuasive effects, orators must be attuned to auditors' preferences (e.g., by transferring the approval of initial premises to the approval of the endpoint, by using commonly accepted facts, inferences, truths and presumptions as arguments, by appealing to universalized ideals, values and hierarchies, by quantifying or qualifying arguments, or by ensuring understanding and acceptance of intermediate conclusions). The assumed preferences of the audience are also instrumental in the rhetor's prior selection of arguments (facts, values), their arrangement and presentation (objective, interpretative, tendentious), the style of exposition (realistic, speculative) and accentuation (repetition, emphasis, detailing or amplification) (Perelman, 1981, pp. 45–51).

Moreover, the system of a natural language used in practical argumentation constitutes a reservoir of various persuasive forms and devices. That is why new rhetoricians highlight various lexical (semantic), grammatical (syntactic), prosodic and textual properties that are likely to induce specific persuasive effects (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969). They also alert auditors and future rhetors to problems and pitfalls in argumentation, as well as the moral imperatives behind "arguing for the good cause" (*scientia bene dicendi*), not only "arguing well" (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969, p. 25). For example, with respect to argumentation, they condemn such maneuvers as presenting a conclusion as a fact, appealing to authority, generalizing about shared values, implying a causal link, sequence or analogy, and, with respect to style, they discuss a variety of figures through which presence can be given to aspects of meaning. Their framework is both extensive and approachable, so that students should find it informative and illuminating.

Insightful rhetorical criticism can also be based on Burke's (1945, 1966) theory of symbolic action. Burkean rhetoric encompasses not only persuasion but also a variety of symbolic acts that constitute human interaction. This approach highlights the fact that symbolic acts are complex, dramatic and dialectical. Burke's most often cited analytic framework is that of the dramatistic pentad—act, scene, agent, agency and purpose. They are mutually related interpretative categories that lead a critic to various frames of reference with alternative foci. Basing on Burke's (1945) *A Grammar of Motives,* the pentad is characterized as:

> composed of relationships among five elements: act (conscious and purposive, a naming of what took place, in word or deed), scene, agent (the person and/or kind of person who performed the act), agency (the means or instruments used to perform the act), and the actor's purpose (which is partly conscious, partly nonconscious, and partly unconscious) […] Each component is defined by its relationship to every other component (Conrad & Mulphurs, 2008, p. 124, italics in the original).

However, these categories, originating in literary criticism of theatrical plays, should not be implemented as a checklist to describe and 'expose' rhetorical messages. Critical analysis of symbolic action is a complex recurrent process

(similar to Ricoeur's (1976) hermeneutic circle). It is not based on identifying and describing elemental units of discourse but on considering the epistemological basis of texts.

It can be claimed that the starting point (but not the end-result) of any Burkean rhetorical criticism is the reconstruction of the motivational and rhetorical context of text by means of the framework of dramatistic pentad. Hopefully, this stage leads to doubting one's initial preconceptions and admitting the possibility of various interpretations. Possible interpretations could then be ranked in terms of adequacy of representation and capacity to sustain dialogue (Burke, 1945, pp. 151–156). This is in tune with Burke's (1950) later elaboration on various forms of identification through dialogue. For Burke (1950, p. 21), rhetoric is hence envisioned as a type of dialogue through which identities can come into closer contact, enter into a relationship, and perhaps transcend their ideological differences and overcome inherent divisions.

According to Enoch (2004), Burke's life-long attempt to teach students to be 'symbol-wise' is rooted in his recognition of the fundamental role of language in both creating divisions and helping to bridge them [evident in his 1955 essay "Linguistic Approaches to Problems of Education" and developed in *Language as Symbolic Action* (1966)]. Burkean pedagogy of critical reflection can be implemented in a college classroom in the form of various language-focused exercises. Enoch (2004) revisits them and discusses their merits vis-à-vis Freire's (1972) notion of critical practice, concluding that rhetorical criticism of public discourses can in fact be treated as a form of critical action. What is of interest here is the forms of criticism advocated by Burke in his attempt to enable students to respond reflectively to rhetorical devices in public and mediated communication. That is why Burkean rhetorical criticism seems to be the closest in its scope to critical literacy as outlined in the previous section.

First, Burke (1955) proposes an exercise in "the charting of equations," (pp. 270–271) which is based on identification of key words in the text, and examination of their associational clusters (semantic fields, connotations), to trace their implicit evaluations or conventionalized social meanings. Such exercises might reveal how arguments are constructed or reinforced by coherence with other textual elements and presupposed elements of social reality. The exercise could also focus on terminology used to project constructed identities of discourse participants and categorization of social entities. Secondly, Burke (1955) suggests "revising the news" (p. 283) by identifying (and shifting) the slant inherent in any news story. Assuming that any news story is a representation of the event filtered through the author's "terministic screen," Burke encourages rewriting the stories assuming a different authorial stance or narrative voice. This may help students scrutinize the rhetorical devices and missing bits of information of the original story and problematize the taken-for-granted-ness of journalistic discourse. Thirdly, "a thorough training in the discounting of rhetorical persuasiveness" (Burke, 1955, p. 285) can be instigated in a "Burkean debate" where students need to prepare not only arguments "for" or "against" a given solution, but also "the third piece" that

synthesizes both perspectives. Through such exercises in synthesis, students could reflect on the strategic constructedness of arguments used in the debate and adopt a questioning stance with respect to any one-sided outlook on a complex and controversial issue. Enoch (2004) sees the above procedures as essentials for becoming 'symbol-wise' in the contemporary media-saturated world, and validates Burke's rhetorical contribution to critical pedagogy. The enlightening and liberating effect of this kind of rhetorical criticism is also related to the belief that individuals need not be 'subjected' to persuasions but can creatively construct meanings and forge identities through critical encounters with public discourses.

4 Applying Rhetorical Criticism in a CMS Seminar

According to Hunt (2003), rhetorical criticism is advised to be applied to the so-called 'worthy' texts, characterized in the following way:

> Worthy rhetorical texts are from important, interesting, creative, innovative rhetors. Worthy rhetorical texts deal with significant ideas that impact lots of citizens, perhaps profoundly. Worthy rhetorical texts fit within a time and place and impact intellectual ideological history. Worthy rhetorical texts demonstrate a transformative symbolic interaction between their creators and their auditors (p. 380).

