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Affective factors
in foreign language learning and teaching

edited by

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Dla prof. dr hab. Teresy Siek-Piskozub
– z wdzięcznością, szacunkiem i przyjaźnią
uczniowie i współpracownicy

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INTRODUCTION

This special issue of *Neofilolog* is a festschrift to honor Professor Teresa Siek-Piskozub, an eminent scholar whose work has guided and inspired her students and colleagues, applied linguists in Poland. Since the affective dimension in learning processes and language education has been among her interests as a researcher and as a teacher (e.g., Siek-Piskozub, 2016), this work is dedicated to the role of affective factors in language instruction.

The affective domain in second and foreign language learning and teaching has long been recognized as an important area of theoretical, practical and empirical investigations. Learners' and teachers' feelings, emotions, attitudes, self-esteem, motivation, as well as other affective factors, have been found to considerably influence the processes and outcomes of learning, often being responsible for the success or failure of learners' endeavours (Arnold, 2011; Arnold, Brown, 1999; Dewaele, 2011). Although these concepts have been explored for half a century now, the results of studies in the affective domain area still open up a multitude of avenues for further examinations. One reason for this is the complexity of this field and of a variety of the specific factors that it encompasses. Another reason is the context-dependent nature of affectivity in language learning, which makes any investigation unique and worthwhile in the composition of an overall picture of the field. Therefore, the specific roles that affective factors play in language learning and ways of addressing them in language education continue to be significant strands of inquiry.

This volume comprises twelve articles that tackle various dimensions within this broad inquiry. The initial three articles are theoretical in scope and include valuable considerations underlying the affective domain in language learning and teaching. The article by **Jane Arnold**, by outlining the main issues in the topic of affect, opens the volume and acts as a preface to it. Arnold stresses that affect in the context of education embraces both individual factors and an interpersonal dimension, hence it is the teacher's role to facilitate

learners' growth by arranging a confidence-building climate in the classroom. Such an environment can stimulate genuine L2 communication and enhance learners' motivation. **Hanna Komorowska** in her article discusses the concepts of L2 Self, L2 Ideal self and L2 Motivational Self Systems in relation to L2 research. Making references to various examples of well-known people who experienced situations posing threats to their linguistic identity, she explores the notions of language maintenance, language loss or changes of the dominant language. The practical implications of this discussion include the need to develop self-awareness and tolerance toward other people's identities, as well as intercultural sensitivity, in L2 learners. The focus of the article by **Adriana Biedroń** is on the dynamic interplay between affective factors and strictly cognitive ones, such as language learning aptitude, in learning a language. Although research on the relationships among different groups of factors has been scarce, certain correlations have been discovered, for example, between aptitude and traits such as personality, empathy and tolerance of ambiguity. High levels of motivation, self-regulation and autonomy are also found in successful learners.

The following group of articles has a more practical orientation, presenting suggestions for a variety of didactic options for addressing the affective domain in L2 learning. **Małgorzata Pamuła-Behrens** and **Katarzyna Morena**, discussing the challenges of L2 learning by immigrant children, particularly in the Polish educational context, outline the benefits, principles, and practical suggestions for an implementation of the JES-PL Method. Drawing upon self-determination theory and building learners' autonomy, competence and relatedness, the method is an important aid for the development of the language of schooling in immigrant learners, necessary for effective functioning in their new environment. **Katarzyna Karpińska-Szaj** and **Jolanta Sujecka-Zając** in their article elaborate on the benefits of didactic dialog as an interactive technique which enables student-student and teacher-student collaboration. Its aim is to enhance learners' linguistic awareness and metacognitive skills, and, most importantly, to involve them more fully in the L2 learning process. Making references to their own previous research, the authors demonstrate how didactic dialog evokes reflective thinking in learners and potentially leads to an improvement in the management of their learning. **Danuta Wiśniewska** explores ways of using the linguistic landscape that surrounds L2 learners as a stimulus to express emotions in the target language. The linguistic landscape includes, for example, advertising and political banners, graffiti, captions on monuments, and other signs in the target language, which can serve as springboards for discussions, role-plays, vocabulary practice, writing tasks, and many other forms of L2 teaching techniques, creating opportunities of authentic affective exchanges in the L2. **Paweł Scheffler** and **Wolfgang Butzkamm** offer a re-evaluation of pattern practice as part of classroom

procedures that help learners achieve fluency in L2 use. Their focus is on bilingual drills as a specific pattern practice technique which combines a focus on form with a focus on meaning. Among the benefits of this didactic option is that it can evoke positive emotions, such as interest and enjoyment, in learners. The authors provide a number of relevant examples to illustrate how bilingual drills can be skillfully implemented in communicative lessons.

The final group of articles in this collection comprises five empirical texts in which the authors report their study findings. **Ariadna Strugielska**, in an attempt to investigate the relationship between learners' affective domain and their multidimensional cognition, compared the affective responses evoked in native-speaker users of English and advanced EFL learners in the processing of the English word "chair". The learners' conceptualizations of the item appeared to be more varied, with the affective dimension revealed more frequently, than in the native-speakers' responses. This points to the uniqueness of non-native speakers' conceptual systems and the important role that affect plays in them. The affective side of a specific learning task, writing MA papers, is the topic of **Aleksandra Wach's** longitudinal diary study. The qualitative data in the form of the students' diary entries revealed a high number of both positive and negative emotions that accompanied the writers throughout the assignment. The data point to a dynamic nature of the emotional responses to the challenges of the cognitively demanding task, as well as to a range of affective strategies that the participants resorted to in order to successfully complete it. **Danuta Gabryś-Barker's** article reports on a partial replication study, in which the data from a published study by other researchers (Sağlam, Sali, 2013) were compared with those obtained through the author's own investigation. The study aimed to explore the perceptions of Polish and Turkish EFL pre-service teachers of the role of a learning environment. The comparative analysis indicated that while the Turkish sample conceptualized a classroom in a more traditional, teacher-centered manner, learner-centered and socio-psychological perspectives on a learning environment prevailed among the Polish pre-service teachers. The teacher perspective is also present in the article by **Krystyna Droździał-Szelest**, who administered a questionnaire to a group of in-service teachers of English with the aim of investigating their motivations behind enrolling in a postgraduate program as a way of pursuing professional development. The responses revealed an awareness of the need to develop professionally, and both instrumental and intrinsic/personal motives of the participants' decisions. Moreover, participation in the courses, through their stimulating content and the social dimension, turned out to be a motivating factor and a source of further inspiration for the respondents' teaching careers. The final article in the volume, written by **Mirosław Pawlak**, reports the findings of a questionnaire study involving L2 teachers which explored the respondents' awareness

of individual factors in their students as well as their readiness to take these factors into account in providing instruction. The obtained data showed some familiarity with the concept of individual variation, but rather limited ways of getting information about learners' individual profiles. The teachers admitted to adjusting their didactic procedures to learners' factors, such as proficiency, learning styles, motivation, and a few others. The researcher concludes that although some sensitivity to learner individual variation was revealed in the study sample, the teachers' competence in this respect could be much more profound.

It is our hope that the variety of subtopics within the general topic of the affective domain in L2 learning and teaching offered in this volume will make it both useful and enjoyable to the readers. We truly believe that the collection of articles will provide a source of reflection about teaching foreign languages, and, hopefully, an inspiration for undertaking further explorations into the role of affect in learning.

We would like to express our appreciation to the authors for contributing the articles, and to the reviewers for their insightful comments which offered useful guidance to the authors and to us in the process of editing the volume. We are also grateful to Professor Katarzyna Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, the Dean of the Faculty of English at Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, for being so positive about this project and for supporting it financially.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF AFFECT IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Abstract

As language teachers, we have to pay attention to many things in our work but cognitive aspects of foreign or second language learning cannot provide all the information we need. If we also give attention to the affective domain, this can make our teaching more effective. In this article we will be considering some of the affective factors and exploring how they influence the process of language learning. Special emphasis will be placed on implications for teachers in the classroom.

Keywords: emotions, motivation, self-esteem, anxiety, group dynamics, confidence, communication

Słowa kluczowe: emocje, motywacja, poczucie własnej wartości, lęk, dynamika grupy, pewność siebie, komunikacja

Cognitive aspects of the student have always been considered a basic factor in learning but now more and more attention is also given to affective factors. Jensen (1998:71) pointed out that "the affective side of learning is the critical interplay between how we feel, act, and think. There is no separation of mind and emotions; emotions, thinking and learning are all linked". Many studies from the neurosciences that deal with learning show that a positive affective environment puts the brain in the optimal state for learning: low stress and high interest in the learning process. Referring to second language acquisition, Stern (1983:386) affirmed that "the affective component contributes at least as much

and often more to language learning than the cognitive skills." Today we know that the progress our students make in language learning and the communicative use of the language can be strongly influenced by affective aspects. However, this was also dealt with long ago; Comenius in the 17th century pointed out the significance of the affective domain, and he considered that it was important to activate all the senses in the classroom and promote interaction, creativity and a good relationship between teachers and learners.

Affect deals with many aspects which relate to language learning and teaching, and it includes not only individual factors but also relational aspects. Earl Stevick (1980: 4) summarized what affect in language learning is about when he wrote that "success [in language learning] depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom". Thus, success depends less on *things* and more on *people*. With *inside* people he is referring to the individual factors such as motivation, self-esteem, anxiety, inhibition, willingness to take risks, tolerance of ambiguity, learning styles, introversion/extraversion, self-efficacy, etc. What goes on *between* people, the relational aspects, has to do both with cross-cultural processes and with classroom transactions, where a concern with group dynamics is extremely important for successful learning.

Underhill presented a useful model of the evolution of an educator. In the beginning is the person he calls *Lecturer*, who knows the language, the minimum requirement, but the Lecturer will find that this isn't enough and so will take courses, etc. and then can become what Underhill calls *Teacher,* who also knows about methods. However, there will still be difficulties in teaching, and so with more formation and more reflection the Teacher can become a *Facilitato*r, who also knows how to "generate a psychological climate conducive to high quality learning (Underhill 1999: 130).

If we reflect on what greater attention to affect would mean for the language classroom, we would no doubt want to find activities which at the same time as they provide useful work with the language also increase motivation, include personal meaning, reduce anxiety, and give students confidence in learning to speak the language. But even more important than our activities might be a new view of what as language teachers we can hope to achieve in the classroom, which would involve a greater concern for the inner processes of both learners and teachers. Underhill (1999: 131) proposes a broader vision and stresses how "new techniques with old attitudes may amount to no change, while new attitudes even with old techniques can lead to significant change".

In language learning there is a strong relationship between competence and confidence. "Developing greater competence leads to more confidence but also having confidence makes it easier to acquire greater competence", though

we also need to be aware that "it is not a question of merely telling students 'you can do it!'. Quite the contrary, work with self-esteem and other affective issues is done to provide a supportive atmosphere in which we can better encourage learners to work hard to reach their learning potential" (Arnold 2011: 16).

A significant influence on the learning process comes from the views learners have of their capacity to learn. Research done on the concept of Teacher Confirmation in the area of Communication Studies (Ellis 2004) and extended to the context of language learning (León 2005) strongly emphasizes the role of the teacher in fomenting positive learner beliefs, which will lead learners to participate more actively and thus to better learning for them. Teacher confirmation is "the process by which teachers communicate to students that they are valuable, significant individuals" (Ellis 2004: 2). In her study where many foreign language students were interviewed, León (2005) found that for making students feel valued by their teacher, the following teacher behaviours were important: transmit a sense of confidence, make constructive comments, pay attention to students and really listen to them, smile and make eye contact, show interest in students as people.

We can find many indications from our teaching experience as well as from empirical research which show how attention to affect can bring positive changes to the classroom and that the foreign and second language learning and teaching processes will be more effective if they are affective. In this context, it is clear that the focus is also on *being* as well as on *doing*. It is not only a question of what we do but who we are. In a similar vein American educator Parker Palmer (1998: 5) stresses that "technique is what teachers use until the real teacher arrives". And the "real teacher" would surely be conscious of the importance of taking into account the affective dimension in teaching in order to have the best results, since as Rodríguez, Plax and Kearney (1996: 297) pointed out, affect "… is by definition, an intrinsic motivator. Positive affect sustains involvement and deepens interest in the subject matter".

In the document of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages there is a clear reference to affect in language learning. When dealing with the 'Existential competence' (savoir-être), it lists factors which can influence learners' communicative abilities, such as attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles, personality factors and states that these "greatly affect not only the language users'/learners' roles in communicative acts but also their ability to learn" (Council of Europe 2001:106).

Undoubtedly, a central function of language is communication. Thus, the concept of communicative competence has a strong influence on language learning programs today. In a language classroom communication is both an end and a means, both a goal and an instrument to reach the goal. Engaging in

communication requires active participation on the part of learners and this can be strongly influenced by the affective environment in which communication occurs. In their study related to descriptors of mediation in the Common European Framework of Reference, North and Piccardo (2016:23) explain that "Relational mediation is concerned with establishing, maintaining and optimising personal relationships… The user/learner aims to prepare the way for, or refresh, effective communication between participants by promoting a positive relationship with and between them".

Learning a new language can be an adventure for students and their progress can depend to a large extent on the affective dimension of the adventure.

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LANGUAGES AND THE SELF

Abstract

The article looks into the meaning of concepts of L2 Self, L2 Ideal self and L2 Motivational Self Systems from the point of view of their usefulness for SLA/FLT research. Psychological and sociological terminology related to the Self, Identity, Storied Self, Social Identity and Ethnicity is then discussed as well as various types of the Self useful in the analysis of attitudes to first, second and foreign languages. Examples of linguistic decisions are offered that lead to language maintenance, language loss or changes of the dominant language. Linguistic behaviour is traced back to possible ways of presenting the Self as well as to different approaches to ethnicity, integration and assimilation. Conclusions and implications for classroom language learning and teacher education are also presented.

Keywords: the Self, identity, group identity, ethnicity, language, linguistic decisions, language learning, teacher education

Słowa kluczowe: Ja, tożsamość, tożsamość grupowa, etniczność, język, decyzje językowe, uczenie się języka, kształcenie nauczycieli

1. Introduction

The concept of the Self was introduced into language education almost two decades ago. The term *L2 Self* or *L2 Ideal Self* came to mean an individual's far-reaching linguistic aims, while the *L2 Motivational Self System* refers to the process of identifying personal goals and planning ways to achieve them (Dörnyei,

Ushioda, 2009), although the term *Self System* can also be found and replaces what used to be described as learner strategies such as submission, duplicity, rebellion or harmony (Taylor, 2013).

L2 Ideal Self typically functions as a macrofactor, yet as pointed out by Taguchi et al. (2010: 88), the concept sometimes becomes a replacement for what is usually referred to as Gardnerian integrative orientation. It is believed that the shift of meaning has taken place on the grounds that the concept of integrativeness, useful in research on immigration, is unsuitable for foreign language learning, though Gardner himself never stated that integrative motivation means assimilation into a group (Gardner, 2010: 88). The term *L2 Ideal Self* is also quite often treated as synonymous with a view of oneself as a successful speaker (Mezei, 2014). Empirical research does not offer much help in clarifying the notion because *L2 Ideal Self* is envisaged in different ways: indices of this variable differ and researchers' interpretations make it even more difficult to draw clear boundaries between this and other concepts related to motivation and the Self. In her research on adult distance learners, two thirds of whom were in the 40-60 age range, Linda Murphy considers statements of the type 'I wish to be able to...', 'I am determined to...' or 'I want to achieve...' as demonstrations of the *Ideal Self* related to either proficiency or academic success (Murphy, 2001: 120-121). Martin Lamb in his research on teenagers on the one hand cautiously treats expressions of the type ' My plan is ... to take an English course' or 'Maybe... I will keep studying English' as future visions or self-guides, but on the other speaks about strong *Ideal L2 Selves* in the respondents (Lamb, 2001: 188-190). To make the situation even more complex, Taguchi et al. consider statements such as 'I can imagine...' as information revealing the *Ideal Self* (Taguchi et al., 2010: 91-92).

Is this no more than a certain degree of a terminological chaos or do we face a tendency well-known in humanities to find new names for well-known concepts? Whatever the answer to these questions, concepts of L2 Self and L1 or L2 Identity remain "blurred and indeterminate" (White, Ding, 2009:336), which calls for going back to source disciplines, i.e. psychology and sociology, to examine the meaning of basic terms and then look at their reflection in SLA/FLT.

2. The Self, Identity and language

It is easier to answer the question of what we are like than the question of who we are. The former relies on our unity across time, while the latter presupposes a list of personality characteristics. The *Self* is often treated as synonymous to *Identity* (Swann, Bosson, 2010) and is defined as a process entailing introspection and contemplation – "taking the self as an object for thinking" (Oyserman

et al., 2012: 71), together with a reflective aspect which gives coherence to individual life when new events are absorbed and interpreted (Giddens, 1991; Singer, Blagov, 2004). The *Self* also presupposes otherness and exclusion as it "can only be defined by reference to a non-self" (Delanty, 2000:115).

Some researchers, however, make a distinction between the *Self* and *Identity*, pointing out that the *Self* does not need to show continuity on a time scale, as it is related to the sense of *mineness* or *belongingness*, i.e. experience which is pre-reflected and body-oriented, while *Identity*, being related to memory, presupposes both experience and continuity across time (Northoff, 2014).

According to the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins et al., 1987), people display two basic types of self: the *actual self* and the *ideal self* which envisages the kind of person a given individual would like to become. The individual tends to reduce this discrepancy in order to match the two. Reduction is more likely to successfully take place if the outcome is vividly imagined, in line with social norms and far from the *feared self*. In SLA this is often illustrated by a distinction between a learner's present-day linguistic skills and his/her vision of becoming a proficient speaker or a respected polyglot (Dörnyei, 2009).

Apart from *the actual* and *the ideal self,* at least two other types of *Self* are distinguished: *imposed self* which generates actions required by other people and *ought to self,* more or less voluntarily adopted by the individual. Each type of self can be demonstrated in specific types of behaviour: *actual self* in spontaneous ones, *ought to self* in internalized ones and the *ideal self* in those modelled after significant others. In social psychological terms self can also be divided into *private self* and *public self,* the former displayed in intimate and the latter in social contexts. The use of a regional dialect in private and a literary variety in public can serve as a linguistic example here.

Little relationship has been found between an individual's private and public selves, but a significant correlation has been noted between public and imposed ones (Taylor, 2013), most probably because the public self, though shaped by individual goals, is at the same time a result of a struggle between various sources and types of expectations, a phenomenon especially important in adolescence. Individual beliefs about the way one is perceived by others are at play here as first noticed in the seminal work of Erving Goffman (1956) and then frequently investigated by psychologists and sociologists (Schwartz et al., 2011; Tice, Wallace, 2003). Yet self-presentation is shaped not only by interpersonal relations, but also by the vision of the ideal Self; Salvador Dali's provocative autobiography with its title of *La vida secreta de Salvador Dali* is one of the best illustrations of this psychological process (Dali, 1942/2011).

Our public self tends to produce a variety of unexpected decisions. For example, some L2 students have been found to give up efforts to develop language

proficiency feeling that their language level does not permit proper self-presentation (Ringbom, 1987, 2007) and therefore "their cognitive sophistication is unnoticed by others leaving them feeling vulnerable and socially disadvantaged" (Taylor, 2014: 99). On the other hand, high proficiency can expose students to the danger of being considered 'dumb native speakers' rather than educated foreigners who cannot be expected to be familiar with all the cultural aspects of the daily life in a given country, naturally understandable for native-speakers (Ringbom, 2007).

Individuals can envisage a number of *possible selves*, a concept introduced three decades ago (Markus, Nurius, 1987), and often referred to today. *Possible selves* can be lived out mentally as fantasies or may become part of actual performances as in Katarzyna Kozyra's *In Art Dreams Come True* produced at the Barbican Art Centre in London and the Gender Bender Festival in Bologna where after months of strenuous training she presented herself as a cheerleader, a diva, a drag queen and a castrato (Kozyra, 2007). *Possible selves* can also be subjected to conscious decision-making whereby a desired self is selected and strived for. This obviously depends on whether the individual decides to treat the *Self* as solid and stable or as fluid and changeable. On the way to a desired self, several transient selves can appear, yet those momentary ones do not always seem coherent being no more than a try-out of what is useful and/or accepted (Marcus, 2008). In the process of making linguistic choices, try-out assimilation into a new society may lead to the adoption of a new language, although later decisions to return to the homeland and to the native language are not infrequent. Antoni Cierplikowski (1884 - 1976), referred to as 'Antoine - the king of the coiffeurs and coiffeur of the kings', assimilated and integrated into French society at the age of 17 adopting French as his personal language. Yet years later, at the age of 86, he decided to come back to Sieradz, his hometown where he changed his identity as well as his dominant language back to Polish (Orzeszyna, 2015). The crucial concept of the psychological approach to the *desired* or *ideal self* is, therefore, motivation with its varying directions and levels.

The *private self* manages behaviour and ways of self-presentation, i.e. a display of the *public self*, which means that in different contexts different identity images are displayed, sometimes for expressive and sometimes for strategic reasons. An exchange between Churchill and his wife in *Darkest Hour* (urged by Clemmie to 'Just be yourself', he replied, 'But which self shall I be today?') shows interaction between *private, multiple* and *public selves.*

An individual may internalize their *public self* and thus make it part of the private one (Leary, 1995). Taylor adds that "a self - displayed publicly - may be internalized into one's private self if it is accepted or approved privately"

(Taylor 2014: 95). The phenomenon, also referred to as the *carryover effect* (La Guardia, 2009; Tice, Wallace, 2003), is exemplified by the internalized Polish-Italian aristocratic public self of Michał Waszyński known in Poland as Michele Waszynski, born Mosze Waks as a son of a blacksmith from Kovel, Volhynia, later a successful Hollywood producer, a friend of movie stars and a member of Italian and Spanish high society where he was held in highest respect due to his legendary elegance and impeccable manners now immortalized in the documentary *The Prince and the Dybbuk* (Niewiara, Rosołowski, 2017).

Memory related to time and space is considered the core of identity. The process of recalling and reconstructing the past serves the purpose of shaping our current points of view. Heidegger pointed out that our past lives in our present, a forceful statement his own life soon bitterly confirmed (Heidegger, 1927/2008). Positive examples of this principle can also be found and may even be reflected in language skills – Zbigniew Brzeziński's Polish fluent and flawless till the end of his long life spent in the United States shows the impact of the first years in his home country, always vivid in his mind.

Memory is based on images of the past. What we remember is a function of the number and the density of events from which selection is made. The result is mediated by our tendency to organize what is remembered into a coherent whole. Language plays a crucial role here as demonstrated in the research on human cognitive networks; bilinguals presented with isolated words in L1 tend to produce associations based on situations that took place in the context of L1, while L2 words bring L2 memories (Matsumoto, Stanny, 2006).

The *Self* is constructed through both remembering and forgetting. Memory, the heart of identity, is therefore shaped not only by reminding, but also by removing – images of the past are influenced by the filtering of active or passive participation in a given event. Forgetting makes prioritization and selection possible, thus creating space for new information. Forgetting enables us to keep in mind only what is essential and concentrate on it rather than to deal with a chaotic mass of impressions. Inconvenient aspects which might ruin our self-esteem and those which are emotionally difficult tend to be forgotten – or to use Toni Morrison's expression, *disremembered* (Morrison, 1987). Writers like W.G. Sebald, but also historians and therapists, engage in processes of retrieving, sometimes referred to as the process of *rememory* (Sebald, 2003). Forgetting, suppression and recall play an important role in what we are or consider ourselves to be, a feeling reflected in retrieving a childhood language thought to be forgotten, as was the case of the Polish orphans repatriated from the territories of the then Soviet Union after World War II or of the Jewish children evacuated in a huge rescue effort from Nazi Europe to Great Britain (Baumel-Schwartz, 2012).

The concept of *Self* is also formed through the experience of space, a main foundation of our psychological integrity. It shapes our behaviour and "legitimises some forms of behaviour while disqualifying or constraining other forms" (Blommaert, 2005). It also attaches different values and functions to individuals' linguistic repertoires, influencing how an individual positions himself or herself, and how he or she is positioned by others, hence for example the choice of French in conversations of aristocratic and intellectual circles of White Russians in exile (Lis, 2015).

For a long time identity was related to roles, tasks and situations, which made it relatively stable. Yet, in the contemporary world where mobility, choice and change undermine stability – identity seems to be much less solid and, what is more, tends to be fragmented into episodes which call for no logical sequence and lead to no obvious consequences, generating 'alternative costs' of lost chances or choices once made (Bauman, 2004). This episodic self-experience can, however, and in fact often does, take a shape of a coherent whole (Pepin, 2007), a result possible not only thanks to 'the interpreter' in our left hemisphere and the selectivity of our memory, but also thanks to language. Intuitively used narrative forms help us to maintain the sense of 'oneness' within a coherent *Story-telling Self,* "the internal ongoing narrative of who we think we have been, who we think we are, who we would like to be and the person (s) we are afraid of becoming" (Irie, Ryan, 2014: 110). Our *narrative self* is therefore born linguistically and – as Barthes maintains – is characterized by past tenses (Barthes, 1953/1972).

Because identities are temporal, ongoing and constructed in social contexts through interaction (Porębski, 2002), they also tend to be reconstructed when individuals move between contexts and languages (Hemmi, 2014) – examples of writers such as Joseph Conrad, Vladimir Nabokov or Eli Ŝafak help us to understand linguistic decisions taken after a change of one's social and political milieu.

3. Social identity and language

Social identity is defined in a number of ways. Hogg et al. speak about those who "identify themselves in the same way and have the same definition of who they are, what attributes they have, and how they relate to and differ from specific outgroups" (Hogg et al., 2004: 251). Social identities are also defined as "a person's roles, interpersonal relationships and group memberships, and the traits, characteristics, attributes, goals, and values congruent with these roles, relationships, and memberships" (Oyserman et al., 2012: 95) – a connected rather than a separated perspective showing what makes us similar within a group rather than what makes us different from others. The

same authors maintain that social identity entails a prototype based on inter-group comparisons and polarized away from out-group features.

In spite of all the problems, the individual/personal type of identity is con-sidered more stable than the social one because the former is based on the con-cept of differences between a unique individual and other human beings, while the latter is founded on shared features and situational standards. The individual and the social reveal a common core and are in the process of constant interac-tion: identity is positioning rather than essence (Hall, du Gay, 1996). For Stuart Hall, "identities are the names we give to the different ways we are positioned by, and position ourselves within the narrative of the past. Cultural identity is a mat-ter of *becoming* as well as of *being*. It belongs to the future as much as to the past" (Hall, 1993: 394). Stability of identity is based on culture, especially in the case of *narrative identity*, which explains why unitary assertions of identity are so often used in politics and why it is so easy to merge it with language and/or reli-gion. The sociological framework permits also to explain the phenomenon of both *changing* and *multiple identities* of bilinguals and multilinguals.

History and sociology show how strongly group identity has been based on national as well as ethnic-religious categories and the significant role of the *us/them* distinction in identity formation. An important role in the formation of social identity is played by the *Storied Self,* a group equivalent of the *Story-Telling Self*. Language reflection of the *Storied Self* can be found in the preser-vation of the local variety of German among the so-called Zipser Deutsch, a group of settlers brought almost 800 years ago by Hungarian kings to areas depopulated during Turco-Mongol invasions.

Factors influencing the strength of identity and its maintenance in con-tact with other communities differ across ethnic groups and so does the role of language as demonstrated by research initiated in the 1980s. In Australian research on values, Italians were found to consider family, religion and lan-guage as their core values, while the Jewish community emphasized religion, cultural patrimony and historicity (Hamers, Blanc, 1989/2000). In both the United States and Australia, Dutch and German immigrants exhibit the largest language shift; Italians, Chinese and Greeks the smallest; and Poles, Serbs and Croatians stay in the middle (Blanc, 1986). Reduced core values lead to super-ficial folklore manifestations and to a gradual language loss (Smolicz, 1984). A minority becomes no more than an ethnic group and the feeling of inferiority develops which adversely influences L1 skills. Code-switching and code-mix-ing become more frequent as indices of L1 attrition, although at the beginning immigrants code-switch in order to better express their intentions in L2. Core values, often responsible for language maintenance or language attrition, are not the only factors at play.

Expressing identity through language may also depend on group self-esteem. Early matched-guise research projects showed a negative stereotype of French-Canadian speakers in both English and French groups (Lambert et al., 1960). A similar phenomenon was found more than twenty years later in Welsh speakers of English (Price, Fluke and Giles, 1983), while Mexican-American children in the United States evaluated Mexican-American speakers lower than did American-born evaluators (Ryan, Carranza, Moffie, 1975).

Language and identity can, however, be influenced by nationalistic feelings of both speakers and their interlocutors (Segalovitz, Gadbonton, 1977), which led researchers to the conclusion that "those who had nationalistic feelings preferred marked accent, while those who expressed fewer nationalistic feelings preferred native-like English" (Hamers, Blanc, 2000/1989: 132).

Official policy – if supported by the community – is a strong factor in maintaining or shifting identities, which is why a rapid split of Serbo-Croatian as a common language into two different codes could take place after the Balkan wars of the 1990s (Bugarski, 2001). In certain cases, however, administrative power is helpless: in spite of living in the diaspora Jews have managed to maintain their religion and their holy language for over two millennia despite changing languages of everyday communication, for which reason Israeli language revival undertaken in the 20th century was not only possible, but proved highly successful (Edwards, 2012).

State policy often exerts pressures to trigger or speed up identity changes, though regional policy sometimes takes reverse directions. Quebec's Bill 101 of 1977 making French the only official language in the province in order to safeguard the place of the French minority in Canada elicited a strong antagonistic reaction from the Association for the Preservation of English in Canada (APEC). This revealed anxieties of the English majority which in Quebec formed a small minority within a predominantly French population (Romaine, 1995). Yet, to maintain the social and political role of the government, state policy can move to make considerable concessions for the local identity and language as it happened in New Caledonia where initially local languages were suppressed, later merely discouraged, and eventually protected.

Group identity strengthens national feelings leading to protests against administrative changes in the status of languages as reflected in controversies over the role of Russian in the Baltic republics, English and French in Cameroon or Bengali and Nepali in the Gorkha community of Bangladesh. In recent times resistance vis-á-vis the language offered in the school system has also been pointed out (Canagarajah, 2004).

Social identity of adolescents and young adults underlies their sensitivity to disapproval, rejection, scorn and disregard related to their ethnicity

and/or home language. Negative attitudes which they face in the school system elicit rebellious behaviour and absenteeism which result in poor linguistic and academic achievement. Romaine (1995) notes that Finnish learners in Australia, where they are a respected minority, do much better in the school system than their peers in Sweden where their ethnic minority does not enjoy the same level of respect. For the same reason she notices that Mexican children with several years of education in their home country, where they do not feel inferior, do better in the American school system than those who started their education as a minority.

The age factor cannot be overlooked. Social identity in adulthood, characterized by caring functions springing from family life and the responsibility for the children, results in the maintenance of identity through language as its index. This can be seen in middle-class social groups demonstrating budding awareness of their national identity in Ireland in the 1960s and 1970s. It is also visible in national minority groups of all social levels requesting ethnic language education for their children at the primary stage where it is crucial for identity formation, but showing decreased interest in school teaching through the medium of their language at secondary and tertiary levels as demonstrated by the numbers of Ukrainian, Lithuanian and Slovak schools and students across educational stages in Poland. Unfortunately, middle adulthood is also characterized by a certain degree of conformity considered indispensable to ensure a career and support the family. For that reason, a stigmatised minority can be found to accept the stigma and internalize a negative attitude towards their language (Czykwin, 2000).

Social class and ethnic identity are important mediating factors in linguistic decision-making; middle-class speakers from countries regaining their national independence such as Ireland or Latvia were quicker to revive their language and/or to start using it in public domains. This means that sometimes language develops before ethnicity and sometimes ethnicity precedes the revival of the language. However strong a correlation between ethnic identity and maintaining or reviving a language, caution is always recommended as intense ethnic attitudes tend to develop into nationalism, which breeds intolerance and is itself not always based on solid historical facts. Karl Deutsch (1912-1992) famous for his anti-Nazi stance, and a president of the American Political Science Association, who taught at MIT, Harvard and Yale, pointedly observed that a nation is "a group of people united by a mistaken view about the past and a hatred of their neighbours" (Deutsch, 1989). Zamenhof, the creator of Esperanto, is also believed to have warned against nationalism reminding that "if nationalism of the strong is ignoble, nationalism of the weak is imprudent" (Edwards, 2012).

All these issues are especially important in the era of increased educational, professional and economic mobility accompanied by the growing strength of ethnic identification. The role of first, second and foreign languages changes dramatically. Identity under these circumstances depends not only on attitudes and beliefs, but also on technical possibilities to acquire the language which would make it possible to consider advantages and disadvantages of integration and/or assimilation. Access to communication, for example, is difficult for immigrants hired to do jobs such as cleaning or work at automatic conveyor systems, because they have no possibility to enter interaction, which precludes the acquisition of a new language (Norton, 2000, 2013). Lack of opportunities to reach a higher level of proficiency means at the same time lack of possibilities to make informed choices and take conscious decisions related to social identity.

4. Conclusion

As can be seen from the above, both careful introspection and large amounts of observational data are needed to construct a complex picture of one's own Self, but do not guarantee its stability. At the same time, dynamic changes of the Self parallel with mobility and cross-cultural contacts reshape interrelations between personality features and social contexts, therefore different aspects of the Self come to the surface under different circumstances, resulting in a wide spectrum of variously motivated linguistic decisions made not only by individuals, but also by whole communities. The picture of L1 Self seems to be far more complex than that of a foreign language learner's Self. The concept of *L2 Self* or *L2 Ideal Self* can be subsumed more easily under the *Motivational Self System* within which learners identify their personal goals and plan their learning paths. Being more general, but at the same time more pragmatic and tangible, MSS proves useful in the field of both second and foreign language learning.

Considering the significance of both L1 Self and group identity decisions for interpersonal contacts and communication effectiveness, learners need not only to be made aware of their own attitudes and behaviours, but also of the value of tolerance and openness to other cultures. Teachers, therefore, should not underestimate the role of the students' home languages in shaping their motivation to learn second and foreign ones.

Teacher educators should not forget that because teachers often teach in the way they themselves have been taught, pre-service teacher training needs to be based on trainees' self-reflection and autonomous decision-making.

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CZYNNIKI AFEKTYWNE W TEORII I BADANIACH NAD ZDOLNOŚCIAMI JĘZYKOWYMI

Affective factors in theory and research in foreign language aptitude

There is much controversy surrounding the influence of affect on foreign language aptitude. In most foreign language aptitude models and tests this factor is treated marginally or it is entirely absent. In research studies, much attention is devoted to individual factors defined in the context of positive psychology, but their relationships with cognitive factors are rarely analyzed. This paper is an attempt to present the role of factors other than cognitive in foreign language aptitude theory and research, selected reasons for their weak position, as well as pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research.

Keywords: individual differences, foreign language aptitude, affective factors

Słowa kluczowe: różnice indywidualne, zdolności językowe, czynniki afektywne

1. Wstęp

Czynniki indywidualne w akwizycji języka obcego tradycyjnie dzielimy na poznawcze i afektywne, niemniej jednak istnieje wiele kontrowersji i wątpliwości co do ich klasyfikacji (Dörnyei, 2005; Pawlak, 2017). Jest to dość umowny podział zaadaptowany częściowo z psychologii różnic indywidualnych, częściowo wypracowany w obrębie dyscypliny językoznawstwa. Czynniki indywidualne stanowią kontinuum, w którym na jednym krańcu umiejscowione są czynniki stricte

poznawcze, jak np. pamięć robocza, na drugim zaś stricte afektywne, takie jak emocje podstawowe (np. gniew, strach, czy radość). Czynniki pozostałe obejmują szerokie spektrum różnic indywidualnych, w większym lub mniejszym stopniu zawierających elementy poznawcze i afektywne. Według umownej klasyfikacji przyjętej w językoznawstwie (Arnold, Brown, 1999; Gregersen, MacIntyre, 2014), do czynników poznawczych zaliczamy inteligencję, różne rodzaje pamięci, zdolności językowe, niektóre strategie i style uczenia się. Czynniki afektywne obejmują cechy osobowości, emocje, w tym lęk językowy, niektóre style i strategie uczenia się. Większość różnic indywidualnych znajduje się na kontinuum, np. motywacja, gotowość komunikacyjna, umiejscowienie kontroli, przekonania, skłonność do podejmowania ryzyka, czy granice ego. Ta ostatnia grupa czynników, tradycyjnie klasyfikowana jako „afekt" (Arnold, Brown, 1999), współcześnie opisywana jest bez określania przynależności do jakiejkolwiek kategorii (Pawlak, 2017), w odróżnieniu od czynników poznawczych, których przynależność najczęściej jest zdefiniowana (np. Biedroń, 2012; Gregersen, MacIntyre, 2014). Taką tendencję widzimy wyraźnie w tematyce referatów konferencyjnych, gdzie czynniki poza-poznawcze, czy połowicznie poznawcze (graniczne), stanowią swoistą kategorię przypisywaną psychologii, zdefiniowanej jako „psychologia w nauce języka" (z ang. *psychology of language learning*), będącej tematem wiodącym niezwykle popularnej cyklicznej konferencji o tym samym tytule, której ostatnia edycja odbyła się w 2018 roku w Tokio. O ile czynniki graniczne stanowią szeroką i zróżnicowaną kategorię, to czynniki poznawcze (inteligencja, zdolności) są traktowane jako zamknięta grupa homogeniczna (Doughty i in., 2013; Gregersen, MacIntyre, 2014; Long, 2013). Podział ten widoczny jest również w metodologii badań – czynniki graniczne i afektywne bada się zarówno metodami ilościowymi (Biedroń, 2011a; Dewaele, Alfawzan, 2018; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2008), jak i jakościowymi (Biedroń, 2011b; Pavelescu, Petrić, 2018), natomiast czynniki poznawcze analizowane są niemal wyłącznie ilościowo (Zychowicz, Biedroń, Pawlak, 2016; Suzuki, DeKeyser, 2017). Celem niniejszego artykułu jest próba przedstawienia teorii i badań analizujących połączenie czynnika poznawczego, jakim są zdolności językowe z czynnikami granicznymi i afektywnymi oraz wyjaśnienie, dlaczego próby te często nie dają oczekiwanych rezultatów oraz na jakie problemy metodologiczne napotyka badacz. Na początku skrótowo wyjaśniony zostanie status czynników indywidualnych w psychologii oraz akwizycji, a także rola czynników poza-poznawczych w badaniach językoznawczych. Następnie przedstawimy związek zdolności językowych z czynnikami afektywnymi w teorii i praktyce badawczej. Na końcu zamieszczone zostanie podsumowanie oraz kilka sugestii i propozycji dla badaczy czynników indywidualnych.

2. Czynniki indywidualne w psychologii i językoznawstwie

Po długim okresie rozdzielania emocji od poznania, możemy zauważyć zmianę w kierunku uznania tych sfer za wzajemnie przenikające się. Od co najmniej 30 lat teoretycy psychologii, neurologii i edukacji postrzegają afekt i poznanie jako dwa komplementarne, nierozerwalnie połączone aspekty ludzkiego umysłu, z których żaden nie ma pierwszeństwa wobec drugiego w procesach umysłowych (Damasio, 1994; LeDoux, 1996). Często podkreślane jest znaczenie uczuć w podejmowaniu decyzji oraz traktowanie emocji i poznania jako równych partnerów w umyśle. Goleman (1996), twórca teorii Inteligencji Emocjonalnej, podkreśla znaczenie emocji w ludzkiej psychice. Arnold i Brown (1999) traktują afekt jako aspekt emocji, uczuć, nastroju i postaw, które warunkują zachowanie. Ich zdaniem, domeny poznawcze i afektywne nie powinny być określane jako przeciwieństwa, lecz jako dwa uzupełniające się aspekty zjawiska, jakim jest ludzkie uczenie się. Podobnie Doliński (2000), psycholog, stwierdza, że oddzielenie procesów poznawczych i afektywnych jest niemożliwe zarówno w realnym życiu, jak i w warunkach laboratoryjnych. W rzeczywistości, większość doświadczeń afektywnych przeplata się z poznaniem. Kontrowersje dotyczące prymatu któregokolwiek z tych dwóch aspektów powoli zanikają i zasadne wydaje się traktowanie obu pojęć jako komplementarnych.

Podobne tendencje obserwujemy w językoznawstwie. Larsen-Freeman i Cameron (2008) odnoszą się do dynamicznej interakcji między aspektami psycholingwistycznymi, socjolingwistycznymi i sytuacyjnymi zwanymi wewnętrzną dynamiką uczącego się, wskazując tym samym, że wszystkie te czynniki wpływają na proces uczenia się. Dörnyei (2009, 2010) podejmuje problem relacji między procesami poznawczymi, motywacyjnymi i emocjonalnymi oraz ich łącznym wpływem na ludzkie funkcjonowanie poznawcze. Twierdzi, iż modułowy model różnic indywidualnych, który obejmuje wiele odrębnych czynników, nie odzwierciedla rzeczywistości i sugeruje, że prawdopodobnie bardziej efektywne jest skupianie się na cechach wyższego rzędu, które funkcjonują jako zintegrowane całości (Dörnyei, 2010; Dörnyei, Ryan, 2015; por. Serafini, 2017). Zgodnie z tym stanowiskiem Dörnyei zaleca teorię systemów dynamicznych jako paradygmat, który najlepiej opisze różnice indywidualne. Z powyższych rozważań wynika, że nie można analizować zdolności językowych w oderwaniu od motywacji, gdyż pomiędzy tymi grupami czynników dochodzi do dynamicznej interakcji. Dowodów empirycznych na istnienie takich współzależności dostarcza neuronauka. Na przykład stwierdzono, że neuroprzekaźnik dopamina, warunkujący zarówno motywację, jak i zapamiętywanie informacji, wpływa na takie aspekty, jak pamięć robocza, motywacja do nauki języka oraz skuteczność nauki (np. Schumann, 2004; Wong i in., 2012).

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Współcześni badacze zgadzają się, że czynniki poznawcze i afektywne przenikają się wzajemnie podczas uczenia się języków (por. Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008, Griffiths, 2008, Hu, Reiterer, 2009; Moyer, 1999; 2007). Sukces w nauce zależy od zmiennych osobowościowych. Badania uczniów odnoszących sukces pozwoliły na identyfikację szeregu cech, ułatwiających naukę (por. Dörnyei, 2005, Ehrman, 2008, Ehrman i Oxford, 1995, Griffiths, 2008).

Klasyczne badanie Ehrman i Oksford (1995) przetestowało wpływ takich zmiennych jak strategie i style uczenia się, osobowość, motywacja i lęk na sukces w nauce języka obcego wśród wykształconych dorosłych. Celem tego badania było sprawdzenie, czy czynniki poza-poznawcze są związane z osiągnięciami w nauce. Wyniki badań ujawniły interesujące tendencje – wiele czynników afektywnych i granicznych współwystępowało z sukcesem w nauce. Były to m. in. analityczny styl uczenia się, wytrwałość, skłonność do podejmowania ryzyka, wysoka motywacja wewnętrzna. Wykorzystano także wskaźnik Myers-Briggs do pomiaru wymiarów osobowości badanych podmiotów. Uczniowie odnoszący sukces okazali się bardziej introwertyczni, intuicyjni oraz zorientowani na myślenie. Tym cechom towarzyszył niski poziom lęku oraz wysoka samoocena. W interpretacji autorek, badanie wykazało, że czynniki afektywne i motywacyjne wykazują wysoki poziom korelacji z biegłą znajomością języka obcego.

Najnowsze trendy w badaniach nad czynnikami afektywnymi dotyczą emocji pozytywnych i negatywnych w nauce języka obcego. Szczególną wagę przypisuje się emocjom pozytywnym, które mogą podtrzymać motywację do nauki (Dewaele, Li 2018; Siek-Piskozub, 2016). Podejście to wpisuje się w trend psychologii pozytywnej (np. MacIntyre, Gregersen, Mercer, 2016) zyskującej rosnącą popularność wśród badaczy i edukatorów.

3. Zdolności językowe a czynniki afektywne

Czynnik poznawczy, który od zawsze przyciąga uwagę badaczy w dziedzinie akwizycji językowej, wywołując jednocześnie kontrowersje, to zdolności językowe. Jest to liczna grupa czynników obejmująca wiele różnorodnych zdolności poznawczych (analityczne, pamięciowe, fonetyczne) i wyjaśniająca największą część zmienności wyników uczenia się obcego języka.

Zdolności językowe są najsilniejszym predyktorem tempa postępu oraz wysokiego poziomu osiągnięć w nauce języka obcego w okresie postkrytycznym (Doughty i in., 2013, Linck i in., 2013; Long, 2013). Jest to złożony, wieloaspektowy czynnik, co oznacza, że istnieje cała gama zdolności językowych w obrębie czynników poznawczych (patrz Abrahamson, Hyltenstam, 2008; Granena, Long, 2013; Robinson, 2002) oddziałujących w różny sposób w różnych warunkach uczenia się. Dzięki postępom w dziedzinie akwizycji, psychologii poznawczej,

genetyce i neurolingwistyce, definicja tego konstruktu podlegała licznym zmianom i aktualizacjom w ciągu ostatnich dwóch dekad.

Pomimo istotnego wpływu na proces nauki, jaki przypisuje się czynnikom afektywnym, z reguły nie są one uwzględniane w teorii i praktyce badań nad zdolnościami językowymi. Jedyny model zdolności językowych uwzględniający czynniki poza-poznawcze to model Richarda Snowa (1987). Uwzględniono w nim, obok poznawczych, czynniki osobowościowe, takie jak motywacja osiągnięć, wolność od lęku oraz pozytywna samoocena, które, według twórcy tej teorii, są zdolnościami i przyczyniają się do radzenia sobie z wyzwaniami, jakie niesie uczenie się obcego języka. Czynniki afektywne w teorii Snowa obejmują trzy typy zmiennych: cechy temperamentu, nastroje i czynniki osobowości. Teoria ta zawsze pozostawała na marginesie badań nad zdolnościami językowymi, nigdy również nie wypracowano narzędzia do pomiaru tak zdefiniowanego konstruktu.

Jeśli spojrzymy na historię powstawania testów do badania predyspozycji językowych, zauważymy nieliczne próby włączenia czynników poza-poznawczych do baterii zadań. Jeden z pierwszych testów tego typu, PLAB (Pimsleur, 1966), zawiera komponent motywacji. Najnowszy test zdolności językowych Hi-Lab skonstruowany przez zespół Catherine Doughty (2010) zawierał w swej pierwotnej wersji komponent graniczny, styl uczenia się, nazywany tolerancją niejednoznaczności (z ang. *tolerance of ambiguity*). Tolerancja niejednoznaczności jest zdolnością do akceptacji sprzecznych lub niepełnych danych wejściowych w pamięci. Jest to cecha ważna w nauce języka, ponieważ dane sprzeczne ze stanem wiedzy jednostki mogą okazać się kluczowe na dalszym etapie nauki. Ostatecznie jednak autorka testu zrezygnowała z umieszczenia w nim tego czynnika, uzasadniając swą decyzję dużą subiektywnością narzędzia pomiaru. Finalna wersja testu służącego do prognostyki zdolności pozwalających na maksymalne osiągnięcia w nauce języka zawiera wyłącznie komponenty czysto poznawcze.

Zarówno w psychologii, jak i językoznawstwie wiele uwagi poświęca się czynnikom osobowościowym. Istnieje kilka ugruntowanych ich taksonomii w psychologii, które postrzegają główne cechy osobowości, czyli otwartość na doświadczenie, ugodowość, sumienność, ekstrawersję/ introwersję i neurotyczność jako odrębne oraz uniwersalne czynniki, które można znaleźć we wszystkich społeczeństwach i kulturach świata (Costa, McCrae, 1992). Chociaż ich wpływ na zachowanie człowieka, w tym wyniki edukacji, jest ugruntowany w dziedzinie psychologii, nie ma przekonujących dowodów na to, że korelują one, czy to pozytywnie, czy negatywnie, z sukcesem w nauce języka obcego (Dörnyei, 2005; Robinson, Ellis, 2008). Jednym z możliwych powodów tego stanu rzeczy może być ich ogólny i uniwersalny charakter. Najprawdopodobniej

czynniki osobowościowe wchodzą w interakcję ze zmiennymi poznawczymi i warunkują sukces w nauce języka obcego w sposób nieliniowy, stanowiąc złożone, dynamiczne interakcje i relacje, trudne do uchwycenia w analizie ilościowej (Dörnyei, 2005; Pawlak, 2017). Nie znaczy to jednak, że taka korelacja nie została stwierdzona w badaniach językoznawczych. Na przykład, dowody empiryczne na rolę osobowości wyłoniły się z badań nad wielojęzycznością (Dewaele, 2009; 2011; Ramirez-Esparza i in., 2006), a także studiami nad wysokim poziomem osiągnięć językowych (Biedroń, 2012; Forsberg Lundell, Sandgren, 2013; Hu, Reiterer, 2009). Coraz częściej ważną rolę przypisuje się empatii, która ma istotny wpływ na sukces w nauce wymowy (Hu i in., 2013; Rota, Reiterer, 2009) i wysoko koreluje ze zdolnościami językowymi (Forsberg Lundell, Sandgren, 2013) oraz otwartości na doświadczenie.

Wymowa bliska wymowie rodzimego użytkownika jest tematem najczęściej podejmowanym w omawianym obszarze. Moyer (2014) uważa, że wpływ czynników tradycyjnie uznawanych za istotne w nabywaniu doskonałej wymowy, czyli wiek ekspozycji i zdolności, jest zawyżony. Zmienne społeczno-psychologiczne, takie jak tożsamość, motywacja, empatia, czas ekspozycji, czy kontakty z rodzimymi użytkownikami są tak samo ważne jak wrodzone zdolności. Mimo że ograniczenia związane z okresami krytycznymi są funkcją zmian neurologicznych, zasada negatywnej liniowej korelacji efektów uczenia się z wiekiem przestaje obowiązywać około dwunastego roku życia, a stopniowe pogorszenie efektów uczenia się języka drugiego po tym okresie zależy od wyżej wymienionych czynników. Pozytywna postawa ucznia jest również jedną z najważniejszych zmiennych w osiąganiu doskonałej wymowy.

4. Czynniki afektywne a talent do nauki języka

Bardzo ciekawych wniosków dostarczają badania nad jednostkami utalentowanymi językowo (patrz Biedroń, Pawlak, 2016). Z badań tych wynika, że zdolności do nauki języków są najprawdopodobniej wrodzone, lecz o sukcesie decyduje o wiele więcej czynników, takich jak temperament, osobowość, motywacja oraz środowisko.

Biedroń (2011a) porównała dwie grupy osób: czterdziestu czterech utalentowanych uczniów języków obcych (bardzo zaawansowane osoby wielojęzyczne) i trzydziestu siedmiu studentów filologii angielskiej (poziom zaawansowania B1-B2) w odniesieniu do czynników osobowości, przyjmując model pięcioczynnikowy (Costa, McCrae, 1992). Badanie dowiodło, że otwartość na doświadczenie było znacznie wyższe u uczniów obdarzonych talentem niż u uczniów mniej uzdolnionych, ale nie wykryto żadnych statystycznie istotnych różnic w pozostałych czterech czynnikach, a mianowicie neurotyzmie, ugodowości,

ekstrawersji i sumienności. W kolejnym badaniu (Biedroń, 2012), na zwiększonej populacji, otwartość jako czynnik różnicujący okazała się jedynie oscylować na granicy istotności, jednakże czynnik ten, obok sumienności, stanowił dominującą cechę osób osiągających znaczne sukcesy. Analizy ilościowe i jakościowe przeprowadzone przez autorkę wykazały, iż osoby uzdolnione są wysoko zmotywowane, wewnątrzsterowne i wytrwałe w dążeniu do celu, a w konsekwencji autonomiczne. Poza tym, ich profile psychologiczne wykazują duże zróżnicowanie. Istnieje prawdopodobieństwo, że, zgodnie z teoriami uzdolnień (np. Gagné, 2005), talent językowy rozwija się według trajektorii wyznaczonej przez profil uzdolnień, cech temperamentu i osobowości oraz czynników środowiskowych, których unikalne połączenie owocuje sukcesem w nauce.

Badania Erarda (2012) i Hyltenstama (2016) dotyczą poliglotów, czyli osób osiągających wysokie, choć różnorodne, poziomy kompetencji w kilku językach. Na podstawie kilkudziesięciu przypadków zarówno udokumentowanych naukowo, jak i anegdotycznych, wyłania się profil poznawczo-afektywny osoby ponadprzeciętnie uzdolnionej językowo. Sami poligloci uważają, że są dobrymi obserwatorami i naśladowcami nie tylko akcentu, ale także mowy ciała i zachowania, co warunkuje ich wysokie umiejętności adaptacyjne. Jeśli chodzi o style uczenia się, poligloci wydają się kierować intuicją, jak również wykazują skłonności do systematyzowania, co oznacza, że przejawiają tendencję do organizowania i kategoryzowania przyswajanego materiału. Lubią wzorce, odkrywają zasady, przewidują i szukają wyjątków. Ich główne cechy charakteru to pewność siebie, motywacja, wytrwałość i pracowitość. Najprawdopodobniej mają oni zdolność do angażowania się w specyficzne doświadczenie nazywane z języka angielskiego *flow* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) i aktywnie poszukują tego rodzaju doznań. *Flow* jest stanem doświadczanym przez ludzi, którzy osiągają szczyt lub przekraczają granice swoich możliwości i polega na doznawaniu spontanicznej radości wynikającej z bycia całkowicie pochłoniętym przez aktywność, w którą są zaangażowani.

Jedną z najważniejszych charakterystyk poliglotów jest wysoka motywacja, która, obok potencjału intelektualnego, determinuje ich osiągnięcia (Hyltenstam, 2016). Poligloci są bardzo oddani swojej pasji, która często pochłania ich bez reszty, co jest typowe dla wszystkich utalentowanych osób. Większość poliglotów to samoucy, którzy są w stanie dostosować się do każdego typu kursu i stylu nauczyciela, gdyż i tak język przyswajają samodzielnie. W związku z tym są mistrzami strategii uczenia się, osobami niezwykle pomysłowymi w odkrywaniu nowych technik i metod mających na celu poprawę efektywności tego procesu. Korzystają również z szerokiej gamy materiałów, w tym zaprojektowanych samodzielnie (patrz Erard, 2012). Czynniki osobowości typowe dla poliglotów obejmują otwartość na doświadczenie, wysokie umiejętności adaptacyjne,

ciekawość, kreatywność, pewność siebie, wytrwałość i staranność. Są to bez wątpienia osoby wykazujące wysoki poziom autonomiczności.

5. Wnioski

Z powyższego opisu statusu czynników afektywnych i poza-kognitywnych (granicznych) w badaniach nad zdolnościami językowymi jasno wynika, że brak jakiejkolwiek systematyczności, czy choćby konsekwencji w tego typu analizach. Dominujące modele i testy zdolności językowych nie uwzględniają czynników poza-poznawczych, a wielu badaczy z góry zakłada, że mają one znaczenie marginalne i nie warto się nimi zajmować. Możemy zaobserwować coraz większy dystans pomiędzy badaniami z zakresu psychologii pozytywnej, a badaniami ilościowymi dotyczącymi czynników poznawczych. Taka sytuacja nie pozwala na postęp w badaniach, a przekonanie o bezcelowości tego typu analiz jest nieuzasadnione. Istnieją badania wykazujące związek pomiędzy grupami czynników poznawczych i afektywnych, np. badania neurologiczne zespołu Reiterer, czy Forsberg-Lundel i Sandgren (2013) oraz badania osób ponadprzeciętnie uzdolnionych (Biedroń, 2012), ale pozostają one na marginesie i rzadko znajdują naśladowców.

Istnieje wyraźna potrzeba większej ilości systematycznych badań w tej dziedzinie. Jedną z dróg rozwoju mogą być testy na dużych populacjach, uwzględniające mało zbadane zmienne, jak np. gotowość komunikacyjna i pamięć robocza w określonym kontekście edukacyjnym. Większość dotychczasowych badań wykonywana była na małych próbach, co nie daje pełnego obrazu zależności. Istnieje też duża potrzeba badań jakościowych, dynamicznych (Pawlak, 2017; Serafini, 2017), uwzględniających zmienność w czasie, zgodnie z teorią systemów dynamicznych Dörnyei'a. Nadzieję należy pokładać również w badaniach neurologicznych, które coraz częściej obalają znane teorie i zmieniają naszą wiedzę na temat różnic indywidualnych.

Wiedza na temat złożonych zależności pomiędzy czynnikami poznawczymi, jak zdolności językowe, które ze swej natury nie poddają się łatwo treningowi, a czynnikami podlegającymi dynamicznym zmianom, jak motywacja, gotowość komunikacyjna, strategie uczenia się, czy lęk językowy ma istotny wymiar dydaktyczny. Nauczyciele obcego języka wyposażeni w fachową wiedzę mogliby skuteczniej dostosować metodę nauczania do profilu ucznia, skupiając się na tym, co można zmienić, np. strategie uczenia się, czy przekonania, zgodnie z założeniami psychologii pozytywnej. Należy też pamiętać o tym, że pewne cechy poza-poznawcze, jak np. cechy osobowości czy temperamentu są słabo modyfikowalne, zwłaszcza w krótkim czasie. W praktyce oznacza to, że od małomównego i nieśmiałego introwertyka nie możemy oczekiwać pełnego zaangażowania

w aktywności komunikacyjne. Wysoka motywacja, wbrew często powtarzanym opiniom, nie jest gwarancją sukcesu w nauce języka, jeśli nie towarzyszy jej wysiłek włożony w przyswojenie struktur i słownictwa. Podobnie, lęk językowy może być skutkiem ogólnie niskiej samooceny ucznia, ale także świadomości jego/jej niskich umiejętności. W takiej sytuacji, podnoszenie motywacji i samooceny nie rozwiąże problemu, gdyż tym, czego potrzebuje uczeń jest pokazanie mu, że przy odpowiednim nakładzie pracy może osiągnąć sukces. Wreszcie, aktywny udział nauczyciela w tworzeniu przyjaznej atmosfery w klasie szkolnej wyzwoli w uczniach więcej pozytywnych emocji, co pozwoli zwiększyć motywację do nauki.

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ROLA MOTYWACJI W PROCESIE UCZENIA SIĘ JĘZYKA PRZEZ UCZNIÓW Z DOŚWIADCZENIEM MIGRACJI – METODA JES-PL

Motivation to learn languages by immigrant students – JES PL Method

An increasing number of immigrant students pose new challenges for the Polish school. The immigrant groups consist of foreign children, but also Polish children who migrate with their parents. Their adaptation to a new place and integration are not always easy. These children do not only need professional support from the school and its staff, but also from Polish students. The key to succeeding in this complex process is to learn the language and culture of the country of settlement. Acquisition of this knowledge is conditioned by a motivation to face the Other, the language and culture. The purpose of the paper is to explore the role of motivation to learn the new language and culture of the country of settlement. In particular, we focus on determinants of motivation in the context of language learning and problems immigrant and refugee students are faced with in a new country. We also present the JES-PL Method which aims to support the development of language and communication skills within an immigrant family in the context of school language education (JES).