What is more, apart from oral culture and its persuasive artifacts—notably political and courtroom speeches, critics are entitled to subject to rhetorical analysis all kinds of culturally significant literate and electronic persuasions, including editorials, pamphlets and monographs, books, docudramas, radio and television news, movies, music, and even the Internet (Hunt, 2003, p. 378).

4.1 Procedures in the Pilot Rhetorical Training and Its Final Assessment

The pilot rhetorical training was organized in 2012 at the Institute of English, Opole University, Poland. During the 15-week-long seminar course, 54 students (Polish, 80 % female—20 % male, studying English as a foreign language, majoring in CMS) were exposed to a variety of rhetorical concepts and exemplary texts to be analyzed in class. During the course, students were invited to share critical reflections and perform critical analyses either in or out of class with respect to such themes as wartime propagandas, US presidential rhetoric, protest rhetoric, hegemonic discourses, mass-mediated political communication, institutional discourse, newscasting and digital journalism, documentary, promotional discourse, (social) advertising campaigns, and (micro)blogging.

The three rhetorical traditions outlined above were introduced in lectures on presidential rhetoric and followed by exemplary rhetorical critiques, which were

demonstrated and discussed in seminars. The exemplars included: Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address (neo-Aristotelian perspective), George W. Bush's 2002 State of the Union Address "The Axis of Evil speech" (new rhetorical perspective), Barack Obama's 2008 Acceptance Speech and the coverage of 2008 election results by the *Wall Street Journal* (Burkean rhetoric). The choice of exemplary texts was motivated by such factors as currency, significance, accessibility and availability of materials.

In final assessment, students were given the task of applying a chosen tradition and its categories to write a graded paper offering a rhetorical critique of a 'worthy' text of their choice. The range of topics is too broad to report here; suffice it to say that the most popular genre was historical political speeches (e.g., FDR's fireside chats, JFK's State of the Union Addresses, Martin Luther King's sermons) or current addresses and interviews (Hillary Clinton's, Barack Obama's, John McCain's, Mitt Romney's, David Cameron's, Tony Blair's, Jose Manuel Barroso's), followed by broadsheet press coverage (US, UK, Australian papers) of internationally significant events (political summits, election results, terrorist attacks, natural disasters). Some studies were devoted to an examination of the rhetoric of such documents and policy papers as the EU's Treaty of Lisbon, or the US National Security Strategy for example. Such films as Claude Lanzmann's *Shoah,* Michael Moore's *Fahrenheit 9/11,* or Al Gore's *An Inconvenient Truth*, as well as well-known advertising campaigns (by Benetton, WWF, Dove) were also selected as worth analyzing. Some insight was derived from studies of political parties' websites (of the Tea Party, the BNP, Neo-Confederates), or of large NGOs (Greenpeace, the NRA) and fandoms. The decision what constituted a 'worthy' text was left entirely to the students.

4.2 Discussion of Students' Applications of Rhetorical Categories

The quality of the critiques in the final assessment varied, and some students needed more time and advice to complete the task than others. The following excerpts demonstrate *how* the knowledge of and the attention to rhetorical categories helped some students to arrive at a critique of manipulative maneuvers and hidden ideological stances in the texts they chose to analyze. Three quotations illustrate the students' uses of neo-Aristotelian rhetoric, two—of *New Rhetoric*-derived categories, two—of mixed approaches, one—of Burkean rhetoric. In addition, three other applications are mentioned. The selection of the examples below (11 out of 54) is guided by the high degrees of textual awareness, insight and criticality displayed by those students in their rhetorical analyses.

A large group of students have decided to use some categories of neo-Aristotelian rhetoric. For example, student MMd(7),[1] while researching the layout, language and textual arrangements of selected advertorials, points to the classical *dispositio* or sequence of text components applied to organize information in a sample of contemporary pseudo-informational texts:

> As far as the macro-linguistic level is concerned the advertorials are divided into following parts: introduction, body text, conclusion and soliciting responses. The introduction is often composed of a headline and a lead. The role of the headline is mainly to introduce the name of the sponsor, the services offered or just emphasize the issue presented in the article. The lead, on the other hand, manifests a problem that arose in society and gives an accurate description of what the text is about. The body text is a broad description of a product, service, place or any other subject by building a concrete image of it – positive or negative, depending on the intention. The conclusion contains some evaluations and short recapitulation of the main ideas presented in the body text. The most unusual, but typical, part of an advertorial is soliciting responses.

The awareness of the compositional guidelines of rhetoric has helped the student to discern the parallels between Aristotelian *taxis* and contemporary advertorials.

Another student, ADe(7), recognized (and illustrated with examples) how *pathos*-laden electronic messages were distributed by Obama 2012 campaign management to engage prospective voters:

> The reason is apparent – the pace of transmission and emotional engagement. (…) The simple picture with an accurate comment [this seat is taken] has a clear message that was forwarded to 62,320 Twitter users. The same picture was 'liked' on Facebook by 508, 409 users (…) Attractive, witty and engaging messages were spread and popularized via the Internet.

In the critique, the student underlined how such pathos-laden messages could be manipulative and might lead voters to base their ballot decisions on witty and humorous maneuvers rather than on sound political deliberation.

Student KMe(4) demystified the notion of journalistic objectivity in her paper using an *analogy* borrowed from a media researcher:

> The reporters are also not able to keep aloof of the story's subject achieving only degrees of objectivity. An example given by [reference] could be that most people can identify colors, however not everyone perceives them in the same way. (…) As the color green edges towards blue it is obvious that there are many opinions and the color might be identified by some people as green and by some people as blue. In fact, the way we view the color may be affected by many factors, such as (…) our like or dislike of a particular color or our previous interactions with it. The example of identifying colors and the way we view them may be treated as a mirror reflecting journalism and objectivity.

[1] The codes refer to student's initials, type of course taken: d—day, e—extramural, and the page(s) in the standardized printout of the critical essay where the quoted material was excerpted from. Some excerpts might include stylistic mistakes, as they were reproduced verbatim from the submitted critiques.

Here the student is aware how the mirror *analogy* and the color *example* are used by the scholar to advance a point that complete journalistic objectivity is unattainable.

With respect to the application of the categories of *New Rhetoric*, some students engaged with the *style* and *argumentative schemata* of the texts they studied and pointed to the mechanisms of *practical reasoning* applied in them. The following extract shows how student IŚd(9) reconstructed the line of reasoning behind a fragment of one of G.W. Bush's 2004 campaign speeches:

> Bush focuses on the presentation of Saddam Hussein as a threat not only to his country, but also to the whole world. When he describes Hussein, he uses hyperbolic terms such as 'madman,' 'tyrant,' 'brutal.' Bush attempts to persuade the public that Hussein is a person with whom negotiations are impossible and that he should no longer be in power. This is a premise on which Bush continues his argumentation that the primary aim of war was liberation of Iraqi people. He presumes that when Iraq becomes a free society, it will serve as a model for the rest of Middle East, which in turn will lead to the fact that every nation will be more secure and terrorists will be defeated. At this point, the President is also trying to convince the public that they liberate Iraq not only for political reasons, but primarily because they serve the deepest ideals of America.

The detailed analysis of the sequence of *arguments* above demonstrates how the student is able to see through some of the strategic *maneuvers*, *argumentative ploys* (if-then reasoning, reference to ideals) and even *vocabulary choices* the President used to achieve a specific persuasive effect. The student concludes her analysis with an observation that, although the President is able to argue convincingly, he is not arguing for a good cause (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969, p. 25).

Student KOe(9) has carried out a *comparative* analysis of the coverage of David Cameron's government in two British newspapers finding different degrees of the use of the technique of 'personalization' of politics. She notes that such deliberate accentuation or *amplification* (cf. Perelman, 1981) of personal perspectives in political coverage may amount to a manipulation:

> What is worth noticing is the fact that The Daily Telegraph presents the picture of the PM in all articles applicable to his party and the government, whereas The Guardian's editors do not present his photographs in every article. The journalists from the latter newspaper focus more on the event than on the persona of the Prime Minister. Such way of representing news [by the former newspaper] becomes a tool by means of which people are manipulated because they see and perceive what the editors want them to see.

Even though such a conclusion might seem quite strong, it is well documented in the students' critique with numerous *examples* of both visual and verbal devices that reduce politics to PM's actions taken from the two compared outlets.

Student MDe(6) bridges the neo-Aristotelian tradition and Burkean rhetoric with her attention to *style* and *terminology* in one of the European Commission President J.M. Barroso's speeches, making the following observations:

> The phrase 'European supervisory mechanism' is a kind of an euphemism. The supervisory mechanism is nothing more than a euphemistic term for the process of control over the banks in the Euro area. The use of the euphemism allows [Barroso] to avoid the negative connotations associated with the term 'control.' The formulation 'common supervisory

> decisions' creates an illusion of participation of the Member States in the process of supervision – in fact the national supervisors are (…) at the margin, while the key role is given to the European Central Bank. The analyzed euphemism clearly shows (…) the simple way in which the public can be manipulated.

The student here is aware of the misleading potential of complex phraseology and formal register of EU political discourse and uses the Burkean notion of the *terministic screen* to prove how certain words (e.g., euphemisms) can be used to obscure the actual intentions of the speaker.

Word choices, especially such choices that add *metaphorical* quality to media or political texts, have drawn the attention of many students. One of them, MCe(4), makes a point of discussing a cliché word 'hell' as used by a Holocaust executioner interviewed by Claude Lanzmann in his documentary film *Shoah*:

> The director wants to know what Suchomel thought about these events. As an answer to the questions Suchomel uses the word 'hell' to describe Treblinka. This metaphor refers to the vast number of dead people burried six or seven feet underground. The bodies were covered with a thin layer of sand and high temperatures in summer must have caused enormous stench.

The student is able to critique the use of this *cliché metaphor*, which functions as an understatement, or a way to evade responsibility. The student's point is to demonstrate that *figures of speech* must be interrogated to check to what degree they misrepresent reality.

Finally, in a specifically Burkean way student KGd(11) conducts a comparative analysis of the set of *rhetorical features* in the coverage of controversial social issues in a tabloid and a quality press outlet. This is similar to what Burke (1955) calls "revising the news" (p. 283) by identifying the slant inherent in any news story. In this fragment the student points to the sensationalizing priority of the tabloid that trumps factual information.

> Despite using numerical data to increase the level of sensation, there are examples in The Sun of omitting such information to get a similar effect. It is illustrated in the example of the following headline "Brit feared dead as Al-Qaeda's militants take BP gas plant workers hostage." The omission of the exact number of the hostages may be misleading. It may be suggestive to the reader that all of the (large group of) workers being there at the time were taken into captivity. However, it was not true, as besides those captured, there were many more, who were safe.

In this particular case the student draws attention to how including or excluding a number, a fact or a circumstance in the coverage may produce a different reading. By comparing *The Sun*'s and *The Times*' coverage of the same event, he is able to critique the *ideological underpinnings* of each editorial line. The student has also shown how the two outlets use headline patterns to help specific reader groups identify with the respective editorial lines. In this, he uses Burke's notion of *identification* through symbolic action.

There are numerous other instances in which students used their newly acquired rhetorical skills to critique various aspects of political, cultural and media texts. Some drew attention to *stylistic resources* used by authors to mystify their

ideological and/or interested positions (KHd(6)), others spotted *logical fallacies* and argumentative maneuvers, such as concluding on the base of insufficient premises (PPe(6)) or overgeneralization (JŁe(8)). The above examples demonstrate that students were able to proficiently apply rhetorical categories to enhance their CMS critiques.

4.3 Results of Students' Evaluation of Rhetorical Training

In this pilot training, the final results were not as important as obtaining information on the students' process of writing the critique and the insights and competences derived from doing this task. That is why the course closed with a semi-structured questionnaire asking students about their reflections, (self)evaluations and conclusions as regards their practice of rhetorical criticism. The following are some preliminary generalizations drawn on the basis of 50 responses:

1. Doing rhetorical criticism is assessed as (1) very difficult, (2) difficult or (3) somewhat difficult by over 80 % of students; it is also something few students had any previous training at or experience in;
2. Being able to do rhetorical criticism is considered an important skill by about 60 % of students;
3. The decision to use a given set of rhetorical categories was independent and based on previous reading and attending lectures in the case of 40 % of students, 60 % sought the advice of peers or instructors;
4. Rhetorical criticism is easier in the case of texts whose primary semiotic mode is spoken/written language rather than visuals, graphics, motion picture, sounds, music (which tend to be more polysemic, more subjectively received and less conducive to rigorous critical analysis);
5. Rhetorical criticism is more useful in the case of closer textual (discursive) analyses and less useful for thematic, culturalist analyses;
6. Rhetorical criticism is very useful for ideological analyses where the focus is to demystify hidden ideologies and naturalized meaning patterns;
7. Rhetorical criticism is deemed as easier and more insightful when students are allowed to eclectically draw from various rhetorical frameworks, rather than when they are instructed to rigidly and extensively apply one system;
8. Rhetorical criticism is most difficult to apply with respect to online materials whose (institutional) authorship is harder to determine, where the spatial and temporal aspects of context are irretrievable and message structures are non-continuous but hypertextual.