Keywords: migration, JES-PL Method, self-determination theory

Słowa kluczowe: migracja, metoda JES-PL, teoria samoukierunkowania

1. Wprowadzenie

Polska szkoła stoi przed nowymi wyzwaniami związanymi z pojawianiem się coraz liczniejszych grup uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji. Są to dzieci cudzoziemskie, ale także polskie, które migrują z rodzicami. Ich adaptacja i integracja nie zawsze jest łatwa. Dzieci te potrzebują profesjonalnego wsparcia nie tylko ze strony szkoły i personelu szkolnego, ale także ze strony polskich uczniów. Kluczem do powodzenia tego złożonego procesu jest poznanie języka i kultury kraju osiedlenia. To poznanie jest warunkowane motywacją do spotkania z Innym, jego językiem i kulturą. W tekście rozważamy problem motywacji w procesie poznawania języka i kultury kraju osiedlenia. Przedstawiamy determinanty tej motywacji oraz problemy, na które napotykają uczniowie z doświadczeniem migracji i uchodźctwa. W tej perspektywie przedstawiamy Metodę JES-PL, która ma na celu wspieranie budowania i rozwijania umiejętności językowych, a także komunikacyjnych u uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji w rodzinie w zakresie języka edukacji szkolnej (JES).

2. Kontekst

W literaturze przedmiotu dotyczącej migracji migrant był najczęściej przedstawiany jako osoba bez płci (Kindler, Napierała, 2010). W aktualnych polskich badaniach coraz częściej analizuje się procesy migracyjne w perspektywie płci kulturowej czy też w perspektywie rodziny: migrujących rodziców i wraz z nimi migrujących dzieci (Danilewicz, 2006, 2010; Gaweł-Luty, Kiełb-Grabarczyk, 2016; Ślusarczyk, 2014, Grzymała-Moszczyńska, Walczak, 2014). Wiele polskich badań dotyczy migracji obywateli polskich i ich dzieci, bo Polska, jak pisze Zamojska (2013: 193), „ma wielowiekowe doświadczenie z emigracją, natomiast stosunkowo krótkie z imigracją (ostatnich dwadzieścia lat). Powody tego stanu rzeczy są historyczne – ekonomiczne i polityczne". Ostatnie lata przynoszą zmiany, ponieważ Polska staje się także krajem przyjmującym migrantów. Liczba osób migrujących do Polski nie jest duża w porównaniu do innych krajów europejskich. W Polsce cudzoziemcy, przebywający legalnie, czyli posiadający dokumenty uprawniające do pobytu, stanowią około 1% ludności (365017 osób), przy czym prawie połowa to obywatele Ukrainy (UDSC, 2018). Cudzoziemcy nie są zbiorowością homogeniczną, a sytuacja prawna jej członków jest bardzo zróżnicowana. Wśród przybywających znajdują się migranci ekonomiczni, klimatyczni, migranci „z miłości", migranci seniorzy i uchodźcy – migranci polityczni (Kubitsky, 2012: 10-11). Status tych ostatnich jest specyficzny. Konwencja Genewska z 1951 roku określa uchodźców jako „osoby, które na skutek uzasadnionej obawy przed prześladowaniem w kraju pochodzenia z

powodu rasy, religii, narodowości, przekonań politycznych lub przynależności do określonej grupy społecznej nie mogą lub nie chcą korzystać z ochrony tego kraju". Cudzoziemcy ci mogą mieć różny status pobytowy: zgodę na pobyt tolerowany (ochrona wprowadzona w 2003 roku), ochronę uzupełniającą, lub pobyt w Polsce ze względów humanitarnych. W Polsce, na koniec 2016 r., liczba osób posiadających status uchodźcy lub będących w sytuacji uchodźcy wynosiła 11747 (Urząd do Spraw Cudzoziemców 2018). Według statystyk opublikowanych przez UDSC w 2017 roku, status ochrony międzynarodowej uzyskało 520 osób, a wśród nich byli obywatele Ukrainy (276 osób), Rosji (87 osób) oraz Tadżykistanu (35 osób).

Fakt, że cudzoziemców w Polsce przybywa, wpływa także na demografię szkolną, stąd w polskich szkołach jest coraz więcej uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji. Jednak proporcje uczniów polskich i cudzoziemskich w poszczególnych szkołach są różne. Zależą one od wielkości miasta (im większe, tym koncentracja większa), a także położenia miejscowości względem najbliższego ośrodka dla uchodźców. Według statystyk opublikowanych przez MEN w roku szkolnym 2016/17, liczba uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji w polskich szkołach wynosiła około 22 tysięcy (licząc cudzoziemców oraz polskich obywateli korzystających z dodatkowych zajęć z języka polskiego) i w odniesieniu do roku szkolnego 2012/13 potroiła się. 8163 uczniów korzystało z dodatkowych zajęć językowych i byli to przede wszystkim ci uczniowie, którzy wymagają specjalnej pomocy ze strony nauczycieli i szkół[1].

Placówki, w których uczą się uczniowie z doświadczeniem migracji, stają się szkołami wielojęzycznymi i wielokulturowymi. Praca w takim miejscu jest wyzwaniem dla nauczycieli starających się o zapewnienie dobrej jakości edukacji wszystkim uczniom, także tym słabo lub zupełnie nieznającym języka. Jedni nauczyciele są do tego przygotowani, inni nie. Badania pokazują, że większość szkół jest słabo przygotowana do tej nowej sytuacji. Nauczyciele nie wiedzą, jak pracować z tymi uczniami, jak wspierać ich w procesie akulturacji, jak im pomagać w integracji (Błeszyńska, 2010; Hennel-Brzozowska, Pamuła-Behrens, 2017; Pamuła-Behrens, Szymańska, 2018).

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[1] Warto zaznaczyć, że wszyscy uczniowie cudzoziemscy mają prawo do nieodpłatnej nauki we wszystkich szkołach państwowych (do trzeciego etapu). Nauka odbywa się w klasach ogólnodostępnych, albo w oddziałach przygotowawczych (jest to rozwiązanie umocowane prawnie od września 2016 roku). Uczniowie z doświadczeniem migracji słabo znający język polski lub nie znający go wcale, mogą korzystać w pierwszym roku po rozpoczęciu nauki w polskim systemie oświaty z zajęć języka polskiego w wymiarze dwóch godzin oraz z dodatkowych zajęć wyrównawczych, przy czym suma dodatkowych godzin nie może przekraczać pięciu w tygodniu. Prawo do dodatkowego wsparcia językowego w wymiarze dwóch godzin mają do momentu osiągnięcia wystarczającej kompetencji językowej.

Brak znajomości języka kraju osiedlenia jest jednym z najistotniejszych czynników negatywnie wpływających na integrację i pozytywną akulturację w szkole. Jak podkreśla Beacco (Beacco et al., 2010), budowanie wiedzy i umiejętności szkolnych uczniów, bez względu na przedmiot nauczania, odbywa się poprzez język. Dlatego tak ważne jest, aby uczniowie otrzymali odpowiednie, dostosowane do ich potrzeb wsparcie w szkole.

3. Uczniowie z doświadczeniem migracji w szkole – problemy adaptacyjne i integracyjne

Według Ministerstwa Rodziny, Pracy i Polityki Społecznej – instytucji odpowiedzialnej za kształtowanie polityki integracyjnej w Polsce:

> **integracja** to złożony i dynamiczny proces dwustronny, angażujący zarówno cudzoziemców, jak i społeczeństwo przyjmujące, którego celem jest pełne i równe członkostwo cudzoziemców w społeczeństwie państwa przyjmującego. Celem integracji powinno być doprowadzenie do możliwości samodzielnego funkcjonowania cudzoziemca w Polsce, w tym na rynku pracy, a także uniezależnienie się imigranta od świadczeń i pomocy społecznej. (Ministerstwo Pracy i Polityki Społecznej, 2013)

Należy tutaj nadmienić, że „Integracja jest jednak procesem dwustronnym – nie tylko cudzoziemiec oswaja się z warunkami w nowym miejscu, ale także społeczeństwo przyjmujące wychodzi mu naprzeciw (Klaus, 2007: 16). Proces adaptacji i integracji w nowym kraju jest procesem niełatwym. Osoby migrujące muszą się odnaleźć w nowej kulturze, a przyjmujący muszą być przygotowani na spotkanie z kulturą inną, często odległą. Kontakty pomiędzy osobami przyjmującymi i osiedlającymi nierzadko bywają trudne. Wymagają wysiłku przyglądnięcia się własnej kulturze oraz zmierzenia się ze stereotypowym postrzeganiem Innego. Ten proces odbywa się także w każdej szkole przyjmującej uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji. Wszyscy, nauczyciele, uczniowie, ale także personel szkolny, muszą funkcjonować na co dzień pomiędzy różnymi kulturami i językami, dopasowywać się do siebie nawzajem. Rodzi to konsekwencje, na które zwraca uwagę Rosa Moro (2002), pisząc, że społeczeństwo przyjmujące migrantów tworzy synkretyczną kulturę łączącą elementy różnych kultur. Dochodzi do „metysażu kulturowego", który może powodować niepokój w społeczeństwie przyjmującym. Pojawienie się w nim osób o odmiennej kulturze wywiera wpływ i powoduje zmiany, których jego członkowie się obawiają, jak każdej innej nowości. Potwierdza to także Cyrulnik (2014), stwierdzając, że migranci zmieniają społeczeństwo przyjmujące i jego wyobrażenia. Dla

badacza jest to proces wzbogacający i stymulujący. To proces angażujący emocje, dlatego wymaga wspólnej pracy mentalnej. Przed osiedlającymi się w nowym miejscu i przed przyjmującymi stoi trudne zadanie polegające na znajdowaniu dróg do wzajemnej adaptacji dla wspólnego dobra społecznego (Moro 2002: 33).

Proces adaptacji i integracji przebiega w różny sposób u różnych osób. Zależy to od wielu czynników, zaczynając od tych wynikających z kontekstu, w jakim odbywa, czy odbywała się migracja, po czynniki indywidualne. Moro (2002) podkreśla, aby rozmawiając w różnych kontekstach o różnicach kulturowych, nie spłycać dyskusji do uproszczonych różnic między dwiema kulturami, ponieważ wtedy łatwo wpaść w pułapkę stereotypów i uprzedzeń. Ważna jest wówczas perspektywa indywidualna, gdyż uczniowie z doświadczeniem migracji niosą ze sobą nie tylko bagaż związany z językiem i kulturą, w której zostali wychowani, ale także mają swoje osobowości, swoje pasje i swój bagaż doświadczeń.

Badacze (Woods, 2009; Moro, 2012; Cyrulnik, 2014) podkreślają, że trudność adaptacyjna zwiększa się w sytuacji uchodźstwa oraz wtedy, gdy społeczność przyjmująca nie akceptuje lub ma w pogardzie tożsamość osób przybywających. Tendencje do odrzucania przybyszów z innych krajów obserwuje się w wielu krajach. Dotyczą one także Polski, gdzie w ostatnich latach „Nastąpił szybki (gdyż już w drugiej połowie 2015 r.) i radykalny (gdyż o prawie jedną trzecią) spadek dotychczasowego raczej wysokiego poziomu deklarowanych pozytywnych postaw wobec uchodźców i udzielania im pomocy oraz silny wzrost negatywnych nastawień wobec nich" (Łodziński, 2018: 71). Lęk przed Innym, stereotypizacja grup przybywających do Polski negatywnie wpływają na integrację tych osób w polskim społeczeństwie. Problem ten dotyka także dzieci z doświadczeniem migracji uczących się w polskich szkołach.

Badania Woods (2009) wskazują, że szkoła stanowi miejsce ważne z punktu widzenia procesów integracyjnych. Uczniowie z doświadczeniem migracji i uchodźstwa na zajęciach szkolnych poznają wartości istotne dla społeczeństwa przyjmującego, odkrywają kulturę i zwyczaje kraju przyjmującego, uczą się języka kraju osiedlenia. Dlatego nauczyciele powinni być przygotowani do pracy z takimi uczniami, posiadać świadomość problemów, jakich mogą doświadczać w szkole uczniowie z doświadczeniem migracji i uchodźctwa. Chodzi tu o problemy związane z: nieznajomością języka (Chiswick, Miller, 2001; Iglicka, 2017), ochroną własnej tożsamości (Moro, 2002), brakiem wiedzy na temat społeczeństwa przyjmującego, powiększającą się luką edukacyjną (Chiswick, Miller, 2001; Górska, Korczak, 2004), brakiem wsparcia ze strony rodziców (Thomas, Collier, 2002; Górska, Korczak, 2004; Walker-Dalhouse, Dalhouse, 2009; Iglicka, 2017), konsekwencjami przebytych doświadczeń traumatycznych (Streeck-Fisher, van der Kolk, 2000; Elliott, 2000), takich jak depresje (Haugard, 2003), zaburzenia lękowe (Iversen, Sveaass, Morken, 2014),

podwyższony poziom agresji (Iglicka, 2017) czy zaburzenia procesów poznawczych (Pechtel, Pizzagali, 2011; Pinson, Arnot, Candappa, 2010; Wilson, Hansen, Li, 2011; Cyrulnik, 2014).

Kluczową jednak rolę w procesach adaptacyjnych i integracyjnych ma motywacja. Motywacja do poznania języka kraju osiedlenia i jego kultury. Determinuje ona w wielu przypadkach sukces integracyjny. Stanowi podstawę wszystkich działań adaptacyjnych i integracyjnych. Motywacja to konstrukt niezwykle wrażliwy, dynamiczny, podatny na wpływy zarówno wewnętrzne i zewnętrzne, dlatego holistyczna analiza sytuacji migrantów i uchodźców jest istotna dla wyodrębnienia determinantów motywacji właściwych dla tej grupy.

4. Wpływ motywacji na poznawanie języka kraju osiedlenia przez uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji

Jednym z warunków udanej adaptacji i integracji jest skuteczna komunikacja w języku społeczności przyjmującej imigranta lub uchodźcę. Badania i dane statystyczne wskazują, że tylko niewielka część osób dorosłych podejmuje naukę języka kraju przyjmującego, a ci, którzy korzystają ze wsparcia systemowego, szybko się demotywują, bo oferta jest nieadekwatna do ich potrzeb. Uczący ich nauczyciele nie mają ani przygotowania glottodydaktycznego, ani przygotowania do nauczania dorosłych (Górny et al., 2017; Górny, 2018). Nieco inaczej problem ten wygląda u dzieci z doświadczeniem migracji. Fakt, że wszystkie dzieci do 18 roku życia są w Polsce objęte obowiązkiem szkolnym (art. 94a ust. 1 i 1a ustawy o systemie oświaty) i otrzymują systemowe wsparcie wtedy, kiedy słabo lub wcale nie porozumiewają się w języku polskim powoduje, że wszystkie uczą się tego języka w szkole. Niestety, jak czytamy w Raporcie PAN z 2017 roku „Uchodźcy w Polsce. Sytuacja prawna, skala napływu i integracja w społeczeństwie polskim oraz rekomendacje" (Górny et al., 2017) oraz w raporcie „Uczenie uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji – analiza potrzeb" (Pamuła-Behrens, Szymańska, 2017), nauczyciele nie są dobrze przygotowani do pracy z tymi uczniami, co zmniejsza ich szanse na sukces edukacyjny. Czynniki te mogą mieć negatywny wpływ na motywację do podejmowania nauki czy angażowania się w życie szkoły (Woods 2009).

Na motywację do rozwijania kompetencji językowych w języku kraju osiedlenia przez uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji mogą mieć wpływ także inne czynniki. Liczne badania (Chiswick, Miller, 2001; Masgoret, Bernaus, Gardner, 2003; Miller, 2009; Woods, 2009) wskazują, że są to między innymi: wcześniejsze doświadczenia edukacyjne lub ich brak, przyczyny dla których dzieci i/lub ich rodzice opuścili własny kraj, postawy rodziców wobec nowego kraju, postawy społeczeństwa przyjmującego wobec kultury osób przybywających, a także chęć integracji z nową kulturą oraz adaptacji do nowego miejsca życia.

Badania przeprowadzone przez Gardnera i Lamberta (1972) wskazują, że motywacja do nauki języka obcego różni się od innych rodzajów motywacji do nauki tym, że osoby uczące się języka obcego nie tyle uczą się samego języka, ile również utożsamiają się z osobami posługującymi się tym językiem, np. przysposabiają sobie ich sposób mówienia czy też styl bycia. Badania Gardnera pokazały, że motywacja jest większa u imigrantów, którzy identyfikują się z docelową grupą osób posługujących się danym językiem, niż u tych, którzy takiej identyfikacji nie wykazują. W ujęciu modelu integracyjnego Gardnera motywacja do nauki języka obcego ma związek z pozytywnym nastawieniem do rodzimych użytkowników języka, wyznawanych przez nich wartości, chęcią społecznej interakcji z nimi, co przekłada się na wysiłek i zaangażowanie w naukę (Gardner, MacIntyre, 1993).

W badaniach dotyczących uczenia się języka przez migrantów można zauważyć, że dodatkowym czynnikiem determinującym motywację do uczenia się języka będzie status osoby z doświadczeniem migracji. Uchodźcy, którzy zostali zmuszeni do opuszczenia swojego kraju, adaptują się gorzej i mają mniej motywacji do nauki języka kraju przyjmującego, więcej trudności akulturacyjnych. Potwierdzają to badania Chiswick i Miller (2001) oraz Prześlakiewicza (Górny, 2017). Trudniej im się zaadaptować w nowym społeczeństwie, mniejsza jest też motywacja do nauki języka kraju, w którym czekają na nadanie im statusu. Dwa czynniki są tutaj kluczowe: tymczasowość oraz długość pobytu w ośrodku dla uchodźców. Uchodźcy często postrzegają siebie jako „obywateli tymczasowych" w nowym społeczeństwie, co skutkuje silną motywacją do podtrzymania własnego języka i czasami niechęcią do integracji (Mesch, 2000).

Innym czynnikiem mającym wpływ na motywację uczniów do nauki języka kraju osiedlenia jest rodzina. Może ona wspierać lub hamować motywację do podejmowania nauki języka. Gardner (1985) zauważył, że rodzice mogą odgrywać bierną i czynną rolę w procesie uczenia się. Motywacja dzieci do nauki może być wspierana przez rodziców, którym zależy na integracji dziecka (Moro, 2002) lub ograniczona na przykład przez patriarchalny model rodziny, zwłaszcza w stosunku do dziewczynek (Iglicka, 2017). Woods (2009) podkreśla, że w rodzinach uchodźców starsze dzieci często mają obowiązek zajmowania się młodszym rodzeństwem lub krewnymi i nie mogą liczyć na wsparcie rodzicielskie, a tym bardziej na zapewnienie odpowiedniej edukacji. Badania Grolnick, Ryan i Deci (1991) pokazały, że kiedy rodzice wspierają autonomię swoich dzieci, te wykazują bardziej zinterioryzowaną motywację do nauki, czują się bardziej kompetentne, a nauczyciele postrzegają je jako bardziej samo-zmotywowane niż dzieci rodziców o kontrolującym podejściu do nauki. Ponadto w badaniach wykazano, że dzieci i młodzież z bardziej autonomiczną motywacją, wspieraną przez postawy rodziców, nie tylko osiągały lepsze wyniki

w szkole, ale również cieszyły się lepszym zdrowiem psychicznym (Ratalle et al., 2005; Niemiec et al., 2006, w Ryan,Deci, 2009).

Syndrom stresu pourazowego (PTSD), zaburzenia lękowe i depresja negatywnie oddziałują na samoregulację emocjonalną i behawioralną, motywację i poczucie pewności siebie (Elliott, 2000). Mają one bezpośredni i pośredni negatywny wpływ na umiejętności poznawcze, przyswajanie nowych informacji i wyniki w nauce (Streeck-Fisher, van der Kolk, 2000; Elliott, 2000). Badania nad związkiem traumatycznych doświadczeń i motywacji do nauki języka obcego przeprowadzone na uchodźcach przebywających w Norwegii wykazały, że osoby, które doświadczyły traumatycznych doświadczeń (np. pobyt w więzieniu, torturowanie, przemoc seksualna), charakteryzowała niższa motywacja do nauki języka niż osoby, które doświadczyły np. deprywacji (tj. brak schronienia, pożywienia) (Iversen, Sveaass, Morken, 2014). Traumatyczne doświadczenia niejednokrotnie prowadzą do psychologicznego dystresu oraz depresji, powodując wycofanie i brak motywacji do podejmowania wyzwań. Sytuacja odwrotna, przejście ze stanu deprywacji do stanu bezpieczeństwa, działa pozytywnie na motywację i energię do rozpoczęcia nowego życia, w tym naukę nowego języka (Iversen, Sveaass, Morken, 2014). Szkoła może odgrywać istotną rolę w radzeniu sobie z traumą poprzez odpowiednie wsparcie psychologiczne i pedagogiczne, a w rezultacie zagwarantować właściwą edukację, dobrostan wszystkich uczniów (Woods, 2009).

5. Metoda JES-PL - wspieranie uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji w procesie integracji i adaptacji

We wszystkich europejskich systemach edukacyjnych, w których uczą się coraz liczniejsze grupy uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji, podejmowane są działania mające na celu wspieranie tych dzieci w procesie integracji i adaptacji, motywowania do nauki oraz tworzenia wspierającego środowiska szkolnego. W Polsce jesteśmy na początku tej drogi, bo mimo długiej historii wielokulturowości dopiero od niedawna system edukacji otwiera się i wspiera osoby z doświadczeniem migracji. W wyniku tego powstaje coraz więcej badań oraz rozwiązań wspierających te osoby. Jedną z nich jest Metoda JES-PL opracowana przez badaczki z Centrum Badań nad Edukacją i Integracją Migrantów Uniwersytetu Pedagogicznego w Krakowie – Małgorzatę Pamułę-Behrens oraz Martę Szymańską (2018). Metoda JES-PL ma na celu wspieranie budowania i rozwijania umiejętności językowych, a także komunikacyjnych u uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji w rodzinie, przede wszystkim w zakresie języka edukacji szkolnej (JES). Metoda JES-PL opiera się na sześciu filarach teoretycznych: koncepcji języka edukacji szkolnej (Schleppegrell, 2004, 2010; Zwiers, 2014;

Pamuła-Behrens, 2018), teorii akwizycji języka drugiego (Cummins, 1979, 1989), metodach kształcenia sprawności językowej (Dyduchowa, 1988), teorii przetwarzania informacji w procesie uczenia się (Craik, Lockhart, 1972), strategicznym uczeniu języka poprzez budowanie „rusztowania" (Gibbons, 2002; Wygotski, 1989) oraz teorii samoukierunkowania (Deci, Ryan, 2002, 2017).

Celem niniejszego tekstu, ponieważ dotyczy on roli motywacji w procesie uczenia się języka przez uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji, będzie szczegółowe omówienie teorii samoukierunkowania stanowiącej jeden z filarów Metody JES-PL oraz wskazanie, w jaki sposób wykorzystanie tej metody w praktyce szkolnej może pomóc w zaspokojeniu podstawowych potrzeb: autonomii, kompetencji oraz przynależności, a w rezultacie utrzymać motywację do podejmowania nowych wyzwań związanych z nauką języka i kultury i pobytem w nowym miejscu.

Teoria samoukierunkowania (SDT) jest kompletną, opartą o liczne badania empiryczne teorią zachowań i rozwoju osobowości, wyjaśniającą zróżnicowanie rodzajów motywacji od kontrolowanej po autonomiczną, oraz jej determinantów (Deci, Ryan, 2002; Ryan, Deci, 2017). Przedmiotem badań SDT jest również wpływ czynników różnych kontekstów społecznych na zaspokojenie trzech podstawowych i uniwersalnych potrzeb psychologicznych, tj. potrzeby autonomii, kompetencji i przynależności. Teoria samoukierunkowania ujmuje paradygmaty psychologiczne wyjaśniające motywację do podejmowania i kontynuowania działań.

Motywacja autonomiczna charakteryzuje się zaangażowaniem w działanie wolicjonalne i samoistne wynikające z własnych zainteresowań, dające spontaniczną satysfakcję i zadowolenie. Motywacja kontrolowana (instrumentalna) jest regulowana zewnętrznymi czynnikami (celami) takimi jak: nagrody, uznanie społeczne, osiągnięcie wartościowego wyniku lub celu czy uniknięcie kary (Ryan, Deci, 2017). Motywacja instrumentalna według założeń SDT (Ryan, Deci, 2009) może być mniej lub więcej zinterioryzowana (powody podejmowanych działań stają się autonomiczne) i mieć wpływ na zachowania regulowane:

- *zewnętrznie* (działanie dla nagrody czy uniknięcia kary),
- *introjekcją* (częściowo zinterioryzowana motywacja instrumentalna – zachowanie jest regulowane lękiem, unikaniem wstydu, winy, ale również dumą z otrzymanej nagrody i zaangażowaniem ego, gdzie samoocena jest wynikiem osiągniętego celu wynikającego z wewnętrznej presji i wewnętrznie kontrolowanego zachowania),
- *identyfikacją* (działania są motywowane identyfikacją z wartościami, a zachowanie uznawane jest za własne i wolicjonalne),
- *integracją* (najbardziej autonomiczna motywacja instrumentalna, działania są w pełni wolicjonalne, zgodne z wyznawanymi wartościami, osobiście istotne i ważne dla osiągnięcia wyznaczonych przez siebie celów,

ale nie jest to pełna motywacja autonomiczna, której postawą jest realizacja zainteresowań, zadowolenie, fascynacja i zaangażowanie).

Teoria samoukierunkowania podkreśla znaczenie motywacji autonomicznej (samoistnej) w ukierunkowywaniu działań, trwaniu w nich oraz czerpaniu większej satysfakcji z podejmowanych działań niż w przypadku motywacji kontrolowanej (Ryan, Deci, 2009). Podstawą motywacji autonomicznej jest zaspokojenie trzech podstawowych potrzeb psychologicznych:

- potrzeby autonomii, tj. potrzeby samoregulacji swoich działań i doświadczeń, pozostawania w zgodzie z własnymi wartościami, podejmowania działań z własnej woli;
- potrzeby kompetencji, czyli poczucia skuteczności i rozwoju, efektywnego działania w ważnych kontekstach życiowych;
- potrzeby przynależności związanej z potrzebą bycia społecznie akceptowanym, otaczanym troską przez innych, bycia częścią grup społecznych (Ryan, Deci, 2017).

Zaspokojenie tych trzech potrzeb jest warunkiem pojawiania się optymalnej motywacji do działania. Liczne badania i eksperymenty (por. Ryan, La Guardia, 1999; Reeve, Bolt, Cai, 1999; Assor et al., 2005) pokazały, że nauczyciele wspierający autonomię w klasie (np. brak zachowań kontrolujących, rozumienie punktu widzenia ucznia, umożliwienie podejmowania wyborów czy wspierająca informacja zwrotna) pozytywnie wpływali na percepcję kompetencji poznawczych, własnej wartości oraz motywacji samoistnej u uczniów w porównaniu do nauczycieli, którzy byli bardziej kontrolujący (Ryan, Grolnick, 1986). Także inne badania (Froiland, Worrell, 2016, w Ryan, Deci, 2017) w klasach zróżnicowanych etnicznie (Afro-Amerykanie, Latinosi) potwierdziły, że motywacja samoistna jest wskaźnikiem zaangażowania, skutkującym lepszymi wynikami w nauce. Reeve i Jang (2006) zidentyfikowali zachowania nauczycieli, które pozytywnie korelowały z motywacją samoistną i wspierały autonomię w klasie. Wspierający nauczyciele słuchają swoich uczniów, pytają o ich preferencje, dają wystarczająco dużo czasu na wykonanie zadania i wypowiedź, dają pozytywne informacje zwrotne, a także zachęcają i wspierają, chętnie odpowiadają na pytania ucznia, przyjmują jego perspektywę. Wcześniejsze badania Reeve et al. (2002) pokazały, że uczniowie, którzy otrzymali wyjaśnienie, mające charakter wspierający autonomię, dotyczące istotności nauki języka obcego, chętniej angażowali się w naukę i wkładali w nią więcej wysiłku. Mówiąc krótko, nauczyciel, zapewniając wybór, pozytywną informację zwrotną i empatię, zwiększa motywację samoistną (Ryan, Deci, 2017).

Otoczenie, które wspiera wszystkie potrzeby wskazane powyżej, równocześnie skutecznie wpływa na samoukierunkowane funkcjonowanie i zintegrowany

rozwój, który oddziałuje na odporność i zdrowie psychiczne jednostek (Ryan, Deci, 2017). Osoby otrzymujące wsparcie czują się wewnętrznie zmotywowane, związane z otoczeniem, podejmują działania z własnej inicjatywy (Brophy, 2010). Brak zaspokojenia potrzeby autonomii, kompetencji i przynależności powoduje, że działania stają się motywowane instrumentalnie, oparte na bodźcach i zachętach (*incentives*), zewnętrznych naciskach, nie są także spontaniczne. Skutkuje to ich nietrwałością i obniżeniem motywacji, co potwierdzają liczne badania, których wyniki dowodzą, że motywacja samoistna determinuje wytrwałość w podejmowanych działaniach. Badania Ramage oraz Ehrman (1990 w Noels et al., 2000) pokazały, że uczniowie, którzy wykazują wyższy poziom motywacji samoistnej, kontynuowali naukę języka do końca kursu. Pokazały one także, że uczniowie samoistnie zmotywowani osiągali wyższy poziom w zakresie umiejętności czytania oraz płynności językowej. Także wyniki badań Noels z zespołem (2000) potwierdziły, że uczniowie z bardziej zinterioryzowanymi powodami do nauki języka, w środowisku wspierającym potrzebę autonomii, dającym poczucie kompetencji, odczuwają mniejszy poziom lęku oraz rzadziej rezygnują z nauki. Na dobrostan uczniów, ich poczucie związku ze szkołą oraz społecznością badanych uczniów wpływ ma także klimat klasy wspierający autonomię i budujący poczucie przynależności i inkluzji, na co zwrócili uwagę Ryan i Deci (2017).