From this set of data it can be seen that rhetorical criticism turned to be a demanding but rewarding task, which often transpired in students' written responses. Their positive evaluation of the rhetorical training could be interpreted as offering some important implications for critical literacy practitioners. First, many students are aware of their deficits in critical skills and are eager to remedy them.

Secondly, although they are inexperienced critics, even at the college level, they see the point of doing critiques of various types of texts. Thirdly, they look forward to becoming more empowered to shape the discourses around them, to articulate their positions and to influence other people.

5 Conclusions

This project was designed to introduce students to the practice of rhetorical criticism, to advance the knowledge of rhetorical traditions and to verify to what extent it can be applicable in an advanced EFL classroom to develop critical literacy. The restricted scope of the rhetorical training undertaken in this pilot did not allow to determine if any of the rhetorical traditions introduced to students—neo-Aristotelian, New Rhetorical or Burkean—exceed the others in their usefulness and applicability for the tasks undertaken by students. One finding can be established, namely that Burkean criticism, which involves the questions of agency, identity and dialogue, should be performed with regard to texts whose contextual and cultural embedding is familiar to students. In addition, the results of evaluation can be interpreted to mean that the more traditions and categories are presented during the training, the more confident students feel when confronted with an assignment to do rhetorical criticism. However, it has been shown that students are likely to draw eclectically from the rhetorical categories they have been exposed to without high regard for the provenance of given categories, insofar as they find them relevant and applicable.

In a broader perspective, this paper has looked at how the knowledge of rhetorical traditions and procedures of rhetorical criticism, particularly in the context of investigating style and argumentation in public communication, is likely to extend students' capacity for critical literacy. Critical literacy has been theorized here as a model of advanced language and communication skills applicable to specific contexts of interrogating cultural practices as well as semiotic and argumentative resources used in mediated discourses that Cultural and Media Studies students are supposed to be proficient at. Critical literacy draws from critical awareness and reflectivity and requires rigorous analytic skills. The development of such advanced literacy skills, as was shown here, could proceed through the practice of rhetorical criticism, which in Poland would amount to bringing (some) rhetoric back to the curriculum.

Using rhetorical training for critical literacy complies with the rhetorical tradition itself, where, despite differences between various schools and movements, theorists generally stress the need to educate for citizenship. This ideal is also cherished by many in current humanistic education and scholarship. However, in view of the growing specialization, Cicero's ideal citizen-orator with the knowledge of many fields, the memory of past events, the mastery of human psychology, and a fine aesthetic taste is increasingly hard to find, even in the humanities. Even if offering some training in rhetoric were a solution to critical literacy deficits, Aristotle's (2010)

amoral approach to rhetoric as "a study of the available means of persuasion" (pp. 25–27) in the public arena could be deemed questionable, particularly in highly hierarchical and/or fragmented societies in which unequal access to quality education is often the case. Since giving a select group advanced instruction in the tools of persuasion is laden with ethical dilemmas, the question, derived from Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria*, how to channel rhetoric for the service of the public good is still open to discussion.

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Cultural Problems in Literary Translation from English into Arabic

Wafa abu Hatab

Abstract Translation is a process of cultural transfer that involves more than simple search for a semantic equivalent. Sapir (Culture, language and personality. University of California Press, Los Angeles, 1956) states that "no two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached" (p. 69). Translators, therefore, have to take the sociolinguistic aspects of language such as politeness, terms of address as well as aspects related to discourse into consideration being aware of how these concepts are manifested in each culture. Since literature is usually viewed as a cultural portrait of nations and communities, it poses a great challenge to the translator who is sometimes torn between the aesthetics and cultural component of the source text and the culture of the target text reader. The present study investigates the cultural problems involved in literary translation from English into Arabic. It analyzes university students' translations of English literary texts in an attempt to identify the basic problems Jordanian translation students encounter, strategies and processes students follow to account for these problems. The study revealed that poetry was the most difficult genre for students who relied basically on paraphrase as a translation strategy. Different strategies were employed in translating narrative texts such as literal translation, substitution, omission and free translation.

Keywords Literary translation · Translation strategies · Cultural differences

1 Introduction

Translators do not simply translate words since translation is mediation between two cultures not only two languages. The good translator is that one who can help the target text reader understand the source text culture. Venuti (1995) states that

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> A translated text, whether prose or poetry, fiction or nonfiction, is judged acceptable by most publishers, reviewers and readers when it reads fluently, when the absence of any linguistics or stylistic peculiarities makes it seem transparent, giving the appearance that it reflects the foreign writer's personality or intention or the essential meaning of the foreign text. (p. 1)

This view of translation as a process of cultural transfer is adopted by Ashcroft, Griffins, and Tiffin (1995), Gentzler (2001), Venuti (2000). Such a process demands sufficient knowledge of both the source and the target cultures. Nida (2001) states that "[f] or truly successful translation, biculturalism is even more important than bilingualism" (p. 82). Literature is considered as manifestation of nations' cultures, beliefs and values. It is the vehicle via which human experience is encapsulated. Literary translation provides a means via which different cultures are introduced to each other. It is defined as "a kind of aesthetically-oriented mediated bilingual communication, which aims at producing a target text intended to communicate its own form, correspondent with the source text, and accordant with contemporary literary and translational norms of the receptor culture" (Burkhanov, 2003, p. 139). For Wechsler (1998) it is as an art:

> What makes it so odd an art is that physically a translator does exactly the same thing as a writer. The translator's problem is that he is a performer without a stage, a performer who, when all his work is done, has something that looks just like the original, just like a play or a song or a composition, nothing but ink on a page. (p. 4)

Goethe called literary translation "one of the most important and dignified enterprises in the general commerce of the world" (cited in Lefevere, 1992, p. 25).

According to Newmark (2004), literary translation is different from non-literary translation in being allegorical and aesthetic while the other is factual and traditionally functional. Each has different cultural backgrounds, occasionally referred to as 'the two cultures', which are detrimentally opposed to each other. Moreover, Newmark (2004) states that while "literary [translation] is viewed as traditional, old-fashioned, academic, ivory-tower, out of touch, the non-literary is philistine, market-led, coal in the bath [and] uncivilized" (p. 11).

In *The Task of the Translator,* Benjamin (cited in Venuti, 2000) draws attention to the existence of cultural differences among languages referring to them as 'symbolizations' that are not context free maintaining that "though concealed and fragmentary, it [something that cannot be communicated] is an active force in life as the symbolized thing itself, whereas it inhabits linguistic creations only in symbolized form" (pp. 21–22).

2 Cultural Issues in Literary Translation

The translators encounter the complexities of differences between cultures; the subject of 'cultural difference' is very problematic and Benjamin (1968) has described it as "the irresolution, or liminality, of 'translation', the element of

resistance in the process of transformation, that element in a translation which does not lend itself to translation" (p. 75). Ginter (2002) investigated cultural problems in literary translation in selected English and Polish materials and their Russian, Polish and English translations. Her study revealed that all translated texts are hybrids since each of them can be viewed as a transplant of the source text into an alien, target culture environment. Al-Hasnawi (2007) investigated the 'untranslatability' of some Arabic metaphors into English. His study revealed that most metaphors are shaped by the socio-cultural beliefs and attitudes of a specific culture. 'Cognitive equivalence' was suggested as the best way to translate metaphors.

Several terms were coined to refer to culture bound terms. Baker (1992) used the term 'culture-specific' concepts while Newmark (1988a) used the term 'cultural words'. The term 'realia' was used by Robinson (1997) and Schäffner and Wiesmann (2001). Fernández-Guerra (2012) tackled translation problems students faced when translating literary texts from English into Spanish and vice versa. The study focused on the analysis of culture bound terms. It revealed that students' strategies were borrowings, descriptions and adaptations. Al-Masri (2009) investigated cultural inequivalences in the translation of Arabic literary texts basing her study on a corpus based on a collection of Arabic short stories written by Youssef Idris. Figurative language (metaphors, idiomatic expressions, proverbs) in two texts: Arabic (the source text) and English (the target text) were analyzed. The study revealed that cultural bound terms were not rendered successfully.

Al-Safi (1994) states that literary translation should be dynamic translation that has the following features:

1. Be dynamic rather than static;
2. Be creative and aesthetically informative/communicative;
3. Comply with the target linguistic system;
4. Be appropriate, i.e. fit the context of the message;
5. Be natural and free from translations;
6. Be acceptable to the target audience or literary readership and;
7. Aspire to occupy a position in target literature as any other original works of art.

Translated contexts could be considered as hybrid texts, which are the outcomes of the translation process. They entail

> features that somehow seem out of place/strange/unusual for the receiving culture, i.e. the target culture. These features, however, are not the result of a lack of translational competence or examples of 'translations', but they are evidence of conscious and deliberate decisions by the translator. Although the text is not yet fully established in the target culture (because it does not conform to established norms and conventions), a hybrid text is accepted in its target culture because it fulfills its intended purpose in the communicative situation (at least for a certain time). (Schäffner & Adab, 1997, p. 325)

3 Strategies of Translating Literary Texts

Literary texts include three basic genres: poetry, fiction and drama. They are imaginative, thus they can have several interpretations that might vary from a reader to another. Different translation strategies have been proposed to account for the aesthetics of literary texts. Table 1 provides an overview of these strategies.

Venuti (cited in Schäffner & Kelly-Holmes, 1995, p. 4) proposes two strategies for translating literary texts, namely foreignizing and domesticating. While domestication aims at making foreign culture familiar to the reader in the target culture, foreignization, on the other hand, focuses on the foreign culture and (cultural and linguistic) differences. Venuti (1995) defines domestication as "an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values, bringing the author back home, while foreignization is defined as an ethnodeviant pressure on those (cultural) values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad" (p. 20). According to Venuti (1995), domestication involves translating in a way that minimizes the foreignness of the translated text. He believed that a translator should leave the reader in peace, as much as possible, and he should move the author toward him.

Graedler (2010) proposed four translation strategies: (i) making up a new word, (ii) explaining the meaning of the source language (SL) expression in lieu of translating it, (iii) preserving the SL term intact, and (iv) replacing it using any term in the target language (TL) that has the same 'relevance'. Newmark (1981) distinguishes between two types of translation, "communicative translation addresses

Table 1 Translation strategies

Author/s	Classification	Distinction/Focus
Venuti (cited in Schäffner & Kelly-Holmes, 1995)	Foreignizing	Foreign culture
	Domesticating	Target culture
Graedler (2010)	Four strategies	
Newmark (1988b)	Communicative translation	Target text reader
	Semantic translation	Preserves the source text culture
Hervey & Higgins (1992)	Exoticism	Adaptation of cultural features
	Cultural transplantation	Naturalization of foreign culture
Baker (1992)	Seven strategies	
Weston (1991)	Functional equivalence	Source culture
	Formal equivalence or linguistic equivalence	'Word-for-word' translation
	Transcription or borrowing	Transliterating the original term
	Descriptive or self-explanatory translation	Uses generic terms

itself solely to the second reader, who does not anticipate difficulties or obscurities, and would expect a generous transfer of foreign elements into his own culture as well as his language where necessary"; while semantic translation "remains within the original culture and assists the reader only in its connotations if they constitute the essential human message of the text" (p. 39).

Hervey and Higgins (1992) propose five types of cultural transposition: calque, communicative translation, cultural borrowing, cultural transplantation, and exoticism. According to them, cultural transposition involves "the various degrees of departure from literal translation that one may resort to in the process of transferring the contents of a ST into the context of a target culture" (p. 28). They distinguish between *exoticism* (a minimal adaptation of linguistic and cultural features) and *cultural transplantation* (a complete 'naturalisation' of the foreign culture). The term *cultural transposition* is used for the main types and degrees of departure from literal translation that one may resort to in the process of transferring the content of a source text (ST) from one culture to another: "Any degree of cultural transposition involves the choice of features indigenous to the TL and the target culture in preference to features with their roots in the source culture" (ibid., p. 33).