W jaki sposób zastosowanie metody JES-PL w praktyce szkolnej może wpłynąć na zaspokojenie trzech podstawowych potrzeb, określanych przez Ryana i Deci jako kluczowe z perspektywy teorii samoukierunkowania?

Potrzeba autonomii

Osią metody JES-PL jest tekst. Ponieważ teksty w podręcznikach są najczęściej zbyt trudne dla uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji, Metoda JES-PL podpowiada nauczycielowi, w jaki sposób może on dokonać adaptacji tekstu. Pokazuje mu, w jaki sposób go zmienić, aby stał się bardziej dostępny dla ucznia i umożliwiał mu samodzielną pracę w trakcie lekcji. Zaadaptowany, uproszczony tekst staje się bardziej przyjazny dla ucznia, który na lekcji, pracując w klasie ogólnej lub w oddziale przygotowawczym, może samodzielnie go przeczytać, a następnie samodzielnie lub z pomocą nauczyciela wykonać kolejne zadania.

Potrzeba kompetencji

Tekst adaptowany według Metody JES-PL powinien umożliwić uczącemu się dostęp do nowej wiedzy i budowanie z pomocą nauczyciela zasobów języka edukacji szkolnej. Z kolei nauczyciel, dzięki wykorzystaniu metody, potrafi przygotować adekwatne do poziomu i potrzeb ucznia ćwiczenia na rozumienie tekstów, dokonać wyboru zakresu słownictwa specjalistycznego (specyficznego i ogólnego) oraz przećwiczyć je w różnych sytuacjach, korzystając z kart pracy „Tropiciel słówek".

Tropiciel słówek

1. Zrób 2 karty do słowniczka

LITERA   SŁOWO

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Metoda pokazuje także nauczycielowi, w jaki sposób budować refleksje na temat mechanizmów językowych. Zachęca uczącego do uważnej obserwacji tekstu, który będzie prezentował uczniowi, uczy poszukiwania z uczniem nowych, interesujących form gramatycznych odpowiadających wybranym funkcjom językowym, a następnie ćwiczenia ich w prostych, przynoszących satysfakcję zadaniach. Proces wspierania umiejętności budowania wypowiedzi zaprojektowano w Metodzie JES-PL bardzo starannie. Na tym etapie wykorzystano dwie metody zaprezentowane przez Annę Dyduchową (1988): metodę analizy i twórczego naśladowania wzorów oraz metodę okazjonalnych ćwiczeń sprawnościowych. Pierwsza, jak piszą autorki Metody JES-PL, Pamuła-Behrens i Szymańska (2018), służy

> wspieraniu ucznia w procesie budowania własnej, poddanej regułom gatunkowym wypowiedzi pisemnej, a także ustnej. Druga odnosi się do wyposażania uczniów w podstawową, powiązaną z kształconą formą wypowiedzi wiedzą o strukturze języka, przy czym w przypadku dzieci młodszych, przede wszystkim tych, dla których język polski nie jest językiem pierwszym. (Pamuła-Behrens, Szymańska, 2018:7)

Modelowanie wypowiedzi dokonuje się poprzez prezentowanie uczniom wzoru, jego analizę, a następnie zachęcanie do stworzenia własnej wypowiedzi. Tak skonstruowane zadania dają uczniom poczucie sprawczości i przede wszystkim przekonanie, że zadania są w ich zasięgu, że mają kompetencje do ich wykonania i mogą je wykonać.

Potrzeba przynależności

Budowanie poczucia przynależności u uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji jest niezwykle ważne. Powinno się je konstruować w dwóch wymiarach: języka i kultury kraju pochodzenia oraz języka i kultury kraju osiedlenia. Obydwie perspektywy są równie ważne, chociaż polski model integracji uczniów cudzoziemskich koncentruje się przede wszystkim na tym, aby uczeń szybko potrafił odnaleźć się w polskim systemie edukacji. Działania szkolne skierowane są na naukę języka polskiego i w mniejszym stopniu dotyczą problemów związanych z tożsamością dziecka, jego kulturą i językiem. Badania zaprezentowane w pierwszej i drugiej części niniejszego tekstu wskazują jednak, jak ważne jest docenienie języka i kultury ucznia, bo długofalowo przyniesie to efekty. W modelu JES-PL zachęca się nauczyciela do podejmowania działań, które będą wspierać poczucie przynależności ucznia. Z jednej strony proponowanie zadań pozwalających na uczestnictwo w lekcji razem z innymi uczniami wzmacnia poczucie bycia częścią zespołu klasowego, osłabia (lub nawet znosi) izolację w trakcie lekcji. Z drugiej strony szacunek i docenianie kultury i języka dziecka pozwalają na zmniejszenie jego dylematów dotyczących lojalności wobec domu, w którym mówi się często innym językiem oraz tożsamości. Uczeń ma przestrzeń, gdzie kultura i język, którym mówi, są doceniane. Także w „Tropicielu słówek" uczeń może wykorzystywać swój pierwszy język do zapisu znaczenia nowych słów i wyrażeń, może objaśnić słowo we własnym języku, a w zadaniach rozwijających umiejętność pisania czy mówienia zachęca się ucznia do mówienia o swoich doświadczeniach ze spotkań dwóch języków i dwóch kultur.

Pomyśl, powiedz i napisz, czym różni się Polska od twojego kraju lub kraju, z którego przyjechałeś/przyjechałaś.

W Polsce	W ....

Przy omawianiu gramatycznych zawiłości języka polskiego nauczyciel może zapytać, jak dany problem gramatyczny czy funkcja komunikacyjna jest realizowana w języku pierwszym ucznia. Takie podejście buduje mosty pomiędzy kulturami i daje uczniowi poczucie bezpieczeństwa.

6. Podsumowanie

W tekście zaprezentowana została refleksja na temat roli motywacji w procesie uczenia się języka przez uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji oraz omówiona teoria samoukierunkowania stanowiącą jeden z filarów Metody JES-PL. Na przykładzie tej metody pokazano, jak można wspierać i rozwijać umiejętności językowe, a także komunikacyjne uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji w rodzinie w perspektywie teorii samoukierunkowania. Ponieważ coraz większa liczba nauczycieli staje przed problemami związanymi z nauczaniem grup dzieci słabo lub wcale nieznających języka ani kultury kraju osiedlenia, wydawało się istotne, aby pokazać, w jaki sposób wykorzystanie Metody JES-PL w praktyce szkolnej może pomóc w zaspokojeniu podstawowych potrzeb uczących się: potrzeby autonomii, kompetencji oraz przynależności, a w rezultacie pomóc utrzymać motywację do podejmowania nowych wyzwań związanych z nauką języka i kultury oraz pobytem w nowym kraju.

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DIALOG DYDAKTYCZNY W UCZENIU SIĘ JĘZYKA OBCEGO

Didactic dialogue in learning a foreign language

The article presents 'didactic dialogue' against the background of other interactive forms of remediation in foreign language learning. Drawing on the works of Antoine de La Garanderie, Reuven Feuierstein and Pierre Vermersch, three didactic approaches have been analyzed. Theoretical considerations have been illustrated with conclusions formulated on the basis of own studies on the use of dialogues in different educational contexts, which included: the diagnosis and remediation of language deficits of special educational needs students, remediation in the case of school failure in foreign language learning, and an interview after completing a task of retelling a story.

Keywords: didactic dialogue, (re)mediation, special educational needs, ddifficulties in learning a foreign language

Słowa kluczowe: dialog dydaktyczny, (re)mediacja, specjalne potrzeby edukacyjne, trudności w nauce języka obcego

> „Nie ma czegoś takiego jak nauczanie, jest tylko uczenie się".
> (Monty Roberts w Miller & Rollnick, 2014:421).

1. Wprowadzenie

Współczesny kontekst edukacyjny stanowi wyjątkowe wyzwanie dla nauczycieli języków obcych realizujących ambitne cele zawarte *w Europejskim Systemie Opisu Kształcenia Językowego* ([2001]/2003). Najnowsze modele glottodydaktyczne (np. Wilczyńska, 2007; Gębal, 2013) wyraźnie wskazują na konieczność uwzględnienia w praktyce dydaktycznej zarówno podejścia różnojęzycznego i różnokulturowego zintegrowanego z nauczaniem danego języka obcego z poszanowaniem zróżnicowanej tożsamości uczącego się, jak i pozostałych czynników wynikających z relacji społecznych w obrębie szkoły, typu szkoły, stosowanych metod nauczania i uczenia się czy rodzajów materiałów glottodydaktycznych, w tym obecności technologii cyfrowych. Nie ulega wątpliwości, że trójczłonowy model „nauczyciel-uczeń-język" nie może już być odniesieniem w myśleniu o procesie nauczania/uczenia się języka obcego. Stawia on bowiem uczącego się w pozycji osoby, która „zderza się" z jednej strony z wymaganiami nauczyciela i jego systemem oceniania, a z drugiej, z nowym, obcym, wręcz „wrogim" systemem językowym funkcjonującym w obcej rzeczywistości kulturowej. Ta wyjątkowo niekorzystna pozycja ucznia, chciałoby się powiedzieć „między Scyllą a Charybdą", niejednokrotnie prowadziła w przeszłości do powstawania wielu barier w nauce języka obcego, wśród których dominował lęk językowy i niskie poczucie własnej skuteczności.

Obecny model glottodydaktyczny zakłada współpracę nie tylko pomiędzy nauczycielami poszczególnych języków (także, w niektórych sytuacjach, języka ojczystego), ale również pomiędzy nauczycielem a uczącym się. Mowa jest o specyficznej współpracy nakierowanej na rozwijanie świadomości językowej ucznia, jego kompetencji metapoznawczych, ale przede wszystkim na włączeniu go w sposób pełny w proces uczenia się języka. Jak taką współpracę zaplanować i wdrożyć? Czy wszyscy uczniowie z niej skorzystają? Jakie są wartości edukacyjne i wartości dodane takiej współpracy? W niniejszym tekście zaproponujemy jedną, choć z pewnością nie jedyną, drogę realizacji projektu „współpraca", a jest nią dialog dydaktyczny. Postaramy się przedstawić dialog dydaktyczny na tle innych interaktywnych form (re)mediacji w uczeniu się, pokazać jego funkcje i przykłady zastosowania oraz zastanowić się nad znaczeniem edukacyjnym i poznawczym dialogu dla ucznia jak i dla nauczyciela. Refleksja teoretyczna zostanie zilustrowana wnioskami płynącymi z dialogów prowadzonych w ramach badań własnych w różnych kontekstach dydaktycznych (Sujecka-Zając, 2016; Karpińska-Szaj, 2010, 2013; Karpińska-Szaj, Wojciechowska, 2015).

2. Interaktywne formy (re)mediacji w uczeniu się

Od wczesnych lat 80. XX wieku psychologowie badają wpływ dialogu motywującego (ang. *motivational interviewing*) na uzyskanie pożądanej zmiany u pacjenta. Wpisany jest on głęboko w humanistyczny, a także humanitarny nurt pracy z drugą osobą (Miller, Rollnick, 2014). Przez dialog motywujący rozumie się „oparty na współpracy styl prowadzenia rozmowy, służący umocnieniu u osoby jej własnej motywacji i zobowiązanie do zmiany" (*ibidem*: 33). Podkreśla się tu wolicjonalny charakter dążenia do identyfikacji tego, co staje się przeszkodą na drodze do w pełni satysfakcjonującego życia. Te cechy klinicznego podejścia do dialogu będą istotne również w dialogu dydaktycznym, który prowadzi do zmiany w sposobie uczenia się, zachęca do wglądu we własne procesy poznawcze, do samoregulacji i większej świadomości siebie jako osoby uczącej się. Zarówno psychologowie jak i pedagodzy oraz dydaktycy wyznają tę samą zasadę: „Ludzie łatwiej dają się przekonać temu, co słyszą ze swoich ust" (*ibidem*). Tak właśnie dzieje się w przypadku dialogowych form komunikacyjnych stosowanych także w kontekście edukacyjnym. Uczący się, który samodzielnie odkrywa i formułuje działania strategiczne, zauważa i poprawia błąd, planuje i ocenia swoją ścieżkę uczenia się, ma zdecydowanie więcej szans na sukces, zarówno osobisty jak i edukacyjny. Rolą prowadzącego dialog jest przede wszystkim ukierunkowywanie sposobu myślenia bez popadania w styl dowodzący, ale też bez pozostawiania uczącego się samemu sobie. Nie jest to z pewnością łatwe zadanie, ale w zamian zapewnia postęp transwersalnych umiejętności uczenia się. Zatem warto próbować. Takie próby, choć w odmiennych formach i na podstawie rożnych przesłanek teoretycznych, podejmowali zwolennicy nurtu dialogowego w edukacji, do których zalicza się Antoine`a de La Garanderie, Reuvena Feuiersteina czy Pierre`a Vermerscha.

Pierwszy z nich to autor koncepcji uczenia się znanej jako „*kierowanie umysłem*" (fr. *gestion mentale*) (de La Garanderie, 1982, 1989), której celem jest rozwijanie procesu uczenia się poprzez świadome kierowanie czynnościami umysłu (zob. Karpińska-Szaj, 2008: 255). Dialog dydaktyczny uświadamia uczącemu się, że w trakcie wykonywania jakiegoś zadania w jego umyśle działają: uwaga, zapamiętywanie, rozumienie, refleksja i wyobraźnia twórcza. Te właśnie czynności powinny być ocenione pod kątem ich skuteczności w jego rozwiązywaniu (zob. także Le Poul, 2002). Często jest to spore wyzwanie dla uczniów, którzy rzadko są zachęcani do umysłowej introspekcji i do niej odpowiednio przygotowani. Francuski pedagog przypomina ponadto, że w naszym umyśle informacje są przetwarzane według osobistego „języka dydaktycznego" (fr. *langue pédagogique*), który ma swoją treść wzrokową, słuchową, werbalną i ruchową. Innymi słowy „w akcie poznania człowiek buduje znaczenie na podstawie

swojego języka dydaktycznego (uwewnętrznienia postrzeganej informacji, czyli wywołania w umyśle), a nie zmysłowego odbioru rzeczywistości" (Karpińska-Szaj, 2008: 257). Podczas dialogu uczący się „przygląda się" zarówno swoim sposobom wywoływania w umyśle nauczanych treści, jak i swojemu dydaktycznemu językowi. Ten etap w uczeniu się jest z reguły pomijany, jako że tradycyjne nauczanie jest dwuaspektowe: od postrzegania treści (np. reguły gramatycznej) bezpośrednio przechodzi się do działania (wykonania ćwiczenia). Tymczasem w metodologii kierowania umysłem zachodzi etap pośredni i z punktu widzenia skuteczności uczenia się, jest on najistotniejszy. Etapem tym jest wywołanie w umyśle (fr. *évocation mentale*), dzięki któremu możliwe jest świadome kierowanie wspomnianymi wyżej czynnościami umysłu. Podczas tego właśnie etapu kluczowe jest wprowadzenie dialogu dydaktycznego, za pośrednictwem którego uczeń może poznać własne zasoby poznawcze i możliwości ich doskonalenia. Dla Antoine`a de La Garanderie to właśnie szkoła miała być „warsztatem dla uczenia się funkcji umysłu" (fr. *atelier d`apprentissage des gestes mentaux*) (1982:10), w którym uczeń jest swoim własnym nauczycielem (fr. *pédagogue de lui-même*).

Przekonanie, że można modyfikować struktury poznawcze poprzez mediację z kompetentnym dorosłym cechuje teorię upośrednionego uczenia się Reuvena Feuersteina (Feuerstein, Spire, 2009). Wspomniana mediacja opiera się nie tylko na dialogu, ale także na specjalnie opracowanych narzędziach, które wykorzystuje się w *Programie Instrumentalnego Wzbogacenia* (ang. *Instrumental Enrichment Program*, fr. *Programme d`Enrichissement Instrumental*). W ich skład wchodzi czternaście zeszytów ćwiczeń trenujących jedną z brakujących funkcji poznawczych, takich jak niemożność dostrzeżenia korelacji między przedmiotami, brak umiejętności porównywania, zła organizacja miejsca i czasu pracy. Mediator odgrywa tu kluczową rolę jako osoba, która towarzyszy dziecku, udziela mu informacji zwrotnej i wspiera go w sytuacjach trudności. Teorię upośrednionego uczenia się odróżnia od koncepcji Antoine'a de La Garanderie etap i sposób stosowania dialogu dydaktycznego. Podczas gdy w metodologii *kierowanie umysłem* chodzi o umożliwienie „odkrycia", że poznanie może być uchwytne i świadomie kierowane poprzez nadanie mu odpowiedniego (to jest właściwego danej osobie) ukierunkowania (fr. *projet de sens*), dialog Reuvena Feuersteina wypracowuje strategie potrzebne do budowania rozumienia i interpretacji poznawanych obiektów i zjawisk za pośrednictwem nakierowywania uwagi przez osobę bardziej doświadczoną.

Jeszcze inne podejście, choć nadal wykorzystujące dialog dydaktyczny, reprezentuje wywiad wyjaśniający autorstwa Pierre`a Vermerscha ([1994] 2014). Badacz odczuwał przede wszystkim bezskuteczność dotychczasowych formuł rozmowy z uczniami, nakierowanymi na cel ewaluacyjny lub transmisyjny. Nie pozwalało to na wgląd w sposoby uczenia się, ani na prawdziwą koncentrację

na uczniu, o którą dopominały się nauki pedagogiczne (Sujecka-Zając, 2016: 175). Vermersch poszukiwał formuły, która pozwoli na wejście w prawdziwą relację oraz aktywne słuchanie i takie właśnie cechy posiada opracowany przez niego wywiad wyjaśniający. Polega on na ukierunkowaniu ucznia na werbalizację ścieżki umysłowej dla podjętego działania, stąd potrzeba zrealizowania przez ucznia konkretnego zadania osadzonego w treści przedmiotowej (np. zadanie matematyczne), do którego odwołuje się prowadzący dialog. Proponowana przez Pierre`a Vermerscha metodologia badawcza korzysta z tez psychofenomenologii Edmunda Husserla uznającej, że indywidualna i subiektywna introspekcja jest źródłem informacji na temat jednostkowego działania w określonej sytuacji.

Przedstawione powyżej interaktywne formy mediacji w uczeniu się różnią się pod względem rozumienia celowości i natury działań metapoznawczych ucznia. Szacowane przez samego ucznia za pośrednictwem dialogu dydaktycznego procesy metapoznawcze umożliwiają identyfikację przyczyn sukcesu lub porażki odnośnie do następujących po sobie czynności w sytuacji zadaniowej. W dialogu dydaktycznym Antoine'a de La Garanderie chodzi o poznanie i ewentualną zmianę pespektywy znaczenia przypisanego danej operacji myślowej biorącej udział w planowaniu i wykonywaniu zadania. Teoria upośrednionego uczenia się Feuersteina oraz wywiad wyjaśniający Vermerscha zmierzają natomiast do zdefiniowania przedmiotu uczenia się (selekcja treści), strategii uczenia się (dobór sposobów osiągnięcia wyznaczonego celu), a przede wszystkim odpowiedzi na pytanie dlaczego warto podjąć wysiłek poznawczy (uświadomienie sobie osobistych powodów, dla których warto przedsięwziąć dane zadanie), co zwiększa szanse nie tylko na rozwiązanie danego problemu, ale pozwala wyeliminować (a przynajmniej zmniejszyć) trudności związane z niekorzystnymi przyzwyczajeniami w pracy umysłowej. Wszystkie te formy mediacji są jednak zbieżne co do znaczenia introspekcji w uczeniu się: pokazują, jak ważne jest poprowadzenie uczącego się w stronę świadomości siebie jako autora i wykonawcy działania umysłowego, lepszego zrozumienia mentalnych narzędzi, z jakich może on korzystać, lub nad którymi powinien popracować, aby je lepiej rozwinąć. Wysiłek, jaki zarówno nauczyciel jak i uczeń muszą włożyć w omówione działania, zasługuje na wyraźne pokazanie funkcji dialogu dydaktycznego, również w kontekście dydaktyki języków obcych.

3. Funkcje dialogu dydaktycznego

Konstruowanie wiedzy w otoczeniu stymulującego środowiska ludzi i rzeczy jest powszechnie znanym postulatem społecznego konstruktywizmu (Barth, 1993). Ta czynność umysłowa jest o wiele bardziej wymagająca niż proste odtworzenie wiedzy przekazanej przez jakieś zewnętrzne źródło, a sama czynność uczenia się

nabiera wagi równej owej wiedzy, którą należy skonstruować w umyśle. Z tego stwierdzenia biorą początek wszelkie rozważania dotyczące umiejętności uczenia się (fr. *savoir-apprendre*) oraz możliwości jego wspomagania. Do tych ostatnich przynależy również dialog dydaktyczny, który ma widoczny wpływ na umiejętność analizowania i interpretowania czynności umysłowych wywołanych zadaniem. W dialogu dydaktycznym, o czym wspominaliśmy wcześniej, punktem wyjścia jest zatem zadanie, na podstawie którego uczeń docieka następnie swojej ścieżki poznania. Sytuacja zadaniowa jest więc nieodzownym warunkiem dialogu dydaktycznego, gdyż mediacja powinna zawsze zasadzać się na planowaniu (antycypowaniu i ukierunkowaniu znaczeń), realizacji i (samo)ocenie konkretnego działania. Jednak, jak twierdzi Britt-Mari Barth (1993: 19), „potrzebujemy towarzyszenia oświeconego przewodnika, który potrafi wybrać użyteczne sytuacje i prowadzi uczącego się w kierunku tego, czego on sam nie byłby zdolny zobaczyć"[1] (tłum. własne). W zależności od fazy wykonywania zadania, mediacja w dialogu dydaktycznym może odnosić się do środków poznawczych mobilizowanych do planowania zadania, strategii używanych w czasie jego realizacji i wreszcie umiejętności usytuowania się w pozycji „meta", by za pomocą odpowiednich do danej sytuacji uczenia się narzędzi poznawczych oszacować przebieg wykonanego działania. Stąd funkcje dialogu dydaktycznego można rozpatrywać w trzech obszarach:

(1) w obszarze kognitywnym: poprzez wsparcie abstrakcyjnego myślenia i rozumienia, wdrażanie do samoregulacji i samooceny, uświadamianie funkcjonowania własnego „języka dydaktycznego" w działaniach umysłowych;

(2) w obszarze samoświadomości poznawczej: dzięki wglądowi we własne procesy myślowe, uchwyceniu i ocenie skuteczności narzędzi służących autonomii (np. lepszemu rozeznaniu w stosowanych strategiach uczenia się), dialog dydaktyczny wywołuje poczucie własnej skuteczności oraz umocowuje wewnętrznie źródła sterowania i kontroli czynności poznawczych;

(3) w obszarze mediacji relacyjnej: dialog przyczynia się do zbudowania relacji opartej na szczerości i zaufaniu, jest okazją do indywidualizacji nauczania, pozwala na rozeznanie przyczyn trudności w uczeniu się i podjęcie ewentualnych kroków remediacyjnych.

W obszarze kognitywnym za pomocą introspekcji praktykowanej w formie dialogu dydaktycznego można zatem dotrzeć do samego aktu poznawczego, a warunkiem uczenia się jest świadome kierowanie reprezentacjami mentalnymi w konkretnym celu. W obszarze mediacji natomiast, dialog dydaktyczny może stać

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[1] « On a besoin d'être accompagné par un guide averti qui sait choisir les situations utiles et qui aide l'apprenant à « voir » ce qu'il n'est, seul, capable de voir ».

się zarówno narzędziem diagnozy niepowodzeń szkolnych, jak i źródłem postępu ucznia z indywidualnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi i osobistymi celami uczenia się, który będzie mógł pracować w sytuacji partnerstwa i wsparcia. W zależności od celu mediacji, dialog przybiera zatem różne formy, co nie oznacza jednak, że zasadza się on na konkretnych, wystandaryzowanych matrycach. Przeciwnie, kontekst uczenia się/nauczania języków obcych, osobiste cele uczenia się i cechy językowej kompetencji komunikacyjnej konkretnego (o indywidualnej biografii językowej) ucznia powodują, że dialog tworzy się na kanwie zawsze odmiennie prowadzonego stylu rozmowy, w zależności od problemu danej osoby i obranego celu dydaktycznego. Celami tymi mogą być np.:

— oszacowanie deficytów językowych ucznia ze specjalnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi na potrzeby planowania i realizacji celów terapeutycznych w trakcie nauki języka obcego (stąd tak ważna jest wspomniana wyżej współpraca z nauczycielem języka polskiego oraz innych języków obcych w wykształcaniu u ucznia nawyku porównywania języków, funkcjonowania w dyskursie, korzystania z potencjału repertuaru środków językowych, poznawczych i strategii uczenia się w nowej sytuacji komunikacyjnej/uczenia się);

— zidentyfikowanie i kompensowanie trudności językowych, tzw. niepowodzenia w szkolnej nauce języka obcego, która w większości wypadków odnosi się do braku umiejętności tworzenia powiązań między wiedzą/sprawnościami posiadanymi, a nowym kontekstem ich użycia, braku lub zaburzonej samokontroli (monitorowania) zachowań językowych, obniżonej motywacji, poczucia bezradności;

— dialog ewaluacyjny – wywiad, często stosowany w badaniu w działaniu, także prowadzonym na potrzeby nauczyciela-badacza w kontekście szkolnym, który ma na celu zebranie opinii (samooceny) po wykonaniu zadania/zadań – jest to ocena, istotna dla badacza, gdyż inspiruje do programowania dalszego przebiegu badania, jak i stanowi etap podsumowania pracy ucznia skłaniający do refleksji i uświadomienia sobie znaczenia zaistniałych zmian.

Dialog dydaktyczny realizuje tym samym cele badań jakościowych: pozwala na głębsze i pełniejsze zrozumienie badanego zagadnienia, odnosi się do charakterystyki jednostek a nie grupy, nie weryfikuje hipotez, ale pozwala na odpowiedzi na postawione pytania badawcze. Wspomniane wcześniej formy dialogu dydaktycznego umożliwiają lepszy jakościowo wgląd w działania umysłowe, a co za tym idzie, sprzyjają wzbogaceniu warsztatu poznawczego ucznia.

4. Dialog dydaktyczny w badaniach własnych

Poniższe przykłady, zaczerpnięte z badań własnych Autorek, pokazują sposób, w jaki dialog dydaktyczny wpływa na rozumienie własnej ścieżki poznania w różnych sytuacjach uczenia się i nauczania języka obcego. Są to wybrane fragmenty wypowiedzi badanych osób najpełniej ilustrujące dokonujące się w ich myśleniu zmiany. Odnoszą się one do trzech sytuacji dydaktycznych:

– diagnozy i kompensowania niedoborów językowych ucznia ze specjalnymi potrzebami edukacyjnymi – niepełnosprawność słuchu implikująca trudności w zapamiętywaniu i monitorowaniu wypowiedzi własnych (przykład 1);

– remediacji w sytuacji niepowodzenia w szkolnej nauce języka obcego – tworzenie i użycie czasów przeszłych w zadaniu tłumaczenia zdań (przykład 2);

– wywiadu po wykonaniu zadania przeformułowania tekstu – sprawowanie (samo)kontroli nad łączeniem formy i treści (struktur gramatycznych i schematu narracyjnego) w tekście przeformułowanym (przykład 3).

Przykład 1
Dialog został przeprowadzony w 2016 roku z uczennicą (OJ) drugiej klasy gimnazjum w Poznaniu po przeprowadzeniu zadania polegającego na odtworzeniu opowiadania w języku polskim oraz w języku francuskim. Mediacja dotyczyła przetworzonego fragmentu:

> (pl) *odpóki Tomek nauczył gadać z mrówką i rybą dopóki był mądry
> (fr) Tom a dit qu'il voulait parler avec *fourmis et poissons pour tout savoir

We fragmencie w języku polskim można zauważyć niepoprawnie (choć opartą na logicznych przesłankach) utworzoną formę określenia przedziału czasu « odpóki ». W zdaniu w języku francuskim widoczna jest prawidłowo utworzona forma „pour" wyrażająca celowość. Z informacji uzyskanych od nauczyciela języka polskiego wiadomo, że uczennica ma kłopot z wyrażaniem przyczynowości w języku polskim. Uchwycenie tej zależności w języku francuskim może więc przyczynić się do utworzenia takiego pojęcia w języku polskim i używania go za pomocą takiej samej strategii jak w języku obcym, stąd pytania badaczki (KKS) naprowadzające na tę kwestię. Na uwagę zasługuje także sposób zapamiętywania i odtwarzania słów w obu językach.

KKS – Mogłybyśmy porozmawiać co działo się w twojej głowie, gdy czytałam to opowiadanie ?

JO – Chciałam zapamiętać dużo rzeczy, ale już wiedziałam o co chodzi, to była taka historia o miłości i potem mieli różne przygody, ale to nieważne, bo wyobraziłam sobie, że wrócili do szkoły i są razem.

KKS – A jak słuchałaś po francusku?

JO – To chciałam się nauczyć nowych słów, bo one są ładne i nie muszę myśleć, żeby dobrze odmieniać słowa.

KKS – Co wg ciebie oznacza *pour* w tej części?

JO – No że chciał to wiedzieć, o wszystkim, na wszystkim się znać.

KKS – Usłyszałaś to słowo w tekście?

JO – Nie, ale widziałam w mojej głowie tego Tomka jak musi o tym powiedzieć królowi, że musi tyle umieć. To tak jak ja, też muszę szukać słowa, żeby ktoś mnie zrozumiał po francusku.

KKS – A gdy mówisz po polsku ?

JO – To muszę mówić tylko wyraźnie, tak jak do Pani, ale słowa przecież znam: *Tomek chciał to wszystko wiedzieć, bo jak ktoś coś wie wtedy się podoba, no i odpóki to wiedział to dopóki był mądry.*

KKS – Potrafisz sobie wyobrazić tę sytuację?

JO – Ja tego nie widzę, po prostu wiem, że tak jest, ale żeby to opowiedzieć, to po francusku wyświetliłam sobie w głowie słowa, tak jakby były napisane na kartce i po prostu je odczytałam po kolei**.**

Przykład 2

Osoby, z którymi przeprowadzono dialog to uczennice drugiej klasy jednego z warszawskich liceów ogólnokształcących, które wykazują trudności w uczeniu się języka francuskiego. Dialog przeprowadzono w styczniu 2018 roku. Dialog odnosił się do zadania tłumaczenia zdań z języka polskiego na francuski, które obejmowały materiał językowy przewidziany na danym etapie kształcenia. Badaczka (JSZ) nakierowuje uwagę uczennic OW i AP na sposób tworzenia czasu i miejsce partykuł przeczenia, oddziałuje jednocześnie motywacyjnie podtrzymując tworzone hipotezy uczennic i bez podawania właściwej odpowiedzi wspiera ich tok myślenia. Przytoczone poniżej fragmenty pokazują, w jaki sposób uczennice pogłębiają swoje rozumienie analizowanych fragmentów zdań, śledzą swoje myślenie starając się odnaleźć w gąszczu na wpół zapomnianych reguł i form, które powoli trafiają na właściwe miejsce. Rola badaczki polegała na wyzwalaniu świadomości właściwego porządku w systemie językowym, na przypominaniu, że ten system jest spójny i logiczny.

Przytoczony fragment wypowiedzi OW dotyczy przetłumaczonego zdania polskiego „Nie zrozumieliśmy niczego" na zdanie francuskie: *Nous n`avons comprendé rien.

OW – No to „Nie zrozumieliśmy niczego", myślę, jak się tworzy przeczenie w j. francuskim no to jest „ne – czasownik - pas" , chyba że, bo jak jest np. „nigdy" to jest inaczej, no i „rien" to jest „niczego". Ale chyba źle odmieniłam „comprendre", bo mi się to wszystko miesza.

JSZ – Tak, Ty już sama wiesz, że tu gdzieś jest jakaś słabość ..

OW – Tak. Ja za rzadko powtarzam po prostu pewne rzeczy .. język ma to do siebie, że się zapomina po prostu słownictwo ..

JSZ – a gdybyś miała teraz tak po nitce do kłębka dojść, w takim sensie, że już wiesz, że tutaj coś nie gra z tym czasownikiem i dlaczego tak uważasz?

OW – bo „nie zrozumieliśmy niczego" jest w czasie przeszłym czyli to powinno być albo „imparfait" albo „passé composé".

JSZ – Czyli tutaj jest takie miejsce, gdzie trzeba coś zadziałać, to spróbuj to sobie przemyśleć.

OW – Jak by było w „passé composé" to „nous n`avons compren …[zawieszenie głosu], nie, nie pamiętam, potem „pas rien".

JSZ – Czyli już możesz tu poprawić, bo skoro to passé composé czyli dokonana forma to musisz mieć to „nous n`avons.." , widzę, że starasz sobie przypomnieć, jak wygląda participe passé?

OW – Nie, właśnie jak wygląda bezokolicznik [comprendre] czyli *comprendé pas rien, nie, bo przecież jest „-re", nie, nie wiem, nie przypomnę sobie.

Poniżej przytoczony fragment wypowiedzi uczennicy AP dotyczy zdania: *Nous avons compri rien.*

JSZ – Czy pamiętasz, że szyk wyrazów w zdaniu polskim, nie zawsze, choć czasem tak, jest jak w tym odpowiedniku francuskim. I czy masz tutaj jakiś taki znak zapytania „czy ja na pewno mogę zostawić „rien" na końcu tego zdania?"

AP – tak, mam tak, ale w tym przypadku nie wiedziałam, jak tego użyć, więc po prostu zostawiłam na końcu zdania, bo zastanawiałam się nad tym, czy powinno być między podmiotem a orzeczeniem czy na końcu, no ale nie wiem, więc zostawiłam.

JSZ – A teraz gdybyś miała to jeszcze głębiej sprawdzić, jakby czyli zastanowić się „jak w ogóle wygląda przeczenie w języku francuskim" i np. powiedz sobie jakiekolwiek zdanie, które ma przeczenie, np. „nie śpiewam"

AP – no tak, no to „ne pas" się używa.

JSZ – i wiesz, w którym momencie dajesz to „ne ...pas"? umiesz powiedzieć „nie czytam", „nie śpiewam", „nie pracuję"? I wobec tego taki punkt wyjścia, że system przeczenia w języku francuskim to jest system, który ma .. ile elementów?

AP – no dwa, tak?

JSZ – tak, to czy zrobisz teraz przełożenie do Twojej hipotezy? Mówisz sobie „system francuski powinien mieć dwa elementy w przeczeniu, czy ja je mam?"

AP – no nie, mam jeden.

JSZ – i wobec tego spróbuj to nadrobić.

AP – jeszcze powinno być „n`.."?

JSZ – tak, od razu to masz, że jeszcze gdzieś musi być to „n`…" bo przeczenie po francusku nie jest takie jak po polsku. Czyli musisz szukać, czy w Twoim zdaniu, które traktujesz jako pewną hipotezę roboczą, czy Ty jesteś w tym systemie. I albo mówisz „tak, jestem" albo mówisz „nie, nie jestem". I jeśli mówisz „nie , nie jestem to co mam zrobić, żeby być". I dopisałaś „nous n`avons … compris" i jeszcze pozostaje kwestia, że są dwa elementy, czyli one muszą mieć jakieś miejsca w tym systemie.

AP – acha, i to „rien" będzie tak samo jak „pas"? Czyli muszę tutaj .. [dopisuje]

Przykład 3

W trzecim przykładzie dialog przybrał formę wywiadu. Badaczki (KKS i BW) ograniczyły do minimum instruktażowe sekwencje swoich interwencji, nakierowując tylko refleksje respondentek (JK, AK) na elementy, które powinny być brane pod uwagę w końcowej fazie eksperymentu podsumowującego zadania rozwijające świadomość językową i dyskursywną studentów. Zadania te polegały na odtworzeniu odsłuchanego tekstu narracyjnego oraz na napisaniu ciągu dalszego poznanej historii. Oprócz wartości badawczej, cennej z punktu widzenia oceny przeprowadzonego badania w działaniu[2], ta forma dialogu miała dla uczących się wymiar poznawczy – umożliwiający samoocenę swoich postępów w przyswajaniu gramatyki rozumianej jako specyficzny dla danego języka (francuskiego) podsystem morfo-składniowy realizowany w wypowiedzi zgodnie z normą dyskursywną (w badanym przypadku – schematem tekstu narracyjnego).

Przytoczone poniżej fragmenty wypowiedzi dotyczą odpowiedzi na pytanie: „W jaki sposób czuwała Pani nad spójnością tekstu?"

JK – Z tym słuchaniem miałam taki problem, że w głowie przechodziło mi to na język polski i zapamiętywałam to po polsku i potem te słowa , które gdzieś się pojawiały i które zrozumiałam ze względu na kontekst, nie mogłam potem użyć ich z powrotem po francusku bo znałam je jakby tylko z tego kontekstu a nie w tłumaczeniu z polskiego na francuski. No i poza tym ta historyka działa się w przeszłości dlatego ważny był czas.

AK – Co się po kolei działo przychodzi pani znaczy nie przychodzi pani, spóźnia się, przychodzi nowa dziewczynka tutaj musi usiąść, to wszystko po kolei sobie w głowie układałam, jakby plan wydarzeń.

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[2] Badanie w działaniu, z którego pochodzą wypowiedzi studentów zostało przeprowadzone w 2015 roku wśród studentów filologii romańskiej UAM z grupy początkującej, a jego wyniki przedstawione w artykule « La performance morphosyntaxique dans les tâches de reformulation écrite. Cas d'étudiants débutants en FLE » autorstwa K. Karpińskiej-Szaj i Bernadety Wojciechowskiej (zob. bibliografia).

Kolejne przykłady wypowiedzi odnoszą się do stopnia trudności wykonywanych zadań i są odpowiedzią na pytanie: „Które zadanie było dla ciebie łatwiejsze: samodzielna produkcja tekstu narracyjnego, czy odtworzenie odsłuchanej historyjki?"

> JK – Znacznie mniejszy problem miałam z szukaniem słów jak pisałam sama z siebie, to było tak jakbym znała swoje granice, możliwości swojego słownictwa więc starałam się nie uciekać za to pewnie dlatego ze słownictwem nie było takiego problemu. AK – Słuchając musiałam wyłapywać istotne informacje i potem je napisać. Nie miałam więc czasu zastanawiać się nad użytą formą gramatyczną. W czasie gdy pisałam ciąg dalszy sama decydowałam jakiego czasu i czasownika użyje. Ale za to słuchając udało mi się wychwycić czasowniki w imparfait, bo przecież to opowiadanie, więc wiedziałam, że się pojawią.

5. Podsumowanie

Dialog dydaktyczny proponowany w trakcie nauki języka obcego ma na celu wyłonienie i uświadomienie uczniowi jemu właściwego funkcjonowania poznawczego w rozwijaniu określonych kompetencji językowych. Dzieje się to za pośrednictwem nauczyciela, który zapewnia uczniowi, za pomocą kierowanej rozmowy, wgląd w stosowane dotąd sposoby uczenia się, komunikowania, funkcjonowania w języku oraz ich ewentualną modyfikację czy rozwijanie. Prowadzony dialog, przyjmując różne formy w zależności od osadzenia w wybranej perspektywie badawczo-aplikacyjnej, może być nakierowany na uchwycenie związków logicznych w formułowaniu myśli/rozwiązywaniu problemów, może też zmierzać do wyjaśniania sposobów uczenia się, czy wreszcie może docierać do indywidualnych środków poznawczych wyrażonych w specyficznej formie wywołania w umyśle w celu uczenia się.

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EMOTIONS, LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Abstract

Emotions are a significant part of our lives. The question of how to communicate emotions is especially important for individuals who, apart from speaking their mother tongue, speak another, either second or foreign language. Research shows that there are differences across languages in terms of the vocabulary of emotion, in the concepts underlying lexical items, in the degree of ease of expressing and describing emotions. Therefore, teaching emotion words is of vital importance for successful communication. One of the factors which may be conducive in eliciting emotions is teaching materials. The purpose of this paper is to address the problem of expressing emotions in a foreign language and suggest the use of linguistic landscape as one of possible sources of input for teaching/learning how to perceive and communicate emotions in a foreign language effectively.

Keywords: emotions, emotion words, foreign language learning, linguistic landscape

Słowa kluczowe: emocje, słowa emocjonalne, uczenie się języka obcego, krajobraz językowy

> *He was confused, painfully conscious of his inarticulateness.*
> *He had felt the bigness and glow of life in what he had read,*
> *but his speech was inadequate. He could not express what*
> *he felt, and to himself he likened himself to a sailor, in a*
> *strange ship, on a dark night, groping about in the unfamil-*
> *iar running rigging. (Martin Eden, Jack London)*

1. Introduction

Emotions are part of our lives, whether private or professional, and arise due to a variety of factors while we relate to the world, other people, situations, events, objects. They are one of the burning issues in foreign language learning and teaching, with numerous research studies on the role of positive and negative affective factors that are part and parcel of students' learning and teachers' work (e.g. Arnold, 1999; Gabryś-Barker, Bielska, 2013). Additionally to the question of emotions experienced during life and, more specifically, during education, there is the question of how to communicate affective states in a foreign language, especially as it has been confirmed that talking about emotions in L2 is more difficult or different than in L1 (e.g. Dewaele, 2006, 2008; Dewaele, Nakano, 2012; Pavlenko, 2006).

In line with the current trend of linking classroom education with out-of-class opportunities for language learning, recently there has been some interest in the environment, equipped with linguistic signs of different types, such as street signs, banners, billboards, digital signage, barn advertisements, truckside or bus advertising, street furniture, lawn signs, mobile signs, together known to create the linguistic landscape (LL) of a given place. As some scholars suggest, the linguistic landscape may contribute a lot to foreign language learning (Cenoz, Gorter, 2008; Bever, 2012, Dagenais *et al.*, 2014; Aladjem, Jou, 2016), first of all as an "additional source of input in second language acquisition" (Cenoz, Gorter, 2008: 267). Cenoz and Gorter discuss the potential role of the LL in language teaching in more detail. First, they view the LL as input for SLA which is authentic and contextualised, being a part of the social context in which learning takes place. It is authentic, in the sense that its particular elements have not been created for pedagogical purposes but for real communication and include written messages for potential readers. The language of the LL is usually simple, with limited number of words and simplified sentence structures. However, due to the fact that the texts visible in the LL have diverse functions, they may serve as a basis for the discussion of the intent of the written texts, as well as of the different genres which constitute the LL. Hence, the LL may play a role in the development of pragmatic competence. The LL offers written texts, which makes it suitable for the development of literacy skills and pre-literacy skills, such as print awareness, especially important for younger learners. The linguistic signs placed in the environment are often written, not in one but in two or more languages and, additionally, the verbal message is supported by a complementary visual image. This creates opportunities for practicing reading comprehension and fostering interpretation skills in more than one language, and in more than one mode of communication (not only verbal but

also visual). Finally, Cenoz and Gorter discuss how the LL is related to affective factors in language learning, especially to attitudes learners have towards languages and to the problem of the identity of speakers of different languages. Obviously, the possibilities for making use of the elements of the LL for foreign language teaching/learning are more numerous, Cenoz and Gorter mention only some basic directions. In this article I would like to look more closely at the linguistic landscape as input to the teaching/learning how to express and communicate emotions in a foreign language.

2. Emotions

Emotions have been studied at least since Aristotle's times, and for both philosophers and psychologists they have been a matter of confusion and contradiction. In the 20th century, emotions attracted the interest of scholars working within a variety of academic disciplines, such as sociology, psychology, neurophysiology and linguistics, yet it is still difficult to provide an exhaustive definition of the phenomenon. As Fehr and Russell (1984:464) observed, "[E]veryone knows what an emotion is, until asked to give a definition". Similarly, in the field of language education, Swain (2013:205) wrote: "(...) emotions are the elephants in the room – poorly studied, poorly understood, seen as inferior to rational thought." Most scholars, however, agree that emotion is a wide concept which embraces a whole range of meanings and cannot be reduced to "feelings" only, although, on the other hand, they may be considered in reference to feelings (Wierzbicka, 1995:24). In the studies on emotions, apart from feelings, other phenomena are considered as well, such as changes in control over one's behaviour or thoughts, impulsive, incidental behaviours, the emergence or stability of beliefs, changes in relation to others and physiological changes which are not caused by physiological conditions (Frijda, 2008).

Nico Frijda, in his seminal book *The Emotions*, wrote:

> Emotional phenomena are noninstrumental behaviors and noninstrumental features of behavior, physiological changes, and evaluative, subject-related experiences, as evoked by external or mental events, and primarily by the significance of such events. (1986:4)

What does this brief statement tell us about emotions? First, emotion arises as a consequence of events which are significant for a person, wherein the events are situated in the outer world or, on the contrary, are mental. Among the conditions under which the emotions are elicited, Frijda (1993:225) elsewhere mentions interaction between events and a person's ideals concerning her or

his welfare, as well as the perceived ability to cope with the event. Second, the emotions arise as a result of an evaluation of the event in relation to the subject's experience and concerns (Scherer, 2005). In fact, evaluation plays a crucial role in the arousal of emotions since it is believed to mediate between events and emotions (Frijda, 1993). It also accounts for the differences in individuals' emotions and between different types of emotions. Smith and Lazarus (1993) explain the phenomenon of appraisal in the following way:

> Appraisal is an evaluation of what one's relationship to the environment implies to person well-being. Each positive emotion is said to be produced by a particular kind of appraised benefit, and each negative emotion by a particular kind of appraised harm. The emotional response is hypothesized to prepare and mobilize the person to cope with the particular appraised harm or benefit in an adaptive manner, that is, to avoid, minimize, or alleviate an appraised harm, or to seek, maximize, or maintain an appraised benefit. (Smith, Lazarus, 1993: 234)

Emotions are generated by appraisals, and through appraisals they are connected to actions, impulsive, without prior intent, or intentional (Frijda, 2010). Thus, taking into account both the psychological and social aspects of emotions, they may be considered as mediating between preceding events and their consequences, be they mental or behavioural.

Emotions play a key role in individuals' lives and, what is more, are crucial in relations between individuals, therefore we need words to express and/or describe emotional experiences, whether we speak in our mother tongue or in a second or foreign language. I will discuss emotion words in the next section.

3. Emotion words

Emotions are expressed and communicated through language. Expressing emotions and describing emotions is done by speakers not only in literary works, but in their daily discourses by means of linguistic expressions. One of the tools for the communication of emotions, recently discussed in the literature on emotions in bi/multilingual contexts, are emotion words, that is words which indicate or describe affective states and processes, or sometimes evoke emotional responses (Pavlenko, 2008:148).

Languages differ in their range of emotion words. Some have only a few, for example, Chewong is said to have only seven emotion words (Howell, 1981), while others possess a fairly big repertoire, such as English, which is reported to have more than 2,000 emotion words (Wallace, Carson, 1973). Languages differ also in respect to the grammatical categories used for encoding

emotion. In English, emotions are encoded mainly through nouns and adjectives, while in Polish verbs are preferred (Pavlenko, 2008). Additionally, emotion words are culturally dependent, and it is not always possible to find equivalents in a second language which would provide exactly the same meaning. Wierzbicka and Harkins, discussing the subtle differences between the English label for *anger* and French words often used as its equivalents, *coleré* and *furieux*, explain:

> Even in the case of these two fairly closely related European languages, it is widely perceived that the differences in usage of emotion words are connected in some way with cultural attitudes and cultural identity. The different "feel" of the words *angry, furious, furieux* has much to do with the kinds of things English and French speakers do, how they look, sound and behave, when they feel these emotions. (Wierzbicka, Harkins, 2001:3)

The research on emotion words has revealed that there is a difference between the use of emotion words in the mother tongue (L1) and in language learned post-puberty (L2). First, in L1 discourse the speakers use more emotion words than in L2 (Dewaele, Pavlenko, 2002). Dewaele (2005) provides an overview of psychological research in which it appeared that children reacted better to taboo words or reprimands in L1 than in L2 (Harris, Ayçiçegi, Gleason, 2003). Further, it has been shown that autobiographical narrations in L1 are more vivid than those in L2 (Schrauf, 2000). In addition, L2 is used less frequently for expressing emotions, since it is perceived as a language of distance and detachment (Dewaele, Pavlenko, 2002; Kinginger, 2004; Dewaele, Salomidou, 2017; Basnight-Brown, Altarriba, 2018).

This brief characteristic of emotion words explains the reasons for the concern about these words in foreign language teaching, especially that not much attention so far has been paid to the issue of the ability to communicate emotions, experienced in- and out-of-the classroom.

4. Emotions in language learning

The ability to communicate emotions in L2 is not less important than the knowledge of grammar rules, vocabulary lists or correct pronunciation of words. The knowledge of how emotions are communicated in the language we learn as a second/foreign language is necessary in order to understand and interpret properly the language behaviour of our foreign interlocutors, to understand the news reported on TV or in the newspapers, not to speak of works of art, books, films, poetry. The ability to communicate emotions in the language we learn is necessary not only to be understood well by speakers of the target language, but also, or maybe first of all, to broaden the areas in which we could express ourselves.

Although it is not necessary for learners to identify with target language speakers, they should at least be aware of the diverse ways of marking emotion. Dewaele (2005) in one of his articles desperately asks the following questions:

> Why then are they [emotions] so conspicuously absent in foreign language teaching material—and, possibly as a consequence—so infrequent in L2 users' interlanguage (cf. Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002)? Don't learners need to be able to express and recognize anger, sadness, shame, happiness in the L2? Moreover, because the vocabulary of emotions and emotion scripts are different from language to language, it seems doubly important to focus on the differences and similarities between the L 1(s) and the L2. (Dewaele, 2005:8)

If we accept that there are differences in the perception and expression of emotions in L1 and L2, and if we agree with Dewaele that we need to help the learners express themselves, it means that to this end we need to equip the learners with linguistic, sociopragmatic and sociocultural resources as well as to raise the learners' awareness that communication with others often involves emotional load (Dewaele, 2005: 377).

Dewaele and Pavlenko (2002) examined five factors that may influence the use of emotion words in L2. The first factor was sociocultural competence, in the words of the authors "the ability to identify, categorize, perceive, and engage in verbal and nonverbal behaviors similarly to other members of a particular speech community" (Dewaele, Pavlenko 2002: 268). The findings of the research showed that familiarity with socio-cultural context affects the choice of emotion vocabulary but not the amount of it. The second factor was language proficiency. Higher language proficiency increased the frequency of the use of emotion words. The results concerning the relation between gender and the use of emotion words were not unequivocal. Generally, the authors assume that it is the gender ideology and the value of emotion speech, the context of the interaction and the identity of conversation participants that influence the frequency and choice of emotion words. Research into extroversion, a variable often studied in FL/SL, confirmed that extrovert learners use emotion words more readily. Finally, the results of research into the role of the type of material used for eliciting emotion words underscores the need to consider and investigate the relation between emotionality of the topic and the use of emotion words.

The results of this research, or rather series of research studies may be interesting not only for researchers, but also, in more practical terms, for foreign language teachers. As follows from the research results quoted above, a significant factor in eliciting emotion vocabulary is the topics and materials. Some suggestions concerning this issue will be presented in the following section.

5. The linguistic landscape and emotions

The modern world seems to offer a multiplicity of opportunities for both formal and informal language learning on the basis of the language that is visible or heard in the environment, including traditional and new media, travels abroad and foreign language displayed in public spaces, i.e. spaces either fully available to everybody, for example, streets, squares and roads, or partially, under certain conditions, such as libraries, museums and schools. The public display of languages has predominantly been of interest for studies on the linguistic landscape understood as "[T]he language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration" (Landry, Bourhis 1997:25). The studies of the linguistic landscape have been primarily conducted within sociolinguistic and semiotic fields seeking correlations between language use and social class, social attributes (religion, ethnicity, race), language policy, social movements or economy. Far fewer studies have attempted to research the linguistic landscape as a potentially supportive environment for language learning. However, in both theoretical considerations and research reports, the linguistic landscape has been advocated as a valuable resource for authentic language (Cenoz, Gorter, 2008; Sayer, 2010), helpful in the acquisition of critical literacy skills (Chern, Dooley, 2014), development of language awareness, pragmatic competence and multicompetence, i.e. multilingual and visual competence combined (Cenoz, Gorter, 2008). The focus on the linguistic landscape seems to be particularly suitable for the development of language awareness and pragmatic competence. The ability to create texts and to understand the intentions of the authors of texts displayed in the environment are equally important. These publicly visible texts perform different functions, both informative (e.g. directions, tourist information, instructions) as well as symbolic (e.g. marking power, referring to specific values, indicating group identity). The analysis of linguistic landscape items and their functions may foster and enrich classroom language learning. Similarly, as Dagenais *et al*. (2009: 258) suggest, the reference to the local linguistic landscape may "contextualize language awareness activities at school" and make them "more meaningful" for children. These activities may aim at an understanding and appreciation of linguistic diversity, comparing the languages seen or heard in the immediate environment, exploring the social functions of languages. Additionally, relating classroom activities to the local, outside world makes the learning more practical and purposeful. The linguistic signs present in the environment offer opportunities for including the emotional aspect in

language learning/teaching, especially as writing (written texts are at least one component of the linguistic landscape) is considered "a powerful tool for generating emotional experiences" (Hinojosa *et al.*, 2010:748). Some signs in the LL include emotional content, others are neutral. One way of approaching emotions involves the reading and interpretation of a sign with a focus on what means have been used to achieve its emotional "flavour," which may lead to building an awareness of the linguistic and other resources used to achieve emotional content. Responding to the sign (talking about perceptions, expressing one's thoughts and feelings about the content of the sign) in the linguistic landscape, which requires further work on lexis, semantics, syntax, and maybe also on nonverbal behaviour, is another way of practicing emotion words.

In the following section, three examples of the use of LL items for the practice of emotion words will be provided.

6. The linguistic landscape, emotions and language learning: example tasks

The LL is composed of written signs many of which could be adapted for classroom practice. The examples of such signs include, among others, advertising signs which appeal to client emotions; political banners or banners carried in various demonstrations which often elicit contradictory emotions; banners and other signs used in sporting events which are not devoid of emotions; graffiti which is an expression of contestation; monuments which memorialise tragic events, and many others. All of them, presumably, could serve as a starting point for learning new lexical items, identifying the concepts behind these words, comparison of emotion words across languages and cultures, and a variety of communicative tasks.

In the examples below, I begin by briefly describing an item which is a part of the LL and then suggest some activities which might be performed in the classroom. Beforehand, the linguistic items should be photographed by the students and/or the teacher in their environment and brought into the classroom, if possible. If not, they may be accessed via the Internet, newspapers and magazines, or postcards. The first example of double place names is one of many of that kind which can be found in Poland, and in many other countries. The linguistic items suggested in the second example may be more difficult to capture because of their temporary nature. Such temporary banners are used not only in political demonstrations, but also in sporting or entertainment events, solidarity demonstrations and others. The final example is based on advertising posters because they are numerous, and hence readily available, and their primary goal is to appeal to the readers' attention and emotions. Needless to say that the activities suggested below should be adjusted to

the students' age and language proficiency level, however they are most suitable for intermediate or advanced learners.

Example 1. Minority languages and attitudes
The languages used in the public space have not only an informational but also a symbolic function. The presence of minority languages in addition to the official language of the country has a symbolic function related to the sense of identity of that minority and their feelings about themselves and their language (Cenoz, Gorter, 2006). In some cases, however, the coexistence of both languages, official and minority, in one place causes problems. Let us take the example of Opole and the surrounding region where in certain towns and villages the place names are written both in Polish and in German, as a consequence of the history of that region and current legal regulations concerning the languages of ethnic minorities. In fact, double place names are not novel there, since as early as in the Middle Ages German or Latin names appeared next to the Polish names. Now, after a period of the policy of using only Polish names, and after a period of the illegal placement of German names, the regulations of 2005 allow the use of Polish and German names for towns, villages, in streets signs and names of offices under precisely determined conditions (Choroś, 2017). Although double-naming, as observed by Choroś, has in this case only a symbolic, emotional value for the minority, at times it becomes a source of conflict for both Polish and German inhabitants, manifested by the erasure of either German or Polish names from sign posts. How can we use the linguistic landscape of an area where a conflict between minority and majority ethnic groups is visible for teaching the language of emotions? Suggested tasks include:

Vocabulary practice: In the study of emotional reactions to ethnic minorities (Dijker, 1987: 313) the following list of emotion words has been compiled: happiness, curiosity, admiration, sympathy, liking, attractiveness, impulse to seek contact, annoyance, aversion, oddity, anger, fear, uncertainty, distrust, contempt, ugliness, antipathy, impulse to physical aggression, to verbal aggression, to keep distance, mental unfriendliness, wish that the object would move. Learner task: Group words appropriate to this situation and those which are not appropriate. Justify your decisions.
Speaking: Explain how each of the emotions listed above would be/could be manifested in social life. What behaviours/actions could be induced by these emotions?
Role play: Take on the role of a member of each ethnic group; get familiar with how each group reveals their emotions; act out a conflicting/friendly situation.
Writing: Write a letter/essay/blog about how you feel about double names and their erasure.

Example 2. Political unrest - anger or feeling good?
The items of the linguistic landscape range from those that have been fixed for years or even centuries, such as inscriptions on old monuments, houses or churches, to relatively stable examples, though not as historic, such as shop signboards, advertising billboards or street signs, to occasional ones, for example those which are used in social protests against the state, state policy and the state economy. These items are usually banners with slogans, graffiti, scribblings on city walls. The content of the texts mirrors the emotions of those who are their authors, as well as those who distribute them to others, or hold them. Their function is to evoke an emotional response from the on-lookers. The aim of the activities is by no means to encourage the students to participate in riots or to take photos, instead we/they may bring to the class-room books, pictures, newspapers or may use the internet as a valuable source of data concerning current and past events. Political events which are well documented, also concerning the LL of the streets, include, for example, Brexit, the Icelandic economic protests, the Chilean students' protests, the Polish Orange Alternative protests, and others. How can we use the linguistic landscape of political unrest for teaching the language of emotions?
Reading: Students identify languages on banners, read the texts and interpret them, also taking into consideration non-verbal cues.
Discussion: Why are these people protesting? What emotions have them made protest? How would you feel if you were one of the protesting people?
Listening: Listen to an interview with the protesters. Can you judge what their emotions are: anxiety, frustration, outrage, sympathy, compassion, fear, shame, pleasure, anger? What are your feelings towards the protesters?

Example 3. Charity advertising – between compassion and joy
Charity advertisements are omnipresent in society. They appeal through im-age and text to the emotions, in order to encourage some action/donation on the part of the viewer. The majority of charity campaigns use outdoor adver-tising, billboards, posters, walls, buses and trains. This type of advertising aims at eliciting a wide range of mixed emotions, both positive and negative, to exert strong influence on the viewer/reader and make him or her attentive to the content and respond readily (Lee, 2010).
How can we use charity advertising for teaching the language of emotions?:
Attention to multimodality: analysis of the modes in which the message is con-veyed – verbal and visual. How do they combine in order to deliver the mes-sage? How do they combine to persuade the reader/viewer to take action? Which mode is more forceful in eliciting emotions?

Speaking: What kind of emotions do you experience when you pass a charity advertisement? Which prevail, positive or negative? Why? What are the feelings of those for whom the campaign has been created? Collect advertisements from different countries which have similar aims. Compare their contents. Do they appeal to the same emotions? Do they use the same means?
Writing: Describe a charity advertisement in L1 and L2, maybe also in L3. Analyse similarities and differences in your descriptions. Analyse problems in expressing your feelings in any of these languages. Rewrite if necessary.