Baker (1992, pp. 21–42) provides ten types of non-equivalence and eight kinds of translation strategies (or methods) commonly adopted by professional translators. The eight kinds of strategies are (1) translation by a more general word; (2) translation by a more neutral/less expressive word; (3) translation by cultural substitution; (4) translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation; (5) translation by paraphrase using related words; (6) translation by paraphrase using unrelated words; (7) translation by omission; and (8) translation by illustration.

Newmark (1988b, pp. 82–114) provides the following translation strategies:

- Transference involves transferring an SL word to a TL text: it includes transliteration.
- Naturalization: it adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL.
- Cultural equivalent: replaces a cultural word in the SL with a TL one.
- Functional equivalent: the use of a culture-neutral word.
- Descriptive equivalent: the cultural bound term is translated into several words.
- Componential analysis: comparing an SL word with a TL word.
- Synonymy: near TL equivalent *through-translation* that involves literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations and components of compounds. It can also be called calque or loan translation.
- Shifts or transpositions: it involves a change in the grammar from SL to TL.
- Modulation: it involves reproducing the message of the original text in the TL text in accordance with the current norms of the TL.
- Recognized translation: involves use of the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term.
- Compensation: the translator compensates for the loss of meaning in one part of a sentence in another part.

- Paraphrase: the meaning of the cultural bound terms is explained in much more details than that of *descriptive equivalent.*
- Couplets: it occurs when the translator combines two different procedures.

Weston (1991, pp. 19–34) provides four strategies to deal with cultural bound terms that include: *functional equivalence* that involves using a referent in the target culture that has a similar function in the source culture [it is considered by Weston (1991) as "the ideal method of translation" (p. 23)]; *formal equivalence* or *linguistic equivalence*, which is a word-for-word translation; *transcription* or *borrowing*, i.e. reproducing or, where necessary, transliterating the original term; and *descriptive* or *self-explanatory* translation, which uses generic terms rather than cultural bound terms to convey the meaning.

4 Method and Discussion

The present study investigated the cultural problems involved in literary translation from English into Arabic. It analyzed translations made by university students enrolled in the literary translation course from English into Arabic. The questions tackled could be specifically stated as follows:

1. What are the basic problems Jordanian translation students encounter when dealing with the cultural component in translating literary texts from English into Arabic?
2. What strategies and processes do students follow to account for these problems?
3. Which literary genre is the most difficult for students?

Translation assignments and final exams were analyzed with emphasis on the cultural component and the way students dealt with it. Since the study was basically descriptive, no statistical analysis was involved as it was basically diagnostic, aiming at identifying the cultural problems and accounting for them. The three basic literary genres covered in the exams and assignments were investigated including students' translations of English poems, stories, novels and plays. The following sections present basic cultural problems encountered in these three genres.

4.1 Fiction

Since fiction relies heavily on narration, the translator has to make a decision regarding being source-language-oriented or target-language-oriented. When translating from English into Arabic, the translator's job is even more demanding since these two languages belong to two different language families and have different syntactic, phonological and lexical systems.

The following extract from Lawrence's (1913) *Sons and Lovers* constituted a cultural problem for the students. The mother here refers to her daughter-in-law as someone who is taking her son away not allowing her to have her share in him. Paul's obsession with his mother is interpreted by many critics in the light of Freudian theory. The following translated samples avoided such interpretation totally. This could be due to students' inability to relate the extract to Freudian theory or their preference not to get involved in a cultural dispute. The mother in the Arabic Islamic culture is given a high status that is emphasized in the Holy Quran as well as Prophet Mohammad's Hadith (Sayings) as shown below:

Heaven lies under the feet of your mother.

'She exults—she exults as she carries him off from me,' Mrs. Morel cried in her heart when Paul had gone. 'She's not like an ordinary woman, who can leave me my share in him. She wants to absorb him. She wants to draw him out and absorb him till there is nothing left of him, even for himself. He will never be a man on his own feet—she will suck him up.' So the mother sat, and battled and brooded bitterly.

"تقفز فرحا... تقفز فرحا وقد خطفته مني"
اعتصر قلب السيدة مورل ألما عند رحيل بول, "هي ليست امرأة كباقي النساء التي من الممكن أن تسمح لي بأن أحظى بوجوده في حياتي. فهي تود ابتلاعه, تود لو أن تسحبه من نفسه وتبتلعه حتى لا يبقى منه لنفسه شيئا, ولن يستطيع الوقوف على قدميه مجددا فهي سوف تمتصه". ثم جلست الأم مهزومة وأكملت التطريز بمرارة.

She is not like other women who could allow me to have him in my life.

The student translated the situation in the light of the common view of a mother in the Arabic culture where the mother considers her daughter-in-law as someone who will come and steal her son from her. Such a view is clear in the following proverb where a mother says:

ربيي يا خايبة للغايبة

Literally, you loser bring up your son for the absentee. The absentee here is the future daughter-in-law who will come and the loser is the mother who wastes her time in being attentive and caring for her son who eventually goes to the absentee, his wife.

Another cultural issue that students might face could be directly related to religious beliefs and could sometimes constitute a challenge as in the following examples where the idea of dying and becoming something entire is totally lost. The idea of death in Arabic Islamic culture is associated with either becoming part of the past or of the other unknown world, not becoming part of something entire.

Perhaps we feel like that when we die and become a part of something entire, whether it is sun and air, or goodness and knowledge.

عندما نموت ونعود للجزء الذي بدأ على الرغم من ذلك انه ليس الشمس والهواء.

When we die and go to the part that started although it is not sun or air.

ربما نشعر بذلك عندما نموت ويأتينا جزء من السعادة القادمة من الشمس والهواء.

We might feel it when we die and have some happiness coming from sun and air.
ربما نشعر بذلك عندما نموت ونصبح جزء من الماضي.
We might feel it when we die and become part of the past
ربما نشعر بذلك عندما نموت ونصبح جزءا من العالم الاخر.
We might feel it when we die and become part of the hereafter.

Another cultural issue was related to the use of figurative language which is challenging in one's native language, let alone translation. Different strategies were employed by the students to translate metaphors as shown by the following examples.

4.1.1 Avoidance/Omission

Some students avoided to translate the metaphor as shown in the following extract:

A vague feeling of impending misfortune impressed me.
.. شعور غريب غمرني
Back translation: *A weird feeling overwhelmed me.*
شعور غامض اثر في بعمق
A mysterious feeling deeply affected me.
'Impeding misfortune' was not translated.

4.1.2 Substitution

Students used a lexical item as a literal substitute for the metaphor as in the following examples. 'A weird feeling of a coming calamity was accompanying me,' was translated as:

انها ليلة متعبة
It was a wild night
انها ليلة مرعبة
It is an exhausting night.
لقد كانت ليلة مرعبة حقا
It is a terrifying night.
It was really a terrifying night.
ظهرت صرخة قوية .
It was a stormy night.

4.1.3 Paraphrase

Students used longer descriptions in Arabic as shown by the following examples:

There burst forth the wild scream of a terrified woman.
كان هناك صوت حاد من امرأة مرتبكة .
There was a sharp voice of a confused woman.
سمعت صوت لامرأة تصرخ بشدة
I heard a voice of a woman screaming strongly.
ظهرت صرخة قوية .
A strong scream appeared.
And my eyes seemed as if they had beheld the fount of fruition, and borrowed beams from the lustrous ripple.

The metaphor 'fount of fruition' was not rendered successfully as it was translated as:

وبدت عيناي كأنهما شاهدتا ينبوع الشباب واستعادت بريقها من الاشعة المنكسرة عليه .

Youth fountain
وبدت عيناي كأنهما تحملان مرح الحياة.
Joy of life
وبدت عيناي كأنهما تريان ينبوع الطبيعة وتستعيرها من الجمال الرائع.
Fountain of nature
وبدت عيناي كأنهما رأت شباب مزهر.
Prosperous youth.
وكأن عيناي نيران وكان عيناي شباب متجدد.
Fires of renewed youth
عيناي مبتهجتان وكان وقت قطف الثمار واغصان تتمايل بتموج لامع.
It was time to pick fruits

وبدت عيناي مليئة بالطموح والسعادة وتستعير الايماءات من كل ما هو جميل وزاه.

Happiness and ambition
وبدت عيناي وكأنهما قد اخذتا شيئا من الامل واستعادتا لمعان قوس قزح.
My eyes were as if they took some hope and regained the shining of a rainbow.

4.1.4 Collocation

Another problem was related to collocation as shown by the following example where the equivalent to charming in Arabic is not usually used to modify a chair. Most students used adjectives that are usually used to describe a chair namely, جميل 'beautiful' and مدهش 'amazing' while only one student used ساحر 'charming'

What a charming chair.
ما هذا المقعد الحزين؟
What is this sad chair?
ما اجمله من كرسي؟
What a beautiful chair
ما هذا الكرسي المدهش؟
What an amazing chair
يا له من مقعد ساحر
What a charming chair

4.1.5 Literal Translation

Literal translation was used as the last resort as shown by the following examples where the different examples of Arabic translation for the same quote are presented.

And in the end, of course, a true war story is never about war. It's about sunlight.

وفي النهاية بالتأكيد انها قصة الحرب الصحيحة .غير متعلقة بالحرب وانما عن الأمل
في النهاية بالطبع، انها كانت قصة مشرقة.
وفي النهاية طبعا ، قصة الحرب تكون عن ضوء الشمس.
وفي النهاية وطبعا لم تكن قصة الحرب قصة حقيقية بل كانت عن شروق الشمس

It is about the special way dawn spreads out on a river when you know you must cross the river.

انها عن طريق مميزة ينتشر فيها الفجر على النهر
كان القصد منها هو الطريقة الخاصة التي تذهب روحك الى نهر وتعرف ان عليك عبوره.

Once upon the time, and a very good time it was.
كان يا ما كان عندما حان الزمان
Once upon the time when it was the time.
كان يا ما كان في قديم الزمان عندما كان الزمان زمان
Once upon the time when the time was time.
كان يا ما كان في زمن الازدهار والعنان
Once upon the time when there was prosperity.
كان يا ما كان في يوم جميل من الايام
Once upon a time in a beautiful day.
كان يا ما كان في اجمل الاوقات
Once upon a time in the most beautiful times.
كان يا ما كان في اوقات سعيدة
Once upon a time in happy times.
كان يا ما كان في وقت بهي الالوان.
Once upon a time in a light coloured times.

Another cultural issue has to do with collocation of colours. The adjective 'fresh' is not used in Arabic to describe the way people get dressed. Fresh collocates with

food, flowers, personality but hardly with appearance. Students used substitution and description to account for this problem as shown by the following example:

Arthur Ashmore was a fresh-coloured thick-necked English gentleman.
كان السيد ارثر اشمور ناصع البياض وذو رقبة عريضة.
Arthur Ashmore was very shining white and had a wide neck.
بدى السيد السيد ارثر اشمور يرتدي الوانا زاهية.
Mr. Arthur Ashmore appeared wearing light colours.
كان السيد ارثر اشمور بالوان زاهية متفائلا ذو الرقبة العريضة.
Mr. Arthur Ashmore was in light colours optimistic and with wide neck.
السيد ارثر اشمور كان مفعما بالالوان.
Mr. Arthur Ashmore was full of colours
كان السيد ارثر اشمور ثخين الرقبة وكانت الوانه منعشة.
Mr. Arthur Ashmore had a thick neck and his colours were fresh.

4.1.6 Idioms

Idioms have always been problematic for Arab learners of English especially the cultural bound idioms. Avoidance, literal translation and substation were used as shown by the following examples:

She had built herself a new life and he had traded away what remained of his old life.
بنت لنفسها بيتا جديدا وهو تاجر بعيدا عن اي شيء.
She built herself a new house and he worked in trade away from anything.
وقد باع ما تبقى من حياة .
And he sold what was left of life.
وقد ضحى بما تبقى .
And he sacrificed what was left.
وقد تاجر بعيدا.
And he worked in trade far away.
قد بادلها الطريق
He exchanged the road with her.
وكان قد قايض ما تبقى من حياته السابقة
And he had exchanged all left from his previous life.

4.2 Drama

This genre was easier for students since it basically depends on dialogue. Students, however, faced problems on deciding which strategy to adopt and which variety of language to use. While some preferred domestications, others preferred foreign-ization. Both groups, however, encountered problems in implementing both strategies.