7. Conclusions

To sum up, in this article I have attempted to show that there is a need to include a wider range of L2 emotion words in the teaching of a foreign language, since emotions play a substantial role in our lives. The ability to speak about emotions and to express the emotions that an individual experiences is necessary for successful dialogue between people. Subsequently, I attempted to show that the linguistic landscape may be a valuable source of linguistic input into the teaching/learning of emotion words. The inclusion of linguistic landscape items as additional authentic material for learning will bridge classroom learning with the environment and make learning more context-related. Real artefacts related to real events will be likely to be helpful in studying the language of emotions. However, research has to be conducted in order to find answers to the following questions: 1) How can we make use of the linguistic landscape in the teaching of foreign languages effectively, especially in relation to emotion words? 2) Which aspects of the linguistic landscape are most suitable for teaching emotion words? 3) Which aspect of emotion words (sociopragmatic, cultural) is best learned in/through the linguistic landscape?

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PATTERN PRACTICE REVISITED:
FROM SYNTAX TO SENSE AND POSITIVE EMOTIONS

Abstract

For many second and foreign language learners, the goal of language instruction is fluent oral performance. Such performance can be achieved if the mechanisms underlying L2 performance have been automatized. It is generally recognized that promoting automaticity in the classroom requires massive repetition and consistent practice, which, however, need to correspond to conditions of use in order for transfer into real speech to take place. It is also often acknowledged that meeting these requirements in classroom instruction is very difficult as traditional repetitive practice activities often take time away from communicative language use and fail to induce positive emotions in learners. In this article, we take a fresh look at the theory behind, and the implementation of, pattern practice. We begin by arguing that it is construction grammar that provides a theoretical foundation for pattern practice. We also demonstrate that monolingual drills in the audiolingual method marginalized meaning and were often mechanical. We then present bilingual drills as an alternative exercise type which facilitates pattern recognition, oral repetition and focus on meaning. We show that referring to the native language makes it possible to localize and individualize the examples used and to induce positive emotions in the process. Finally, we discuss communicative drills and use transcripts

of classroom interaction to demonstrate that repetitive practice, communication and positive emotions can all be combined.

Keywords: pattern practice, bilingual drills, native language in learning English as a foreign language, positive emotions

Słowa kluczowe: gramatyczne dryle tłumaczeniowe, język ojczysty w nauce języka angielskiego, pozytywne emocje

1. Traditional pattern practice: the tendency to neglect meaning

According to Kelly (1969: 101), exercises that tried to exploit the productive potential of sentence structures appeared in Renaissance textbooks but probably date back to classical times. One of the authors unearthed pattern drills as part of conversation practice in a German-Latin phrasebook of the tenth century. A knight talks to his servant:

Gip mir min ros.	*(Give me my horse)*
Gip mir minan scilt.	*(Give me my shield)*
Gip mir min sper.	*(Give me my spear)*
Gip mir mine hantscuoha.	*(Give me my gloves)*
Etc.	

This repetitive interplay between what is constant and what varies is characteristic of pattern drill.

Exercises involving oral manipulation of grammatical structures became widely known and used in the 1950s and 60s in the audiolingual method, of which they were a 'distinctive feature' (Richards, Rodgers, 2001: 60). The audiolingual method appealed to structuralist linguistic theory for its description of language and to behaviourism for its learning theory. This resulted in grammatical structures being first introduced to foreign language (FL) learners in dialogues and then practised orally through drills which required, for example, repetition, replacement, restatement or completion. Hardly any grammatical explanations were given in the process. Such instruction was supposed to lead to the development of automatic L2 verbal behaviour consisting of appropriate stimulus-response sequences. The long term objective of the method was for learners to achieve L2 language proficiency not far from that of its native speakers.

Pattern drills were recommended in order for key constructions to be identified and encountered often enough to take root in the learners' competence. The audiolingualists argued that the slots in the patterns could be filled

with any number of words, simply to avoid the monotony of repetition. Words (and their meanings!) were downplayed. Language teaching echoed the mainstream linguistics of the time, as criticised by Givón (1979: 86): "The acquisition of 'structure' was studied without the acquisition of 'function' and in isolation from the communicative and interactive environment in which child language development takes place".

This tendency in traditional pattern practice to underplay the role of meaning was certainly counterproductive. If, as for example Tomasello (2003) argues, language structure emerges from language use, meaning is ever-present and decisive. The combinatorics is a means to an end, it is a way of expressing new ideas. Natural language acquisition is always meaning-oriented and lexically dependent. So meaning considerations should come first. It follows that sentence variations must be constructed as sense variations, and must be experienced as such.

To sum up: In traditional pattern drills, any lexical changes will do that fit the sentence pattern. But it is precisely these lexical changes that convey new ideas and bring in the real world. If they are considered as unimportant, pattern drills can easily turn into a self-contained language game, a mere manipulation of forms, with little relation to the world of ideas, events and emotions. It is not surprising, then, that faced with language instruction of this type "many found the experience of studying through audiolingual procedures to be boring and unsatisfying" (Richards, Rodgers, 2001: 65). As Grittner (1969: 203), a school inspector form Wisconsin points out, the misuse of pattern drills was at least partly responsible for learners' dissatisfaction:

> Of all the elements which constitute the new American Method, the pattern drill appears to be most widely misunderstood. In the hands of a knowledgeable teacher, such drills are capable of producing an exhilarating classroom atmosphere with students sitting on the edge of their chairs listening intently for their cues and responding instantly when called upon. However, when used by a teacher who is not aware of the function and purpose of this type of drill, the results can be as stultifying as the choral chanting of verb conjugations and noun declensions.

Learners' dissatisfaction, in addition to theoretical criticism, was certainly an important reason for the decline of audiolingualism.

2. Rules versus patterns

Behaviourist accounts of language learning were abandoned in favour of mentalist approaches which appealed to linguistic rules. The development of linguistic competence meant the acquisition of an abstract system of rules. However, this view has been challenged in usage-based approaches to both first

and second language acquisition (e.g. Roehr-Brackin, 2014; Tomasello, 2003). A central tenet of usage-based approaches is that there are no "empty rules devoid of semantic content or communicative function" (Tomasello, 2003: 100). Under this view, it is not rules that are acquired but linguistic constructions. Learners start with specific exemplars, then develop item-based schemas and finally end up with abstract linguistic constructions. Both L1 and L2 linguistic competence can thus be seen as an inventory of constructions of different degrees of generality (e.g. Tomasello, 2003: 99). Further, when producing grammatical utterances speakers do not rely on rules but "analogize from previous utterances" (Larsen-Freeman, 2015: 273).

Assuming that the above conceptualization of linguistic competence is correct, learners seem to be facing two main tasks. First, they need to build up an inventory of constructions. Second, they need to learn how to deploy these constructions, which involves retrieval and grammatically appropriate integration of previously learnt constructions (e.g. Dąbrowska, 2004: 22-23). Ideally, the processes of retrieval and integration should proceed with automatic fluency, which can be defined as "the smooth and rapid production of utterances, without undue hesitation and pauses" (Gatbonton, Segalowitz, 2005: 326).

As Segalowitz (2010: 75) explains, "it is (...) generally accepted that L2 mastery and high levels of utterance fluency require automatization, and a major route to automaticity is repetition". Repetition here refers to both "input repetition", i.e. "frequent exposure", and "output repetition", that is "massive production practice". However, not any massive production practice will do. Successful memory retrieval at the time of communication can occur if the cognitive and perceptual processes involved in it correspond to those that took place at the time of learning. This is the principle of transfer appropriate processing (e.g. Segalowitz, 2010).

3. Thinking, learning and emotions

It seems, then, that FL learners need activities which combine four things: (1) pattern recognition, (2) repetition to achieve automatic fluency, (3) meanings, ideas and communication and (4) positive emotions. Using traditional pattern practice activities to achieve this may be very difficult because, as Segalowitz (2003: 402) says, and as we demonstrated above, such activities neglect meaning and "tend to operate in a way that may undermine the goals of communicative orientations to language teaching". They also induce negative emotions in learners, as was the case in the audiolingual method. However, pattern practice should not be equated with audiolingual pattern drills. As the following sections show, meaningful bilingual drills, i.e. those that use mother tongue cues

and "require the student to process meaning", and monolingual communicative drills, that is those that "require conveying actual content unknown to the hearer" (DeKeyser, 1998: 50), can stimulate positive emotions in the classroom.

While the disruptive effects of negative emotions (mostly anxiety) on foreign language learning are well documented (for example, Dewaele, MacIntyre, 2014), much less is known about the contribution of positive emotions like joy, interest or contentment to the process. However, an examination of the effects of positive emotions on people's thinking in general reveals that positive affect clearly broadens cognition. Fredrickson (2003: 332-333), summarising the results of a series of studies by Alice Isen and her colleagues states that they demonstrate that "when people feel good, their thinking becomes more creative, integrative, flexible and open to information". Fredrickson's (2003: 332) own experiments in which emotions were induced by evocative film clips also confirm that those experiencing positive emotions exhibit "a broadened pattern of thinking". In relation to foreign language learning, this kind of ability to integrate information may facilitate pattern recognition and the acquisition of grammatical constructions.

Given the facilitative effect of positive emotions on people's thinking, stimulating them seems to be an important task that (foreign language) teachers should engage in. In Fredrickson's (2003: 332) experiment, the positive emotion of joy was elicited by having the participants watch a film clip showing "a herd of playful penguins waddling and sliding on the ice". There are many other options, though. MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012: 209) discuss teacher immediacy as a means of inducing positive emotions. They see immediacy as consisting of "nonlinguistic approach behaviours" (for example, reducing physical distance, using gestures, smiling, using vocal variety and maintaining eye contact during interaction) and language that "signals availability for communication", for example through using personal examples and humour. Many of the features of immediacy listed by MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012: 209) are included in pattern practice as we present it below.

4. Meaningful bilingual drills

So how can we provide learners with massive input and output repetition so that constructions are identified and L2 performance is automatized? And how can we ensure that learners experience positive emotions in the process? We would like to propose that two types of drills, meaningful bilingual drills and monolingual communicative drills, can go a long way towards achieving this goal.

New constructions must not remain encapsulated in the basic texts, which provide initial input for learners, but must be extracted, recombined

and varied in order to fit new situations and convey new ideas: What shall we do with the drunken sailor? This sentence, though useless for the purpose of communication, may easily lead to => What shall I do with my hair? => What shall I do with my wife? =>What shall I do with my life? With the same construction, we not only build new sentences but think novel thoughts which most of the time carry affective meanings. This is the key for a new understanding of pattern practice and our attempts at revitalising it.

Bilingual drills are a type of pattern practice in which mother tongue prompts are used instead of monolingual substitutions, extensions or transformations (Butzkamm, Caldwell 2009; Scheffler 2013, 2016). This way we start with ideas and feelings (not forms plus "fillers"), which have to be put into foreign language words, just like in normal speech. It makes all the difference: We have an idea in mind that we put into words. However, a stimulus sentence coming from the teacher is not our own idea. That's why a drill phase can only be complete if students get an opportunity to create their own sentences and messages. The teacher begins with a bilingual phase, and when the students take over, the mother tongue drops away and the drill becomes monolingual. Thus the drills are psychologically real in the sense that an idea is formed in the learners' minds which they try to express in words, foreign language words.

Bilingual drills work best if the learners are not distracted away by the actual L1 words and how they are put together, but see through to the meanings, which in turn trigger their FL response. This is what seems to happen in simultaneous interpreting, where a process of deverbalisation is postulated (e.g. Seleskovitch, 1975). The conference interpreter gets the message and restates it in another language. This is also how Dodson explains bilingual pattern drills: "When the teacher gives a mother tongue stimulus, a concept is conjured up in the learner's mind. It is this concept, not the mother tongue words, which the pupil expresses in foreign-language terms" (Dodson, 1967: 91). Nevertheless, interference errors that echo the mother tongue stimulus do occur, but we think that the profits of mother tongue cues outweigh the costs.

5. Distinctive features of mother tongue prompts

We will now draw on examples from our project documenting the implementation of bilingual pattern practice in teaching English as a foreign language. All the examples provided here have been used in German and Polish classrooms. Where actual exchanges were recorded and transcribed, references are provided to identify the learners that participated in them. We start a typical exercise with a basic sentence which comes from a familiar dialogue or text (here taken from the spiritual song *Kumbaya*). The sentence exemplifies

a pattern whose functions are completely understood. Often an idiomatic translation will do to start the drill:

Teacher (holds hand behind ear):   Student:
Listen:
Da singt einer.   *Someone's singing.*
Da spricht einer.   *Someone's speaking.*
Da spricht einer Türkisch.   *Someone's speaking Turkish.*
…   *…*

We always begin with easy substitutions so that the students can respond readily and accurately. At this stage, we often work on students' pronunciation, making them repeat a sentence even if it was a grammatically correct response. Students should get a feel for the rhythm of a construction. As the class proceeds through a drill, we focus more on content without, of course, going beyond the interest of the learners.

Following simple substitutions like in the example above, we start to explore the semantic range of the pattern. However, it is not the sheer number of possible variations but the various topics and themes that make the difference. Students need help to change the sentences with a view to applying them later to new situations that are personally relevant for them. The idea is to turn a phrase taken from a basic situation - let's say 'What about my friend' - into a productive sentence pattern, and, at the same time, explore its communicative potential for the students.

Teacher: Student:
Was ist (wie wär's) mit meinem Freund?   *What about my friend?*
Was ist mit unserem Präsidenten?   *What about our president?*
Was ist mit unserer Hausaufgabe?   *What about our homework?*
Was ist mit Mathe?   *What about maths?*
Wie wär's mit 'ner Pizza?   *What about a pizza?*
…   *…*

We have found such transitions easy because the students immediately see which part of the pattern sentence remains unchanged. But notice the semantic leaps, especially from "president" to "homework" - the students can see the semantic range of the new phrase and its applicability to a variety of situations. Pragmatic leaps – as in the pizza sentence – are also possible. When called upon to make up their own sentences some students easily make these semantic and pragmatic leaps and change topics, whereas others keep within given domains, for instance school subjects or food items, and do not apply them unhesitatingly by themselves to really new situations.

Monolingual drills have been criticised for their topic-neutrality and lack of content interest. Bilingual drills make it possible for the teacher to personalise, individualise or localise at least some of his/her mother tongue cues. Here is an example (German grammar school, 2nd year English) where the teacher alludes to a general election in Germany in 2005 (Schröder vs. Merkel). The class had been practising *somebody needs somebody or something.*

Teacher:	Student:
Angie (Merkel) braucht Hilfe.	*Angie needs help.*
Sie braucht Hilfe von ihren Freunden.	*She needs help from her friends.*
Angie braucht Hilfe von den Wählern. Say: voters.	*Angie needs help from the voters.*
Herr Schröder braucht auch Wähler.	*Herr Schröder needs voters, too.*
Sie alle brauchen unsere Stimmen. Say: votes.	*They all need our votes.*

This distinct focus on meaning would be impossible without L1 cues, which shows that the controversy about the use or non-use of the students' native language cannot be solved with the banal advice to use it "judiciously".

Finally, mother tongue prompts also make it possible for the teacher to add some light-heartedness to language practice by drawing upon familiar humorous content. The following examples come from a set of sentences we have used to practise the conditional construction. The first two are taken from the song *If you were a sailboat* by Katie Melua, number three and four are a development of the theme and the last two allude to a humorous saying and a song by Kasia Klich. All of them are invariably enjoyed by the students.

If you were a sailboat, I would sail you to the shore.
If you were a book, I would read you every night.
If you were a house, I would live in you all my life.
If you were a rocket, I would fly you to the moon.
If you were a car, I would take you to the garage.
If you were a car, I would exchange you for a new model.

6. The transition to communication

The stage is set for communication when the students are asked to make up their own sentences. When they do this, most of them are not performing language operations in a void. This transition to a content-oriented monolingual endphase is a major feature of bilingual drills as recommended here. Admittedly, some students will decide to play it safe and give easy or insipid examples, but others will feel tempted to vie with the teacher, take risks and also produce 'loaded' sentences. The teacher may briefly react to some of these sentences. That way the drill can become semi-communicative. The beginnings are modest:

Teacher:	Student:
Etwas stimmt nicht mit dieser Welt.	*There's something wrong with this world.*
Etwas stimmt nicht mit meinem Computer.	*There's something wrong with my computer.*
Etwas stimmt nicht mit unserem Lehrer.	*There's something wrong with our teacher.*
...	*...*
Now make your own English sentences.	

Here is what the students (10-year-old German learners of English, primary school) produced:

> Student: *There's something wrong with my CD player.*
> Student: *There's something wrong with my pink elephant.*
> Student: *There's something wrong with my book.*
> Teacher: *Which book?*
> Student: *My exercise book.*

The final step in the sequence of drills that we have used in our classrooms involves using a given pattern to convey or obtain new information. Learners try out various constructions and vocabulary items and at the same time talk freely about their own experience. This means that we switch from meaningful to communicative drills.

As the transcripts of classroom interaction included below show, simultaneously focusing on form and content is something that learners can cope with quite well. For us, this is evidence that communicative drills make it possible to combine communication and repetitive practice. Further, it is also evident from the data that practising grammatical constructions may induce the positive emotions of interest and enjoyment.

The first excerpt comes from a Polish secondary school class in which bilingual drills on conditional sentences were followed by an exercise in which the students were asked to complete sentences like *If I could fly ...* . When the completed sentences were presented the teacher asked follow-up questions or commented on them, for example:

> S: *If I could fly I wouldn't use any other means of transport.*
> T: *Do you think that would be useful in P? Being able to fly?*
> S: *Yes, I'm sure it would be.*
> T: *Why?*
> S: *Why? Because in P. there are ... I don't have any car so I have to use public transport, public means of transport, and I have to wait for them, I have to buy a ticket, so if I could fly I wouldn't have to ...*
> T: *You wouldn't have to do that. And you wouldn't waste time in traffic jams.*

In another secondary school class in Poland, following the drills on questions in the simple past tense the students were asked to prepare one question each for the teacher. They were also encouraged to ask spontaneous follow-up questions depending on the teacher's answers. This led to exchanges like the one below:

> S: Did you go abroad last summer?
> T: No, last summer I didn't go abroad.
> S: So you stayed here. And, maybe, did you spend time with your family?
> T: Yes I did. I spent time with my family, exactly.
> S: And, did you had … did you have a good time with them?
> T: Yes I did, we went to the seaside.
> S: Great.

On yet another occasion, when the students invented their own sentences, one of the authors asked two groups of secondary school Polish learners of English to decide if the sentences were true or false for them, i.e. whether they really meant what they said. Here is an example of the conversations that followed the drills on the present perfect tense:

> S1: I have played the piano for one month.
> T: Can anyone tell us?
> A few students in chorus: false.
> T: False?
> S1: True!
> T: OK, so you have played the piano for a month.
> S1: Yes.
> T: Aha. So you took it up one month ago. And…do you like it? Is it hard work?
> S1: Yes, and I don't have some practice in some school, but my dad teach me.
> T: Aha, so your dad teaches you. OK, so how many lessons from your dad have you had so far? Całe zdanie, whole sentence. Think about it, it was only a month ago that you started, so you should remember, more or less, how many lessons you have had so far.
> S1: I've had about six lessons.
> T: So you're a beginner.
> S1: Yes.
> T: Do you play any other musical instruments?
> S1: No, I don't.
> T: But in your family, is your dad a musician?
> S1: No, but it's his passion.
> T: That is his passion. So, I mean, he teaches you so obviously he can play the piano quite well.

S1: Yes.
T: OK, is it a good idea to be taught something by one's parents? Anyone. You know, do parents make good teachers?
S2: Yes.
T: They do?
S2: Yes, because they are the best learners….best teachers for their childs.
T: For their children. They are the best teachers for their children.
S3: They know us. They know how to learn us…. how to teach.
T: They know how to teach you. Okay.

(Unpublished data)

T: What is your sentence? (addressing a student)
S1: I have never seen an elephant.
T: An interesting example. What do you think?
S2: In my opinion, this …. this may be false because …. M …. isn't poor person.
T: And she keeps an elephant at home?
S2: No …. no, no, elephants in home [laughter] … this is …
T: As a pet.
S2: No, [laughter] outside.
T: Outside, in the garden, you mean.
S2: Possibly.
T: OK. M, so do you keep an elephant in the garden?
S1: No, I don't. But I've seen a few in my life.
T: You have seen a few elephants in your life.
S1: In zoo.
T: In a zoo. Aha, so the sentence is false. How many elephants have you seen in your life?
S1: I think I could have seen about ten elephants in my life.
T: So quite a few elephants.
S1: But I'm older than the rest of our group, so I am more experienced.
T: Very, very interesting.

(Scheffler, 2016: 259)

As the last two transcripts above demonstrate, the learners were able to re-peatedly produce the relevant constructions to express whatever personal meanings they wanted. They were able to relate to their personal experience and, as the instances of laughter in the last transcript indicate, enjoyed the exchanges. During the conversations, they were also exposed to numerous instances of the conditional provided by the teacher and other learners, that is, they were exposed to large amounts of repetitive yet meaningful input. Finally, the teacher used a number of opportunities to provide corrective feedback in the form of recasts.

7. Conclusion

It has been recommended that drills "should be discarded from instructional practice" because they are not effective (Wong, VanPatten, 2003: 403). Drills have been described as boring and demotivating (Segalowitz, 2003: 402). However, in these descriptions the term 'drills' is used to mean 'mechanical drills'. It is important, as DeKeyser (2007: 11) points out, that all drills should not be equated with mechanical drills. If this is done, the criticism levelled at mechanical drills is extended to the other types, which then become "guilty by association".

We see drills as only one of the components of the overall FL instruction process. With them it is possible to go beyond the mere manipulation of structures and manipulate ideas instead. New words embedded in a familiar construction can generate new thoughts and situations. Positive emotions can be aroused when learners are given the freedom to express themselves and to interact with the teacher and the other students. This change of focus is needed to bridge the gap between drill and discourse. Ideally, a balance should be achieved between meaningful/communicative drills and purely meaning-oriented activities in which learners simply experience an L2 or interact in it without consciously focusing on any pre-determined linguistic elements. However, given the time constraints applying to a typical L2 classroom, it seems that more classroom time could be devoted to controlled practice, with additional L2 exposure and interaction taking place outside of it.

This paper is based on long-term trialling and learner observation in a variety of classrooms where numerous learners have achieved high levels of language ability. Hopefully, our examples are sufficiently provocative to stimulate future research and experimentation by teachers and researchers. We strongly believe that bilingual and monolingual drills presented here should become known, tried out and tested more widely than heretofore.

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THE ROLE OF THE AFFECTIVE DIMENSION IN SHAPING FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' CONCEPTUAL SYSTEM

Abstract

The role of affective factors in the process of foreign language learning and teaching is undeniable. Still, despite growing interest in the role of attitudinal variables in foreign language training, the problem has not been much researched from the perspective of multidimensional cognition. Thus, the focus of the article is the architecture of foreign language learners' cognition situated within a multimodal framework and shaped by particular socio-linguistic experience. It is postulated that the conceptual system of a foreign language learner is unique in being highly susceptible to processing in terms of affective parameters. This hypothesis is corroborated by the results of a pilot study which show that concrete words in the conceptual systems of foreign language learners are associated with affect more than in the case of native speakers.

Keywords: affective factors, foreign language learners, multimodal and multilingual cognition

Słowa kluczowe: czynniki afektywne, uczący się języka obcego, multimodalny a wielojęzyczny umysł

1. Introduction

The role of affective factors in the process of foreign language learning and teaching is undeniable. As Horwitz (2007: ix) states, "at this moment in language

teaching history, the role of affective variables and the necessity of focusing on the emotional states of learners are readily acknowledged by the language teaching community". Henter (2014: 374) adds that the affective element underpinning the teaching-learning process typically subsumes anxiety, motivation and attitude. Interestingly, the category of attitude seems to be the focus of research on affective factors, with as many as 1490 articles published in 7 major on-line international data bases between 2002 and 2012 (Henter, 2014). Most of these scientific reports show how attitude is formed and/or can be trained and highlight the axiological component of the process. In other words, an individual facing a new learning situation is said to undergo a number of value-loaded reactions to unusual conditions or objects, i.e. a foreign language.

Despite growing interest in the role of attitudinal variables in foreign language training, it has been researched rather narrowly, predominantly in tandem with motivation (Oroujlou, Vahedi, 2011). Thus, other combinations still remain open to exploration and a particularly attractive one seems an interplay between cognition, attitude and language.

Undoubtedly, "we have [...] come a long way from the early years of language aptitude research when the likelihood for success in language learning was conceived of primarily in cognitive terms" (Horwitz, 2007: ix). Still, the link between the rational and the emotional remains "one of the greatest puzzles of human nature" (Forgas, 2008: 1) and becomes even more enigmatic if linguistic factors are allowed into play. On the one hand, it is generally acknowledged that "the learner's different competences are closely related to individual characteristics of a cognitive, affective and linguistic nature" (Council of Europe, 2001: 160), putting, as it were, the three categories of variables into one box. On the other hand, however, careful demarcation lines are drawn between cognitive and emotional (Council of Europe, 2001: 55), as well as linguistic and affective (Council of Europe, 2001: 7). Consequently, the cognition-language-affect nexus calls for an integrative perspective which would reconciliate the three dimensions in a systematic and motivated way (for an overview of unifying approaches and models see Bąk, 2016).

This paper is set within an integrative framework of multimodal cognition (Barsalou, 1999, 2008, 2016) against which multilingual conceptual systems of classroom learners of English are characterized. On the basis of existing empirical literature and related theoretical considerations it is assumed that non-native users of English who are trained in institutional settings develop conceptual systems which are more prone to processing (in terms of) abstract categories than those of native speakers.[1] This difference, largely motivated by particular

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[1] Susceptibility to abstraction and abstracting is understood as both the ability to form higher-order categories from a variety of exemplars and the capacity to process terms

linguistic experience(s) of foreign language learners, is taken to impact the way attitudinal dimensions are developed in multilingual minds. To be more specific, it is hypothesized that foreign learners of English tend to associate concrete words with affect more than native users. This hypothesis is verified through a qualitative pilot study whose results suggest that conceptual systems of non-native speakers are influenced by affect to a degree not compatible with the extent to which attitudinal elements are present in the minds of native language users.[2]

2. Multimodal cognition

Defining cognition, Barsalou (2016) emphasises the complexity of human conceptual systems which involve not only "traditional" cognitive processes, e.g. learning or understanding, but also a number of ecologies, including sensory and motor elements, the sociocultural milieu and the physical environment. In other words, knowledge is multimodal and incorporates "components from vision, audition, action, space, affect, language, etc., and […] retrieving a memory involves simulating its multimodal components together" (Barsalou, 2008: 623). Viewing the mind as embodied entails that cognition can be shaped by a variety of contextual factors and thus can behave as a dynamical system. In other words, the claim is that cognition can be situated within the framework of complexity theory, with two main perspectives adopted. The first one, propagated by, for instance, Gibbs and Cameron (2007), stipulates that the mind functions without a firm representational system, while the other, discussed by Kövecses (2015), assumes some stability within the conceptual system. Importantly, whether steady or momentary, conceptual systems of monolinguals are consistently taken as modal – emerging from and/or reflecting their multisensory experience – although particular configurations of cognitive dimensions are probably unique. Gibbs and Colston (2012: 263-164) list a number of factors which influence meaning interpretation and these include: age, gender, occupation, culture, bodily action, cognitive differences, personality, political, social and geographical backgrounds. Thus, while the mind rests on universally-available cognitive operations, e.g. framing, abstracting or metaphorizing, they "are not employed in the same way by all groups or individuals" (Kövecses, 2015: 26) due to varying (degrees of) contextual pressures.

A contextual force of special interest in this paper is language (experience) and its impact on multimodal cognition. To begin with, Barsalou (1999)

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whose referents are not only diverse but also scarce. Hence both *animal* and *democracy* are understood here as abstract, which is in line with a conflated approach to abstraction/abstractness (Borghi, Binkofski, 2014: 6).

[2] Unless specified otherwise, native speakers are taken as monolinguals throughout the paper.

postulates that all concepts, including linguistic representations, are embodied in that they are grounded in perceptual, action and emotional experience and hence their processing involves constructing multimodal simulations. However, as well as a set of representations, language can also be viewed as (a kind of) experience shaping the mind in a particular way. The Words as Social Tools (WAT) approach (Borghi, Binkofski, 2014) stipulates that linguistic experience is gathered and schematized in the conceptual system in the form of acoustic properties, labels or explanations. Moreover, these language-based representations are shown as crucial for processing abstract terms, e.g. *furniture* or *freedom*. One reason for this tendency may be that abstract words typically lack tangible referents and/or relate to miscellaneous situations. In the case of the word *freedom*, for instance, simulations may range from dancing in the meadow to escaping from a totalitarian system. To unify these experiences, elaborate explanations are often needed or indeed they may be the only kind of interpretations available to those, for example, who do not have any relevant perceptual or motor experience at all related to words such as *culture* or *democracy*. In the same vein, Prinz (2012) claims that *democracy* is understood through a network of related words, which constitutes the bulk of its meaning. In other words, abstract terms are grounded in both sensorimotor and linguistic experience but their acquisition and processing depend more on the latter (Borghi, Binkofski, 2014: 52).

The importance of language for abstract concepts coincides with the role attitude (affect) plays in their development. According to the WAT proposal (Borghi, Binkofski, 2014: 64), abstract concepts activate more situations, more linguistic information and more emotions compared to concrete concepts, which depend more on sensorimotor simulations, while the affective embodiment account (Vigliocco et al., 2009; Kousta et al., 2011) suggests that abstract words depend more on emotional information and concrete ones rely primarily on sensorimotor simulations, and both evoke linguistic information to some degree.

To sum up, results of current research into multimodal cognition (of native speakers) point to interdependence between language, attitude and abstraction and signal that their magnitude(s) may change and/or vary. Thus, it is intriguing to see what the language-affect-abstraction nexus looks like in the case of multilingual minds, i.e. conceptual systems shaped by "additional" linguistic experience.

3. Multilingual cognition

The conceptual system is made up of "an aggregated memory of aspects of experience that have repeatedly received attention in the past", and includes

"perceptual, motor, affective, introspective, social, linguistic and other information" (Lynott, Connell, 2010: 2). This cognitive-experiential pool is structured to reflect and/or meet particular conditions, such as the number of languages acquired and the way they have been learnt. In the same vein, Hall, Cheng, and Carlson (2006: 230) argue that although monolingual users employ socio-cognitive mechanisms similar to those of multilinguals, there are crucial differences in their knowledge systems which result from "the amount and quality of exposure to variable linguistic forms, and, more generally, the unique social contexts and […] communicative activities". In other words, while cognitive architectures are built on universal processes, e.g. abstracting or metaphorizing, differential contextual forces lead to asymmetries in the way a conceptual system is shaped. Therefore, although there are a number of cognitive mechanisms all humans share (see Tomasello, 2003 for a discussion), some of them may be more prominent in certain groups because of the experience they have had. In the case of multilinguals, the ability to abstract appears to be particularly well-developed.

To begin with, Fodor, Fox and Thompson (2003: 122) argue that speakers of many languages develop "a minimally sorted and organized set of memories of what [they] have heard and repeated over a lifetime of language use, a set of forms, patterns, and practices that have arisen to serve the most recurrent functions that speakers find need to fulfil". This "minimally-sorted", or abstract, assembly takes the form of linguistic representations, e.g. labels or explanations, which, as shown above, are closely linked to the affective dimension. Furthermore, Höder (2017: 15) argues that users of more than one language form diaconstructions – conventionalized and highly schematic patterns generalizing over structural elements of all languages or varieties available to an individual speaker and/or shared by a specific community. These abstract assemblies resemble parametric concepts, i.e. schematic representations encoded by language (Evans, 2016: 6), akin to Johnson's (1987) image schemas, e.g. CONTAINER or UP-DOWN. Importantly, image schematic concepts are axiologically loaded through the PLUS-MINUS parameter which, according to Krzeszowski (1993), is responsible for associating, for instance, UP-based language with positive values (e.g. *be on cloud nine*) and DOWN-based expressions with negative emotions (e.g. *fall into depression*). It should be emphasized that, as argued, for instance, by Rybarczyk (2015), the attitudinal dimension permeates not only lexical (words, idioms) but also grammatical (demonstratives or possessives) categories.

The conceptual system of multilingual speakers can emerge from lifelike social experience or classroom interactions.[3] What constitutes an important

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[3] This is not to say that the two environments cannot interact. However, for expository reasons, they will be kept apart here.

difference between the two settings is the quality of linguistic experience they provide. In the case of the former, language is embedded within a rich social context, typically linked to a number of modalities. In the case of the latter, however, the context is not only impoverished but also dominated by the teacher and/or the language system. Consequently, foreign language learners' knowledge is primarily shaped through linguistic experience in the classroom, much of which involves "studying the linguistic code itself rather than just emerging in lifelike social experience" (Kecskes, 2014: 101), and most of which focuses on the structure of the language to such an extent that the communicative aspect is lost (Bąk, 2016). Moreover, as Borghi and Binkofski (2014: 20-21) argue, linguistic explanations provided by teachers can be crucial for the development of the learner's conceptual system since educators' accounts or clarifications appear to decisively shape students' minds. However, in order to capture these "testimonies", foreign language learners need to develop skills which will enable them to follow such (often metalinguistic) definitions.

Foreign language learners rehearse explanations provided by their teachers – the important others in the classroom, interact with co-learners in the environment which differs from the rich socio-cultural milieus in which their first languages have evolved, and concentrate on the language system rather than language use. Their cognitive architectures develop to meet these specific contextual needs and consequently seem particularly prone to abstraction. In other words, while, as argued above, the multilingual mind is generally geared to process in terms of schematic representations, multilinguals who are educated rather than raised in a language appear to be even more likely to employ abstract categories to process the impoverished, and often metalinguistic, input encountered in the classroom.

Linguistic representations, often schematic in nature, populate multilingual minds. Given the link between abstract categories and affect, it can be expected that attitudinal elements will be highly prominent in the conceptual systems of non-native speakers who developed their L2 in the classroom – an environment which fosters processing in terms of the abstract – possibly leading to asymmetries between axiologically-loaded and value-neutral representations.

To begin with, Langlotz (2015: 114) states that "[t]he constant and productive manipulation of linguistic structures in specific task-domains […] has the power to re-shape and re-organize the mental representations that are associated with them". In other words, if concepts are primarily developed via socio-culturally impoverished linguistic experience, as is the case with foreign language learners, schematic linguistic representations are likely to influence other elements in a given frame, e.g. perceptual or motor, since, as Borghi and Binkofski (2014: 53) put it, "language use does […] introduce modifications

and changes in previously formed and more ancient structures, as those of the motor system." Moreover, Boroditsky (2001) demonstrates that a foreign language, with its set of new concepts or foci, is particularly likely to upset the cognitive status quo. For instance, English speakers who start to talk about time as Chinese people do, i.e. with reference to the UP-DOWN schema, change the way they represent time and tend to conceptualize earlier times as up and later days as down, i.e. in a Chinese rather than an English way.

Learners from formal classrooms rarely "confront the affective variables that are built heavily into social and interpersonal functions of their L2" (Collentine, Freed, 2004: 155). Still, non-native multilinguals encounter their own attitudinal elements through classroom interactions or teacher explanations. These affective dimensions are not only unique in being linked to schematic linguistic representations but also likely to decisively influence the conceptual system of a foreign language learner. To be more specific, in view of a firm interconnection between abstraction and affect and a tendency for (later) linguistic representations to modify (earlier) non-linguistic ones, it is predicted that foreign language learners will be particularly prone to processing in terms of attitudinal dimensions, i.e. that their conceptual systems will be more permeated by evaluation than in the case of native speakers.

Results of current research into language-affect interactions in multilingual minds point to two important findings which both substantiate some of the claims so far and open avenues for further investigation. Firstly, Jończyk (2016) felicitously demonstrates the uniqueness of affective experiences in L2 in that they are more detached (schematic) than in the case of L1. Building on evidence from clinical and introspective contexts, the linguist argues for a minimal role of multimodal cognition in developing affective meanings in L2. In other words, while simulations are guaranteed a role in developing and interpreting (potentially) value-loaded terms in L2, they are shown to be nothing like the full-blown experiences associated with functioning in L1. Secondly and relatedly, Bąk (2016) points to the grammar-oriented classroom as a setting in which non-native speakers have to develop their own understandings of emotions conveyed through spoken language. Detached, as it were, from the rich socio-cultural contexts typical of being reared in a language, learners of English predictably fail to recognize many instances of emotional prosody natural to native speakers. Still, foreign language learners forge their own patterns of affect, often quite dissimilar from those conveyed by native users.

Studies into relations between affect and multilingual conceptual systems of foreign language learners consistently highlight qualitative differences between native and non-native minds. Crucially, multilingual cognition appears to be more schematic, or detached, particularly if shaped in a foreign

language classroom. As a consequence, the affective dimension is less full-blown in the case of non-native than native speakers, which is related to differences in the way each group develops and/or interprets attitudinal elements. Importantly, these discrepancies have so far been discussed on the basis of (contextualized) words which are naturally linked to emotions, e.g. *happiness, sadness* (Bąk, 2016) or *devastated, friendly* (Jończyk, 2016). However, as postulated throughout this article, having a highly schematic, or abstract, mind means an overall higher (than expected) susceptibility to processing in terms of attitudinal elements. In order to test this prediction, concrete words, i.e. terms not expected by the embodied abstract semantics hypothesis (Kousta et al., 2011) to noticeably evoke affective meanings in the case of monolinguals, need to be inspected with a view to discovering whether non-native speakers of English employ more evaluations when processing them. Therefore, a study was designed to collect relevant data from native and non-native users and analyse them for the presence of particular dimensions – perceptual, motor, sociocultural, linguistic and affective. Details are presented below.

4. The design of the study

In order to test the claim that conceptual systems of foreign language learners are influenced by affect to a degree not compatible with the extent to which attitudinal elements are present in the minds of native language users, a qualitative pilot study was conducted at a Polish university in September 2018. It involved 2 groups of participants: 15 native speakers of English and 15 non-native users of the language.

The native cohort consisted of 8 males and 7 females, aged between 20 and 22. As shown by the results of a questionnaire prepared to define their language experience and proficiency,[4] these participants spent all their lives in Great Britain, used only English in family, professional and social contexts and declared strong affiliation with the British culture. None of them mentioned significant exposure to other languages and cultures. The native informants were all drafted from students participating in a double-diploma programme at the Faculty of Economics.

The non-native participants, 9 women and 6 men between 20 and 21 years of age, came from Turkey (3), Germany (4), Italy (3), France (2) and Croatia (3). They all declared no history of living in an English-speaking country. As indicated by the results of a questionnaire,[5] apart from their respective

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[4] The questionnaire was based on the Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (Marian et al., 2007).
[5] The questionnaire was based on the Language History Questionnaire (Li et al., 2014).

native languages and English, 8 participants had some proficiency in another language, mostly in the context of Internet interactions and/or reading. On the basis of the questionnaire and results of a language proficiency test which they had to take before entering the university, the non-native participants' level of English was identified as C1, according to the CEFR.

The two groups were gathered in the Erasmus Office and asked to take part in a "vocabulary exercise". It was explained to them that the results of this task would be used for future research and they all gave their consent. They were also informed that data from the two questionnaires, which they had completed 2 days beforehand, would be also referred to in the study.

The participants' task was to write sentences with the word *chair*. This particular unit was chosen for its obvious relation to the physical domain/sensorimotor dimensions of experience and less expected associations with abstract/linguistic or affective elements. Despite its rather concrete associations, *chair*, in accordance with the hypothesis formulated above, was predicted to induce contexts encompassing abstract (linguistic and/or affective) aspects in the case of foreign language learners rather than with native speakers of English. Answers from each group are given below, accompanied by the conceptual dimensions they are taken to reflect.

5. Results

Set 1 (foreign language learners)

1. In my room there is a chair full of clothes. (sensorimotor)
2. The legs of this chair have been broken. (sensorimotor)
3. Take a chair and come here. (sensorimotor)
4. Ellen moved in recently and she had only one chair and a lamp in her new house. (sensorimotor)
5. When we were having dinner, we found out that one friend was without a chair. (sensorimotor/social)
6. The newly-wed couple living next door came this morning to ask for a chair. (sensorimotor/social)
7. He needed to borrow a chair for the party. (sensorimotor/social)
8. The legs of a chair can be used for self-defense. (sensorimotor/social)
9. That is my favorite chair. (affective)
10. It happened last night that my cat just put her claws in my favorite chair. (affective/sensorimotor)
11. I prefer sitting on a sofa to sitting on a chair. (sensorimotor/affective)
12. A chair is simply good for me. (affective)

13. Everybody loves chairs. (affective)
14. The world would be different if the chair wasn't invented. (social/affective)
15. Chair is a part of chairman. (linguistic)

Set 2 (native language speakers)

1. There was a chair on a small platform in front of the screen. (sensorimotor)
2. I slumped into a chair and remained motionless for a while. (sensorimotor)
3. He swung one leg over the chair. (sensorimotor)
4. We'll need a table and four *chairs* for the dining room. (sensorimotor)
5. I am sitting perfectly straight, with my back against the chair. (sensorimotor)
6. He sat down, pushing his back into his chair. (sensorimotor)
7. Peter's huge belly filled the chair. (sensorimotor)
8. I was the first to rise from my chair. (sensorimotor)
9. She suddenly materialized beside my chair. (sensorimotor)
10. Her knees were weak, and she sat down on a chair. (sensorimotor)
11. He leaned back in his chair and gave her an angry look. (sensorimotor, affective)
12. Why are you kicking my best chair? (sensorimotor, affective)
13. It was hard for me to squeeze into a chair with wooden arms. (sensorimotor, affective)
14. He is now *chair* of the English department. (social)
15. The party's chair should be changed. (social)

The rationale behind attributing particular conceptual dimensions to the examples above was based on meanings transpiring from the linguistic contexts. For instance, words such as *favourite, prefer* or *like* were associated with evaluation while verbs like *come, take* or *sit* were taken to refer to the physical domain. Furthermore, if *chair* co-occurred with *friend, party*, or words implying community, e.g. *neighbour,* or interaction, e.g. *self-defence*, the social dimension was postulated. The social domain was also assigned to examples in which *chair* was used to mean *president*. Finally, the context closest to the noun *chair* was considered more prominent and thus consistently given as the first attribute in brackets.

6. Discussion

As announced above, the study was set up as a qualitative analysis of conceptualization patterns of native speakers and learners of English with reference to the degree each was permeated by the affective element. Having adopted

the notion of a pattern as its methodological pivot, the study situated itself within a family of usage-feature approaches (see for instance Dobrovol'skij, Piirainen, 2005; Janda, Solovyev, 2009; Glynn, 2011; Strugielska, 2012), based on the premise that syntagmatic contexts of a word could provide insight into conceptual structures behind it (Hampe, 2005: 104). Thus, analysing linguistic contexts of the word *chair* should be seen as an attempt to establish its meaning profile(s), or a set of cognitive models activated from a particular perspective (Evans, 2006: 496). In fact, the two perspectives employed in the study, i.e. native and non-native, were expected to lead to a split between interpretations of the noun *chair*, assumed to result from differently-shaped conceptual systems of native speakers and foreign language learners. In the case of the latter, meaning profiles were supposed to reflect cognitive reliance on attitudinal dimensions.

To begin with, foreign language learners' conceptualizations of the noun *chair* display far more variation than those of native speakers. In the case of the former, as many as 7 different combinations of elements can be noticed, i.e. sensorimotor-social (4), sensorimotor (4), affective (3), sensorimotor-affective (1), affective-sensorimotor (1), social-affective (1) and linguistic (1). The dominant pattern is between sensorimotor and sensorimotor-social, followed by affective. Importantly, the attitudinal variable appears as many as 6 times in the responses.

Native users' interpretations were arranged into 3 classes: sensorimotor (10), sensorimotor-affective (3), and social (2). Evidently, the perceptual-motor dimension dominates their conceptualizations, with some impact of the affective and social factors and none of the linguistic element.

The above tendencies in the data prompt the following observations. Firstly, there is a considerable qualitative difference between the two sets of answers in that foreign language learners' conceptualizations are more varied and less clear-cut than those of native speakers. This varied information is, nevertheless, anchored in two fairly independent elements: sensorimotor and affective, each occurring, 4 and 3 times respectively, as the only context determinant in the first set above. On the other hand, native speakers' answers are rooted in sensorimotor and social elements, each of which appears autonomously in the data. Thus, while the sensorimotor aspect is what native and non-native users of English share, since both groups evoked this dimension in their conceptualizations, the social element appears far more prominent in the case of the former and the affective one permeates the interpretations of the latter. Finally, when two-element semantic profiles are also taken into account, the sensorimotor element occurs 10 times with foreign language learners and 13 with native users, the social aspect is present 5 times in the case of the former and 2 with the latter, the affective dimension emanates from 6 learners' and 3 native speakers' responses, while the linguistic variable occurs only with the former

group. All in all, then, i.e. considering qualitative and quantitative asymmetries, a foreign language learner's mind reflects the sensorimotor-affective-socio-linguistic arrangement while a native speaker's conceptual system seems sensorimotor-socio-affective in nature. The discussion is summarized in Table 1.

Conceptual dimension	Foreign language learners	Native language speakers
sensorimotor	4	10
sensorimotor-affective	1	3
sensorimotor-social	4	0
social	0	2
social-affective	1	0
affective	3	0
affective-sensorimotor	1	0
linguistic	1	0

Table 1: Conceptual dimensions of foreign language learners and native speakers.

7. Conclusion

The role of affect in shaping native and non-native minds is different, which is only to be expected since they are exposed to dissimilar (linguistic) experience.

Foreign language learners seem equipped with cognitive systems which both reflect and support their thinking for/and functioning in a multilingual environment of today. Their minds are particularly suited to cope with the often abstract linguistic input and/since their ability to schematize is highly developed. Since abstract concepts tend to co-occur with affective elements, foreign language learners' minds rest, to a considerable extent, on attitudinal/evaluative dimensions. In other words, the conceptual system of a foreign language learner is unique in that it is particularly susceptible to processing in terms of affective variables.

Naturally, the above claims can be taken only tentatively and obviously far more research is needed to support them. Still, the tendencies described and partly confirmed in this paper are promising in that they not only show the uniqueness of foreign language learners' conceptual systems but also decisively place affective components within them.

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THE AFFECTIVE SIDE OF WRITING MA THESES IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Abstract

Academic writing, which necessitates a coordination of multiple higher-level cognitive skills, poses a challenge to graduate students. The heightened cognitive demands often cause negative emotions, such as stress, frustration, discouragement, but can also evoke positive ones, such as pride, satisfaction, and a feeling of accomplishment. This article reports the findings of a longitudinal qualitative study which aimed at exploring the emotions experienced by the participants, eleven students in an MA seminar, in the process of working on their theses, and the affective strategies they used. The data were collected through diaries kept by the participants over one academic year in which they recorded the emotions that accompanied them during the writing task. The data revealed a fluctuating and dynamic nature of the negative and positive emotions, out of which frustration and satisfaction were the most frequently experienced by the participants. Moreover, a range of affective strategies to control emotions and persist in writing were identified in the diary excerpts. The study illuminates the need to cater to the emotional side of graduate students' thesis writing by providing them with support and appropriate training in self-regulation.

Keywords: academic writing, MA theses, affective factors, writing anxiety, emotions, affective strategies

Słowa kluczowe: pisanie akademickie, prace magisterskie, czynniki afektywne, lęk związany z pisaniem, emocje, strategie afektywne

1. Introduction

The affective domain, which is related to emotions, feelings and moods, has been recognized as a relevant part of foreign language (L2) learning since 1970s, when humanistic psychology started to exert an influence on L2 education. Since then, L2 research has addressed affect as part of cognition, focusing especially on selected factors, such as anxiety and motivation (Arnold, Brown, 1999). Recent interest in positive psychology in the field of L2 learning and teaching has resulted in a reconsideration of the roles of both negative and positive emotions in the development of various skills and abilities (Dewaele, MacIntyre, 2014; MacIntyre, Mercer, 2014; Siek-Piskozub, 2016). Emotions have also been investigated as a major factor influencing the process of L2 writing, especially academic writing, given the complex multidimensional nature of this activity and the cognitive load it involves (Bazrafkan et al., 2016; Borg, 2001; Daly, 1978; Huerta et al., 2017; Russell-Pinson, Harris, 2017). Academic writing, a crucial skill underlying academic success, necessitates a number of processes, each of which requires substantial levels of concentration and higher-order cognitive skills (Bailey, 2011; Hammann, 2005; Torrance, Galbraith, 2006; Zabihi, 2018). As a consequence, academic writers are likely to experience considerable levels of anxiety, leading to stress, frustration and discouragement. Their task, therefore, requires the use of affective strategies to alleviate stress levels and regulate emotions. Research findings indicate that academic writers are influenced by strong pressures that evoke negative emotions (Bazrafkan et al. 2016; Borg, 2001; Mu, Carrington, 2007); however, research on emotions in academic writing and ways of coping with them has been scant so far.

The present study attempts to add to the existing research by exploring the emotions experienced by a group of students working on their MA papers, and the affective strategies they used to control their emotions and maintain the writing process. First, however, a review of the literature on the demands of academic writing and on the role of affect in the writing process will be presented.

2. The demands of academic writing in a foreign language

Writing, one of the four language skills making up language users' communicative competence, is considered to necessitate an array of cognitive and linguistic processes. Scardamalia (1981: 81) lists the following elements that need to be considered in any writing act: "spelling, punctuation, word choice, syntax, textual connections, purpose, organization, clarity, rhythm, euphony, and reader characteristics", all of which place considerable demands on writers. Torrance and Galbraith (2006) add that the interconnection of various processes in

a writing task causes a considerable cognitive load and puts severe demands on writers' processing capacities. Discussing these processing constraints, they point to two broad strands of research explaining them: 'dual task interference,' in which a focus on more than one cognitive task leads to lowered performance on at least one of them, and 'transient memory,' resulting in problems with efficient association of various types of information due to short-memory limitations.

The writing skill is a basic language skill in academic settings regardless of the field of study, as university students need to take written tests, submit written assignments, and write diploma papers which are a common graduation requirement (Bailey, 2011; Huerta et al., 2017). Coffin et al. (2003) list the following purposes of writing in higher education: assessment, developing students' critical thinking and understanding, an enhancement of their learning opportunities beyond lectures, and training students in skills useful in their future professions. Therefore, as noted by Hammann (2005), an ability to express ideas coherently in writing is an important pre-requisite of academic success. The activities that are essential in university courses as well as in future professional contexts usually require an execution of a specific kind of writing, involving academic writing skills.

Among the different kinds of writing genres, academic writing constitutes a particularly complex cognitive task that usually poses a significant challenge to writers. Bailey (2011) explains that academic writing involves several overlapping steps, such as conducting a library search, selecting appropriate sources, background reading around a topic, taking notes, planning and outlining, as well as writing proper with the use of academic style, and, finally, proofreading and editing. Students need to learn academic lexical registers, the required specific conventions, and referencing formats. They also need to display critical thinking skills, coherence in formulating logical discourse, and time management techniques. A significant demand is connected with processing excessive amounts of information, at the same time constantly organizing and reorganizing it, which contributes to an increased cognitive load of the activity. Moreover, conducting an empirical research project is a frequent requirement in many courses requiring academic writing, such as theses and dissertations. The writing-up of the research organization and findings also requires specific knowledge and skills. Typically, such a report includes a specification of the aims of a study, its methodology, research procedures, an account of the findings, and their critical evaluation (Bitchener, 2010; Coffin et al., 2003).

Zabihi (2018) stresses that while the process of producing an academic text is always cognitively challenging, the demands rise significantly in the case of writing in a foreign language (L2). On top of the tasks of processing large amounts of information, analyzing and reorganizing it, L2 writers need

to constantly reformulate it in lexical and grammatical chunks which are not necessarily automatically retrieved from their memories. This requires particularly high levels of cognitive effort and conscious attention throughout the task.

3. Affect in L2 academic writing

The affective domain, which is connected with the emotional side of performing a task, constitutes another source of factors influencing the process of academic writing. Because of the multiplicity of cognitive demands involved in academic writing, with conducting and reporting research often being part of the tasks, as well as time constraints and social pressures that are often experienced by writers in academic contexts, this kind of writing is particularly prone to evoke strong emotions (Borg, 2001). MacIntyre and Vincze (2017) state that different kinds of emotions can have either positive or negative effects on learning tasks, and Borg (2001) explains how emotions influence the various stages and processes of planning and conducting research. According to Huerta et al. (2017: 716), "writing is one known barrier for individuals aspiring to a master's or a doctoral degree", and hence the proportion of students who drop out during their graduate courses and do not obtain diplomas is increased partly because of the requirement of writing a thesis.

The published literature on the topic of emotions in academic writing focuses on negative emotions, especially writing anxiety (also referred to as writing apprehension). McLeod (1987: 427) defines writing anxiety as "negative, anxious feelings (about oneself as a writer, one's writing situation, or one's writing task) that disrupt some part of the writing process". It can be inferred from this rather broad definition that writing anxiety encompasses a number of specific negative emotions and feelings, such as anger, embarrassment, guilt, etc., that make writers anxious. Writing anxiety has been shown to inhibit academic writers' capacities and their chances of success. Its higher levels are associated with lower performance, as it was found to be negatively correlated with a mastery of mechanical aspects of writing, linguistic accuracy, and the overall communicative efficiency in L1 writing (e.g., Daly, 1978; Oxford, 2016). Zabihi (2018) notes that both the prevalence of writing apprehension and its debilitating effects can reach even higher levels in L2 academic writers because of the particularly high cognitive demands they need to deal with. In her study, strong negative correlations were revealed between anxiety and the complexity, accuracy, and fluency of L2 students' writing. Oxford (2016) discusses the feelings of fear, guilt resulting from procrastination, worry resulting from approaching deadlines, and negative comparisons with more successful colleagues as accompanying high levels of writing anxiety in an L2 student who is supposed to write a term paper.

Anxiety is closely connected to another affective factor often associated with academic writing, namely self-efficacy, which is defined as the beliefs held by writers about their own capacities to successfully complete the writing task (Ganguly, Kulkarni, Gupta, 2017; Zabihi, 2018). By exerting an influence on anxiety, self-efficacy is often discussed as indirectly impacting writers' performance, because greater beliefs in one's capabilities usually result in a more willing participation in a task, harder work, longer persistence, and higher achievement as compared with lower levels of self-efficacy (Schunk, 2003; Zabihi, 2018). According to Cheng, Horwitz and Schaller (1999), writing apprehension is often connected with low self-esteem, a dislike of writing, and a fear of being evaluated by others. Russell-Pinson and Harris (2017) discuss other, related concepts leading to procrastination and decreased achievement in L2 dissertation writers. One of them is 'perfectionism,' characterized by self-criticism due to setting very high, often unrealistic, standards. Another one is 'competing priorities', that is, an inability to reconcile writing with other duties, as a result of which one has a feeling of failure; still another one is connected with 'poor time and project management skills'.

The recent emergence of interest in positive psychology in SLA has shifted researchers' attention to include also positive emotions in investigating various aspects of SLA (Dewaele, MacIntyre, 2014; MacIntyre, Mercer, 2014; Siek-Piskozub, 2016). Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) discuss the broadly defined feeling of enjoyment in learning, which can result, among others, from task completion, concentration on a task, having clear goals and progressing toward them, establishing positive social relations, and receiving helpful feedback. MacIntyre and Vincze (2017) researched the following positive emotions influencing L2 learning: joy, gratitude, serenity, interest, hope, pride, amusement, inspiration, awe, and love. Oxford (2016) notes that anxiety, being a complex and multifaceted emotion, can also lead to feelings of enjoyment, excitement and stimulation in L2 learning situations. Tolerance of anxiety is, however, an individual trait, and not all learners can experience 'positive anxiety'. While little has been written about academic writers' positive emotions, Cayley (2013) states that the topic of writing needs not be dominated by negativity, and the enjoyment of writing should be discussed as well, because "the pleasures of the writing process and its challenges are two sides to the same coin". Oxford (2016) notes that the process of working on a demanding L2 academic writing assignment can stimulate emotions such as energy, optimism, and a general 'positivity'.

The psychological tension that writers experience can be regulated by the use of affective strategies. In the context of L2 learning, affective strategies are defined as 'emotion-regulating' ones (Oxford, 2016: 159). Oxford (1990: 141) divides affective strategies into three main groups according to

the function they perform: 1) lowering your anxiety (e.g. through using relaxation techniques, music, and laughter), 2) encouraging yourself (through motivational techniques such as positive self-talk and rewarding oneself), and 3) taking your emotional temperature (e.g., observing one's body reactions, seeking emotional support, and keeping a diary). Undergraduate and graduate students, irrespective of their particular field of study, can use very broad repertoires of such strategies in an attempt to overcome negative emotions evoked by the writing process. For example, Bazrafkan et al. (2016) identified four main categories of coping with stress, anxiety and exhaustion by their study participants, medical sciences students who worked on their PhD theses. These categories were: efficient communication with others (colleagues, friends, family members), engaging in various activities, such as physical activity, meditation, listening to music, watching movies, etc., gathering excessive information about the problem encountered in the writing, and, finally, looking for the motivation to finalize the thesis. Mu and Carrington's (2007) participants reported using the following affective strategies in writing their dissertations: rewarding oneself with some days off after a period of intensive writing, reading books not connected with the topic, talking to peers about their writing, setting goals connected with their future careers, and seeking positive feedback from supervisors and other specialists in their fields. Additionally, as noted by Borg (2001), keeping a reflective journal by researchers can be considered to be yet another strategy whose function is, among others, to reduce anxiety resulting from approaching deadlines and other constraints of doing research. The journal writing helped him understand his emotions and the reasons for his behavior, leading to overcoming the problems. Oxford (2016) illustrates the mutual interrelations of affective, cognitive and metacognitive strategies in an L2 academic writing task. Negative emotions can cause strategic behavior in a learner in order to regulate emotions and tap into enhanced cognition, for example, rationalization and problem identification. Aided cognition, in turn, regulates emotions, evokes positive feelings and provides affective support in successful task performance.

4. The study

4.1. The aims of the study

The present study aimed to explore the emotions experienced by graduate students in the process of writing their MA theses in applied linguistics. Another aim was to investigate the affective strategies applied by the participants to regulate their emotions and proceed with their writing.

4.2. Participants

The participants of the study were 11 second-year students majoring in English in a two-year master's program at the faculty of English at a big Polish university. They attended an MA seminar devoted to learning and teaching English as a foreign language (the researcher was the supervisor), and were in the process of working on their MA papers. There were ten women and one man among the participants, and their age was between 24 and 25. Nine of the participants had graduated from a bachelor's program at the same faculty, and two had finished BA studies in other faculties at the same university. To ensure participants' anonymity and the confidentiality of the data, the participants will be referred to as Student 1, Student 2, etc.

4.3. Data collection and analysis

Diaries documenting the process of writing MA theses kept by the participants were the data elicitation tool used in this exploratory study. As noted by Dörnyei (2007), the primary strength of diary studies is that they allow researchers to get access to participants' perspectives in their daily experience, their emotions and moods. Moreover, the evolutionary character of the data can be captured in such studies. The participants kept their diaries for almost nine months, from October 2017 to June 2018. At the beginning of the academic year, they received blank notebooks with oral instructions to make entries on documenting their writing with a special focus on the emotions they would experience. Moreover, information on a voluntary character of participation, and on the researcher's intention to use the data for research and publication purposes was provided. All students from the seminar decided to keep the diaries and hence participate in the research. Although they had a choice concerning the language of the diaries, all participants with an exception of one, who mixed languages, decided to keep them in Polish.[1] Altogether, 207 pages of handwritten notes were collected. The qualitative data underwent a data-driven content analysis (Creswell, 2014), as a result of which the following general categories were identified: negative emotions, positive emotions, and affective strategies. The data within each category were further hand-coded, and several codes denoting specific emotions and strategies emerged within each category. These were quantified to calculate frequencies, and the most representative excerpts were selected for illustration purposes.