As far as adaptation is concerned, students could not decide which variety of language to use, standard or colloquial. While some used substation as a strategy, others opted for domestication as shown in the following examples:

Do you mean to say that you would sell your daughter for 50£?
انت بتقصد انك تحكي بدك تبيع بنتك ب 50 يورو
5O Euro
اتقصد ان تقول انك ستبيع ابنتك مقابل 50 دولار
50 dollars
Adaptation to Jordanian culture.
انت قصدك تقول بدك تبيع بنتك ب 50 دينار.
50 dinars.
هل قصدك تقول انك سوف تبيع ابنتك بخمسين فرنكا؟
50Franc
But if Liza is going to have a bit out of this, why not me too!

لكن طالما ان ليزا تستطيع الحصول على النقود من خلاله لماذا لا افعل ذلك انا ايضا .

Standard Arabic
بس اذا ليزا رح تستفيد ولو شوي من هالشي فليش انا لا يعني؟
Colloquial Arabic
Have you no morals man?
ولك انت ما عندك اخلاق؟
Colloquial Jordanian Arabic.

Another cultural problem had to do with taboos describing women for which avoidance strategy was used most of the time while few students used transliteration either to avoid using the term or because they could not get the intended meaning as illustrated by the following example:

Snake: Madam, by this time Lady Brittle is the Talk of half the Town—and I doubt not in a week the Men will toast her as a Demirep.

سنك: سيدتي ستكون السيدة برتال خلال هذا الوقت قد نشرت الخبر لنصف المدينة ولن يكون هناك شك ان معظم الرجال سيشربون نخبها كما حصل مع (ديمريب).

Another problem was related to collocation as shown by the following example. 'Way' and 'road' are confused because they are rendered by the word *طريق* in Arabic.

Not in a general way.
ليس في الطريق العام

4.3 Poetry

Poetry is a literary genre that has its distinctive and challenging features due to its aesthetic nature. In the following extract, students were unable to translate the title probably because they were not familiar with its cultural context.

The Waste Land (Eliot, 1962)
THE BURIAL OF THE DEAD
April is the cruellest month, breeding
Lilacs out of the dead land, mixing
Memory and desire, stirring
Dull roots with spring rain
الارض المفقودة
The lost land
دفن الموتى
Burying the dead
نيسان اكثر الشهور قساوة
ينبت ازهار الليلك من ارض جرداء
يمزج الذكريات مع الرغبات
و يبعثر الجذور الشاحبة بمطر الربيع

الأرض الجرداء
The barren land

دفن الموتى، نيسان هو أقسى الشهور، يزهر فيه الليلي من الأرض الميتة، فهو يمزج بين الذاكرة والرغبة،وإثارة الجذور الجافة بمطر الربيع

The title *The Waste Land* is a basic symbol that dates back to 1922. It stands for devastated land bringing to mind all the associations of landscape blighted by drought and famine, human starvation, misery and death. The four translations failed to capture the real meaning of the word 'cruelest' as used by Eliot which is related to the status of human sexuality at that time referring to it negatively.

Another cultural problem is related to social customs. Since drinking is prohibited in Islam, the verb يشرب (drink) is sometimes followed by الكحول (wine) to distinguish it from other drinks as shown in the following example. The word 'Sprite' is translated as غازيا مشروبا (soft drinks).

I went to a birthday party
But I remembered what you said
You told me not to drink at all
So I had a Sprite instead.
لحفلة عيد ميلاد ذهبت
اخبرني ان لا اشرب الكحول بعناد
فشربت مشروبا غازيا بلا ميعاد

In the following example, the student gives priority to rhyme transliterating the SL word 'Sprite' to rhyme with a word that does not exist in the SL.

فشربت سبرايت
So I drank Sprite
وشعرت بسعادة لساعات
And I felt happy for hours.

The word ‘Sprite’ is confused with spirits:

He told me not to drink everything
اخ برذ ي ان لا اشرب كل شي
But I have spirits.
ولكن لدي مشروبات روحية
اخبرني ان لا اشرب الكحول
He told me not to drink alcohol
ولذلك بعض الصودا احتسيت
So I had some soda

In the following example, the student adapted the translation to Islamic culture, which considers drinking as the basic source of all sins.

اخبرني ان لا اقرب شربا
He told me not to approach drinks
فشرب الخمر يصطنع البلاء
Since drinking wine causes misfortune
حذرتني من المشروبات الروحية
فاستبدلتها بواحدة غازية
She warned me against spirit drinks
So I replaced them with soft drinks
I got into my own car
Sure to get home in one piece.
متأكد اني سأعود للمنزل قطعة واحدة
I am sure I will go home one piece.
جميعهم غابوا عن الوعي الا انا
قدت سيارتي لاعود للمنزل بهنا
They all fainted except me
I drove my car to go home happily

Gender issues are clear in the following translation where the female translator added the feminine suffix to the adjective (ثملة) drunk.

فعلمت اني قد جعلت لصحبتي معنى
So I knew I had made my company meaningful
بعدم القيادة وانا ثملة
By not driving when drunk
لأصل سليمة الى بيتي
To reach my home safe

Metaphor was also another problematic issue in translating poetry from English into Arabic. In the following example, the source of the problem was related to the polysemous aspect of the words ‘poor’ and ‘player’. Students could not choose the most appropriate equivalent.

Life’s but a walking shadow, a poor player.
الحياة مشية مظلمة ،لاعب ضعيف.
Life is a dark walk, a weak player.
الحياة لا تبقى سوى ظل يمشي.

What remains of life is a walking shadow.
حياة لكن الظل يمشي ،ممثل ضعيف
Life but the shadow walks, a weak actor.

In Arabic the word ضعيف could be used to describe both physical and mental states. The word 'poor' should have been translated as مسكين not فقير 'with no money'.

5 Conclusions

The present study tackled the problems some Jordanian translation students faced when translating English literary texts into Arabic with sole emphasis on the cultural aspects. Students' translations were analyzed and problems were classified in the three literary genres that the translation assignments covered. Since literary texts are demanding for both native and non-native speakers due to their aesthetic features and dense cultural components, rendering the intended meaning conveyed in literary texts was found to be highly problematic for university translation students. The most difficult genre for students was poetry and the easiest was drama. Students implemented many strategies in dealing with the cultural components of the literary texts. These strategies were avoidance, substitution, paraphrase, transliteration, adaptation and literal translation. Further research is recommended on a detailed study of each genre as well as the problems involved in translating Arabic literary texts into English.

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