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[1] Therefore, the quotes provided in the following section (4.4.) have been translated into English by the researcher for the purpose of the present article.

4.4. The findings of the study

4.4.1. Emotions expressed by the participants

The frequencies of the occurrence of particular emotions as well their illustrations with selected excerpts from the diaries (in the English translations) will be presented in the present section.

- **Frequencies of quotes denoting particular emotions**

Table 1 presents the numbers of quotes related to particular specific emotions, together with the number of participants in whose diaries these quotes were identified[2].

	Negative emotions			Positive emotions	
Emotion	No of quotes	No of participants	Emotion	No of quotes	No of participants
frustration	53	11	satisfaction	42	11
feeling overwhelmed	25	10	a feeling of accomplishment	27	9
stress	25	9	hope	23	9
discouragement	21	8	enjoyment	20	8
doubt	17	7	pride	19	6
tiredness	17	9	enthusiasm	17	7
fear	16	6	relief	14	9
low self-efficacy	15	8			
guilt	14	6			
anger	8	5			
worry	7	6			

Table 1: The total numbers of quotes denoting negative and positive emotions, and of participants who included them in their diaries.

As can be seen in Table 1, eleven negative and seven positive types of emotions emerged in the analysis of the diaries. Altogether, negative emotions were expressed in 218 quotes, and positive emotions in 162 quotes. Frustration was the most prevalent emotion, followed by a feeling of satisfaction. A feeling of accomplishment, stress, and feeling overwhelmed were also particularly frequently reported emotions.

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[2] The number of participants seems to be important, because the same emotion was often expressed by a single participant in numerous quotes. Therefore, the higher the number of participants in Table 1, the more widely a give emotion was represented in the sample.

- **Illustrations of negative emotions**

Different causes of frustration were reported. A frequent one was connected with the time factor, specifically, not having enough time to concentrate on writing and one's inefficient time management. For example, Student 3 wrote, *"Weeks pass way too fast. I have to submit the chapter in less than a month, and I've been doing really badly. Recently I've been able to write no more than a page a day."* Student 8's comment displays frustration with her own incapability to stay concentrated on the task: *"I can't focus, I lack words! My writing takes too long, I've been sitting for 4 hours and haven't even written a page! A tragedy!"* Competing priorities, connected with urgent class assignments and other obligations that the participants faced, were another source of frustration, as can be seen in the following excerpts: *"Frustration goes up and motivation goes down when I realize that this week I can only devote one day to writing"* (Student 10) and *"I am frustrated by the constant shortage of time and the number of other duties, for example, I have to waste my precious time on washing the dishes"* (Student 9). Frustration was also caused by the challenge of finding appropriate source materials, selecting them and using them in one's own writing, as illustrated in the following quote: *"I got stuck again. I have nothing to put in Chapter 3. (...) If Google can't find anything, where else can I look for it?"* (Student 1). The feedback the participants received on the portions of their writing was another frequently reported source of frustration, especially when the amount of necessary revision was substantial. Student 2 wrote, *"In fact, I have to rewrite the whole chapter. I broke down and I thought I wouldn't be able to correct it."*

Time-related issues were also the predominant cause of high levels of stress. The looming deadlines for submitting chapters were a particularly strong factor here, present in practically all diaries. This can be seen in the following excerpt: *"I really stress out, because I will definitely not make it for the deadline. I don't know when and what to write, I have a block and no inspiration"* (Student 2). The seminar classes, in which the students were reminded of the deadlines and expected to submit their work, were a source of stress for some of them. Student 10 noted, *"I get really stressed after each seminar"*, and Student 5 reported having sleep problems because of stress: *"Before every Tuesday I get some kind of neurosis, sometimes I don't sleep at all."* Planning and conducting research, as well as analyzing the empirical data, were another frequently reported source of stress. Student 5 found interviewing her study participants very stressful (*"I think I am more stressed than they are"*), and for Student 6, technical problems with processing the data by software was a source of stress.

The time constraints and a multitude of duties also contributed to the participants' feeling of being overwhelmed. Most of the participants complained

about having too many homework assignments for other courses, which made it impossible to fully focus on writing the MA papers and ensure their higher quality. Student 11 noted, *"I am writing. Five hundred things at the same time. All of them will have to improved."* Student 3's comment refers to university duties, work obligations, and everyday issues, all of which put high demands on her: *"It's 9 p.m., since the morning I've had 5 hours of my teaching practicum and 5 hours of private classes. I can't write anything today. (…) I'm overwhelmed with teaching, plus university courses and preparations for my wedding"*. The feeling of being overwhelmed also resulted from the volume of work involved in writing the paper, as illustrated by these quotes: *"I am overwhelmed by the amount of background reading materials to analyze"* (Student 2) and *"Today it was like this: the computer was on, the MA paper file displayed. When I saw how many articles I had downloaded, I immediately switched it off"* (Student 5).

The sustained strain and the cognitive and management challenges led to a feeling of discouragement experienced by the participants. In the diaries, they often reported lowered moods and motivation to continue working on their papers due to the prolonged activity and recurring difficulties. This is aptly illustrated by the following comments: *"Chapter 2 is not revised yet, and I already have to start chapter 3. I feel like crying when I think of the amount of work and stress I've been through"* (Student 3), and *"Yet another week of working on the paper. I am totally fed up"* (Student 9). Student 8 was disheartened enough to question the need to continue working: *"It costs me too much. I start wondering whether I really need this MA. No stamina."* A number of diary entries expressed a related feeling, that of tiredness. The students complained about being mentally and physically exhausted after hours of hard work, often connected with a need to take a break. Student 7's comment is quite representative of this: *"The second night spent on writing. I'm so tired. I'm going to bed".*

The feeling of doubt appeared when the participants were not sure about their choice of content, structuring the papers, applying writing conventions, and data collection and analysis techniques. Another frequent emotion, fear, arose when the students were submitting chapters and expecting negative feedback, and when they suspected they would not manage to meet the deadlines. Guilt was evoked as a result of not working hard enough, being distracted, and procrastinating. Low self-efficacy was evident in statements such as *"I don't believe in myself and I always expect to get my work back covered with red-ink corrections"* (Student 10) and *"I can't do it properly. I think I overestimated my abilities"* (Student 3). The participants' anger was directed either at themselves, at the circumstances which prevented them from working, or at the difficulties they encountered (e.g., failing technology, missing sources, etc.). Finally, the students' worries mainly concerned too little time to fulfill the tasks.

- **Illustrations of positive emotions**

Out of the positive emotions, satisfaction was the most frequently expressed one. It was mainly evoked by the participants' hard work, a sense of progressing, and by the feeling that the result of their work was satisfactory, especially when the positive outcomes followed particularly strong effort. For example, Student 2 wrote, *"I was in the library for a long time, 5-6 hours, and I feel good, because I managed to scan all the materials I needed"*, and Student 4 made the following comment: *"I am halfway through the work planned for today and I feel great satisfaction already"*. Student 6 highlighted the good final effects of her work after laborious revisions following a feedback session: *"I am really satisfied with the final version of my first chapter. I've tried to implement the changes suggested by the teacher. Now it seems to come together very nicely."* For Student 11, comparing her progress to that made by her colleagues was a source of satisfaction. She noted, *"I am progressing. It's good to know (…) that the others are behind me in terms of progression"*. Some of the participants expressed their satisfaction with having managed to grasp the technical aspects of analyzing their research data, as is evidenced in the following quotations: *"I have finally come to terms with SPSS, and the results even make sense"* (Student 1), and *"Great, the calculations are just fine, the Cronbach and the correlations, and the results are interesting"* (Student 7).

Satisfaction is very close to the second most frequent emotion experienced by the participants, a feeling of accomplishment. This feeling was evoked when the participants had accomplished something, e.g., submitted a chapter or met a deadline. For example, Student 1 noted, *"I don't know how I've accomplished this. At first, I didn't even know what I wanted to write about, and now it has come out really well"*. Student 2 put down the following exclamation: *"After the final revisions I DID IT! The MA paper is ready!"*, and Student 6 wrote, *"Nothing motivates me more than a submitted chapter. Or, rather, there is such a thing: a chapter that is already printed out, after the revisions!"*

Pride, a feeling of very strong satisfaction, was also often evoked by a certain achievement, as exemplified by these excerpts: *"I am mega proud of having submitted chapter 2, especially that I was one of the first to do it"* (Student 5) and *"Today my first paragraph was created on the train. I'm so proud!"* (Student 9). Pride also resulted from being able to understand something particularly difficult, for example, statistics: *"I am proud of making sense of the statistical tests"* (Student 7), from effective self-regulation: *"I think I can be proud of myself. According to my plan, I work on my paper every day for an hour"* (Student 10), and from the effort invested in the work: *"I never thought I could work so hard"* (Student 7).

Hope, expressed as optimistic prospects of a smooth writing process and of a positive evaluation by the supervisor, was another frequent emotion revealed in the diary entries. This is illustrated by the following examples: *"I keep repeating that since I have managed to do so much so far, I will do fine"* (Student 3), *"I hope chapter 2 will be less chaotic than the first version of chapter 1"* (Student 2), and *"Christmas and some free time are approaching, so I hope I'll be able to create something"* (Student 1).

A number of the entries pointed to certain levels of enjoyment derived from the process of writing. This was sometimes stimulated by some interesting content encountered in the sources, as, for example, in the quote made by Student 5: *"Things got moving. Chapter 3 is much nicer to write, because finally I'm interested in its topic"*, and by Student 7: *"Chapter 1 is going fine, the sources are fun to read."* Most participants, however, found reporting on their own studies to be the most enjoyable part of the work: *"Wow, writing about what I have done myself is really cool (…) It's so nice to come back to my memories, my interviews. Three days of transcription, but it was quite enjoyable"* (Student 6); *"It's great that the study actually revealed something. I really feel like writing about it"* (Student 11). Moreover, it needs to be mentioned that Student 7 found the time pressure enjoyable, noting: *"I need this adrenaline to get motivated. Moreover, I like it."*

Throughout working on the papers, the participants appeared to feel enthusiastic about the various elements involved in the writing process. Their enthusiasm was evident in their invigoration and enhanced motivation to write, and was caused by a variety of specific factors, such as obtaining new inspiring sources: *"I have just found a great book which is user-friendly, nicely edited and has real-life stories in it"* (Student 6); *"Right after work I sit down to read the articles – I am enthusiastic to do it after my recent fruitful library search"* (Student 9). For others, it was stimulated by the prospect of conducting research, as can be seen in Student 11's quote: *"Next week I'm starting my study. I am… excited!"* Finally, some students noted that the feedback from the supervisor was a source of new energy for them: *"After fruitful feedback with my supervisor I've gathered new energy to continue writing and reading"* (Student 6).

The final positive emotion, relief, was caused by extending a deadline: *"I am relieved because tomorrow's seminar has been cancelled. I have gained another week to complete the chapter"* (Student 9). However, it was most commonly experienced after a completion of certain stage, such as a chapter, a literature review, or a whole paper. Student 10 wrote, *"I submitted the chapter at last! I can't describe the relief I feel. I want to fly!"*

4.4.2. Affective strategies applied by the writers

The diary entries contained numerous examples of affective strategies used by the participants to regulate their emotions throughout the process of writing. Four groups of such strategies were identified. The numbers of the quotations in which they were revealed, and of the participants who reported using them, are presented in Table 2.

Affective strategies	No of quotes	No of participants
engaging in other activities	24	9
rewarding oneself	17	7
seeking consolation and help from others	16	5
keeping a diary	5	4

Table 2: Total numbers of quotes referring to the use of affective strategies and of the participants who used them.

Engaging in other activities was a way of taking some time off from working on the papers. The participants resorted to this strategy in order to rest, to regain energy, to get a new perspective on what they wrote about, and, generally, to be able to return to writing with enhanced enthusiasm. They engaged in a variety of activities, some of which are listed in the following quotations from the diaries:

- *"I'll listen to music or go out with my boyfriend to refresh my mind, because I'm starting to forget what I'm reading about"* (Student 1);
- *"I have turned it off and I'm going to do yoga. I need a break"* (Student 5);
- *"I'm going to listen to some music and close my eyes for a while. Such mental detox will do me good"* (Student 8);
- *"On Thursday I was transcribing the interview, and on Friday I was cleaning the flat. The cleaning was surprisingly pleasant. I didn't waste the time, simultaneously getting a break from intellectual work"* (Student 9).

The strategy of rewarding oneself was used after some effort in order to maintain the motivation to pursue further work. The rewards took different forms, as exemplified by the following quotes:

- *"When I write 5 pages, I'll go to the gym"* (Student 6);
- *"A page has been written. My reward for the job: pizza"* (Student 8);
- *"I have deserved an episode of a series and some chips"* (Student 9);
- *"I have definitely deserved a reward – I'm giving myself a week of relaxation with no thinking about the paper, articles, and the like"* (Student 10).

Seeking consolation and help from others is a strategy which involves other people, not necessarily those who are directly engaged with the task.

Some of the participants reported using this strategy quite frequently, skillfully turning to others in order to get psychological support and some kind of help:

- *"I share my stress with my boyfriend, and his composure gives me a lot of support and help with controlling my emotions"* (Student 1);
- *"My fiancé tries to motivate me to write the paper. When I do nothing for a while, he reminds me to start writing"* (Student 3);
- *"My friend called today. She's also having problems with her BSc paper, so we support each other. It's good to have someone who's not doing very well either"* (Student 5);
- *"It would be good if someone had a look at my coding. I'll ask my mum"* (Student 6).

Finally, the keeping of the diary appeared to be an effective strategy for some of the participants. This was evident in some of the excerpts:

- *"I wish I could keep the diary till the end of the writing. It makes me aware of certain issues. I guess I will keep it longer"* (Student 3);
- *"The diary helps me reflect on my emotions"* (Student 4);
- *"As I look through my diary, I can see how many negative emotions there are inside me. The diary itself is a way of relieving stress"* (Student 5);
- *"This notebook helps me organize my writing"* (Student 6).

5. Discussion and implications

The study findings revealed a number of both negative and positive emotions that were experienced by the participants in the process of working on their MA papers. It could be seen that the quotes which expressed negative emotions outnumbered those which expressed positive ones, and the overall number of negative emotions identified in the diaries was higher than the number of positive ones. However, given the strenuous nature of the task the participants were involved in, the high volume of the positive emotions it generated is worth stressing. The general overtone of the diaries was not dominated by negativity; in fact, both negativity and positivity permeated through the entries. It is worth highlighting that both were reflected in each diary, and there was no diary in which either negative or positive emotions would definitely predominate. This general perception was also evidenced in frustration being the most frequent emotion, and satisfaction the second most frequent one, both experienced by all participants. Another noteworthy observation is that the emotions fluctuated, with negative feelings transforming to positive ones and the other way round, often from one diary entry to the following one, or even within a single entry. Although the shifts in the emotional temperature

were not always that abrupt, their fluctuations clearly pointed to a dynamic nature of the emotional dimension of engaging in a long-term intellectual activity, of which thesis writing is an example. The findings concerning the coexistence and dynamic interrelations of various emotions seem to confirm MacIntyre and Vincze's (2017: 68) observation that negative and positive emotions, such as, for example, anxiety and enjoyment, are "two interrelated dimensions, each of which with its own trajectory of development over time". They explain that in an L2 situation, when it is natural for a learner to experience both successes and failures, the complementarity of positive and negative emotions is particularly relevant. In the present study, the dynamic and transformational character of the participants' emotions and moods was clearly visible because of the process-oriented, longitudinal and introspective character of the data elicitation method.

Out of the negative emotions, frustration, stress, a feeling of being overwhelmed, discouragement, doubt, and tiredness were the most frequent ones. On the other hand, satisfaction, followed by a feeling of accomplishment, hope, enjoyment, and pride, were the most frequently reported positive emotions. Each of the emotions appeared to involve a complex interplay of specific factors that caused it. Generally, the following factors could be identified as stimulating most emotions: conducting a library search (i.e. having too many or too few sources, or finding good sources), deadlines (connected to pressure and time management issues), an overload of other activities, a cognitive challenge (connected to the difficulty of the tasks involved), competing priorities, progressing, comparisons (with peers and with prior experience), and, finally, feedback from the supervisor. For example, a cognitive challenge could stimulate frustration, stress, feeling overwhelmed, and being scared on the one hand, and a feeling of satisfaction or pride on the other hand, if the challenge was overcome successfully. Moreover, it was also revealed how a generally negative emotion, stress caused by a time pressure, led to a positive feeling of satisfaction in one participant who admitted being stimulated and motivated by such situations. This is in line with what Oxford (2016) calls 'positive anxiety', and provides additional evidence for a complexity of negative and positive emotions.

The diary entries also contained numerous examples of the affective strategies that the participants used in order to cope with negative emotions and to maintain or evoke positive ones[3]. The four types and the specific examples of the strategies generally coincided with Oxford's (1990) typology, in which she distinguished 'lowering anxiety', 'self-encouragement', and 'regulating emotional temperature.' Engaging in other activities, such as listening

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[3] A number of metacognitive strategies were identified as well, however, they are beyond the scope of the present analysis.

to music, taking a walk, having a snack, in order to take time off from the tiring and intellectually involving task, was the most frequently used type of strategy. Rewarding oneself for bigger or smaller successes was the second most frequently reported strategy, and turning to others for help or consolation, which could be called a socio-affective strategy, was the following one. Interestingly, the strategy choice mirrored that reported by Mu and Carrington (2007) and Bazrafkan et al. (2016), which shows that under similar circumstances, people tend to resort to similar strategies irrespective of the different institutional and cultural contexts. Judging by the diary entries, the affective strategies applied by the participants were effective in alleviating stress and stimulating enthusiasm, and, as a result, in facilitating the writing process. Finally, it seems important to point out that keeping the diaries was acknowledged by the participants to be a useful affective strategy. In this way, the diaries performed a dual role in the present study: as a research tool, and as a strategy which facilitated reflection and understanding their emotions by the participants.

The implications that can be formulated on the basis of the results concern a need to recognize the importance of students' emotions in the process of working on their diploma papers by their supervisors, other faculty staff, peer students, and the students themselves. Unfortunately, it seems that the main focus in supervisor-student collaboration often falls mainly or entirely on the cognitive side of the MA project, with a complete neglect of the student's emotions, feelings, and moods. The way feedback on a student's writing is delivered by the supervisor seems to be a particularly important issue. It is recommended that supervisors provide positive feedback as well, and express an appreciation of a student's effort. Otherwise, feeling overwhelmed, frustrated, and left alone with their negative emotions, students can find efficient work on their papers extremely difficult, and often even impossible. If nothing is done, frustration and a feeling of low efficacy can grow, leading to overt helplessness and failure. Therefore, emotional support is needed in the course of classes and beyond them. It can take the form of regular informal group chats about students' feelings related to writing, which can initiate an informal yet powerful peer support system. It is easier to open up if others face the same problems, as was also revealed in the present study. Getting acquainted with published articles about writing anxiety, especially in the context of theses writing, can also be helpful, especially if they can be further discussed in class. Finally, explicit training in the use of affective strategies can be a good idea. Some of the students can assume that taking time off is a sign of laziness; if they learn that is a purposeful strategy, their self-esteem can be boosted. Keeping a writing diary can also be recommended as a useful emotion-regulating strategy.

6. Final conclusions

The findings of the study revealed a number of emotions that accompanied the participants in the process of writing their MA papers, displaying the complexity and the dynamic nature of these emotions and their interrelations. The study thus provides a confirmation of a significant role of the affective side of being involved in cognitively demanding academic writing activities. The analysis of the results leads to the conclusion that this dimension of a challenging task performance must not be neglected, because it can contribute to a success or failure of an undertaking to the same extent as cognitive factors. Therefore, academic writers need to be given support in managing and regulating their emotions to help them successfully complete their assignments, and at the same time maintain high levels of motivation and a feeling of accomplishment.

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COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE DIMENSIONS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS: A POLISH-TURKISH COMPARATIVE STUDY

Abstract

The term learning environment is a construct perceived by researchers as embracing different aspects of the teaching-learning continuum. It can be described as the physical location where learning occurs: learning in class versus learning beyond it, learning in a home country (with focus on the effects of a learning environment on outcomes of teaching) versus learning abroad (Dewey, 2004, Diaz-Campos, 2004), the latter constituting a fast-growing area of study. Learning environment also means the physical space where formal instruction is carried out (Gabryś-Barker, 2010). But above all, learning environment studies focus on interactions between adults (teachers, parents) and students and show how these relations can affect the latter's achievement and more generally well-being at school and outside. Thus, it can be seen as mostly affective. This chapter aims to comment on the perceptions pre-service teachers have of a foreign language learning environment, as expressed in their narrative texts on the topic. The data obtained in this study will be compared with the result of a similar study carried out with a group of pre-service EFL teachers in a different cultural setting, in Turkey (Sağlam, Sali, 2013). This should shed some light on whether the trainees' perceptions are in some way culture-specific and therefore grounded in the educational policies of a given country. The conclusions drawn from the study will hopefully contribute to the ongoing discussion on how to improve FL teachers' training programmes.

1. Introduction: Rationale for studying a FL learning environment

Even though the concept of learning environment has been researched and discussed quite extensively, there are hardly any studies that look at FL pre-service teachers' awareness of this important construct. Thus, receiving feedback from our trainees and diagnosing their awareness of the above issue, we as teacher trainers and curriculum planners can amend our training programmes to expand our students' and future teachers' knowledge. We can also observe what their attitude to their future professions is by diagnosing their understandings of such a fundamental aspect of successful (FL) teaching as a learning environment. Finally, we can understand more about trainees' beliefs and preferences.

2. Defining learning environment: perspectives and research overview (an outline)

Various researchers take different perspectives when defining a learning environment (LE). Schmuck and Schmuck (1978) see it as interpersonal relationships expressed by teacher-student and student-student interactions, emotional aspects of teaching, teachers' attitudes towards students and expectations of them, but also as disciplinary problems that occur in and beyond the classroom. Additionally, they perceive personal profiles of the teacher and learners, their age and gender, as constitutive factors of the LE. For Entwistle and Tait (1995), LE is a more traditional concept relating to a course itself (lectures, assignments, tests) and its available and actually used learning resources. Entwistle, McCune and Entwistle (2003) combine the former and the latter views in describing LE as a course's design and its organization, teacher-students' relationships and student cultures. In other studies, the focus is on an ideal LE, which brings about maximum learning and achievement (Byrne, Hattie, Fraser, 1986) and on what is a desirable one, that is, "supportive, egalitarian, democratic and organized according to pre-determined rules and regulations" (Zedan, 2010: 76). Another perspective is offered by Miller, Ferguson and Byrne (2000), who discuss LE in relation to difficult classroom behavior and the strict and fair regime of a class.

Research on learning environments embraces not only these studies which try to conceptualize the construct of LE and contextualize it, but also

those which look at constructing different LEs and the influences they have on learners and their motivation. Additionally, for some researchers the construct becomes an important issue in teacher training and the professional development of FL teachers (Table 1).

Dimension	Focus	Study
Defining learning environment	Approaches to studying and perceptions of learning environment across disciplines	Entwistle and Tait (1995)
	Conceptualizing classroom space as learning environment	Gabryś-Barker (2010)
Perceptions of learning environment	Student perceptions of preferred classroom learning environment	Byrne, Hattie and Fraser (1986)
	Students' perceptions of a FL learning environment	Sağlam and Sali (2013)
	Investigating ways of enhancing university teaching-learning environments: measuring students' approaches to studying and perceptions of teaching	Entwistle, McCune and Entwistle (2003)
Learning environment as context	Learning environment as context	Freed, Segalowitz and Dewey (2004)
	A comparison of reading development by learners of Japanese in intensive domestic immersion and study abroad contexts	Dewey (2004)
	Context of learning in the acquisition of Spanish second language phonology	Diaz-Campos (2004)
	Learning environment as context of FL learning	Collentine and Freed (2004)
Constructing effective learning environment	Linguistic and non-linguistic paradigms in constructing FL learning and teaching environments	Lian (2016)
	The need for both teacher and learner centred classroom – students' views	Elen, Clarebout, Léonard and Lowyck (2007)
Influence of learning environment	Role of learning environment for development of pragmatic comprehension	Taguchi (2008)
	The effects of different learning environments on students' motivation and their achievement.	Baeten, Dochy and Struyven (2012)
	The influence of learning environment and its dynamics on classroom interaction	Czekaj (2008)

Learning environment in teacher training	Incorporating classroom and school environment ideas into teacher education programs	Fraser (1993)
	Classroom climate as a dimension of learning environment in teacher training	Gabryś-Barker (2015)

Table 1: Selected studies on learning environment in FL instruction.

3. Present study: methodology

3.1. Research focus

This article looks at the results of two studies, that of Sağlam and Sali (2013) and my own study, carried out as a partial replication of the former. The major focus of the original study, as well as the present one, is on identification of varied perceptions of a FL learning environment in its different dimensions (cognitive and affective) both from qualitative and quantitative perspectives.

3.2. Participants in the study

Both groups of subjects taking part in the study were pretty homogenous in their profiles. All the subjects were between 22 and 24 years old and they were university students, future teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL). In the original study of Sağlam and Sali (2013), a sample of 50 pre-service teachers of EFL in their final fourth year of studies (an undergraduate teacher education programme) at a Turkish university participated in the research. During the course of their studies, they covered courses in methodology of foreign language teaching, teaching language skills and partially completed their practicum at schools. At the moment of data collection, the students were still in the middle of their school placement at secondary schools teaching English as a foreign language to Turkish teenagers.

In the present study, a sample of 40 pre-service teachers of EFL in their final year of M.A. studies to be EFL teachers was selected. They had completed their teaching practice the previous year (the 4th year of their studies). Like their Turkish counterparts, their programme of studies offered them extensive access to FL teaching methodology, linguistics and language courses. They were all enthusiastic teachers-to-be with some experience of teaching and a very strong sense of the need for further professional development. Thus, they were quite motivated to participate in the study as it was perceived by them as an important step in developing their professional awareness (personal communication).

3.3. Data collection tools and method of analysis

The original study used an open-ended questionnaire in Turkish which was administered at the end of the studies. It aimed to elicit students' ideas about "what constituted the elements of the foreign language learning environment" (Sağlam, Sali, 2013: 1123). The comments were to be based on students' "individual observations and understandings earned in their theoretical and teaching practice classes" (Sağlam, Sali, 2013: 1123). It has to be pointed out, however, that the term *questionnaire* was used by the researchers in a rather loose sense, as in fact, the subjects were to make an open-ended comment on their understanding of LE and not to respond to a set of defined questions, the traditional understanding of a questionnaire as a tool of data collection.

The categorical-content method of analysis (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, Zibler, 1998) was employed in data presentation and interpretation. The procedure consists in analysing all the written accounts (here subjects' open-ended comments) by eliciting the narrow sub-categories repeatedly occurring in the texts and conceptualizing them into more general and more specific categories (sub-categories). Sağlam and Sali (2003) identified seven major dimensions and 26 reoccurring sub-categories. For the purposes of analysis, the emerging subcategories were colour-coded, labeled and conceptualized as belonging to a larger category (dimension).

In the present study the data was collected by means of a narrative of 450 words entitled *The role of foreign learning environment in FL learners' achievement*. The students were asked first of all to comment in English (L2) on their own understanding(s) of what a learning environment stands for. Also in this study the categorical-content method of analysis (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, Zibler, 1998) was used for the purposes of data presentation and its interpretation, in which first, the categories were elicited from the narratives and then, they were quantified in percentages against the total number of responses extracted from the narratives.

It turned out that the categorization Sağlam and Sali (2013) came up in their data analysis was similar to the categorization in the present study. However, some additional sub-categories absent in the original study emerged. As such, they are discussed separately. Only the first part of the comments made by my students, that is those focusing on their LE perceptions, is commented on in the present discussion as it aims to replicate the focus of the study by Sağlam and Sali (2013).

4. Data presentation

As mentioned above, the general categories identified on the basis of the open-ended questionnaire (the original study) and narratives (this study) in the main

categories generated overlapped in both studies. One of the Polish trainees stated that a learning environment "is the intersection of the physical surroundings, classroom layout, décor, additional materials, the feeling it gives to the students" (subject 2), thus (as mentioned by another subject), it embraces "the place and the people who create it" (s. 18). These perceptions are reflected in the main categories and sub-categories of a FL learning environment identified in both studies. They are:

- PHYSICAL ASPECTS: the physical environment of the classroom (classroom seating arrangements, decorations, colouring, light, etc)
- SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS: positive classroom climate, collaboration, rapport, learner-centredness/learner needs, learner attitudes and feelings, teacher attitudes and feelings
- INSTRUCTIONAL APPROCHES & METHODS: instructional approaches, lesson content and delivery, instructional methods and techniques, language teaching materials
- LEARNER INVOLVEMENT: learner readiness, student learning, motivation
- PARENTAL SUPPORT/HOME
- LINGUISTIC ASPECTS
- ADDITONAL CATEGORIES

Table 2 shows the results for both studies. Table 3 shows additional categories which in the Turkish study were individual responses and which were not observed in the Polish set of data, as well as additional categories in the Polish study, which were absent in the Turkish data. These additional categories from the Polish study brought about quite high scores and thus, they may be considered significant for discussion of the perceptions of learning environment in the latter study group.

FL LEARNING ENVIRONMENT (categories and subcategories)	Turkish data (No 50)	Polish data (No 40)
PHYSICAL ASPECTS **Physical environment of the classroom**	22%	**69%**
SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS		
Positive classroom climate	19%	**68%**
Collaboration	4%	40%
Rapport	8%	41%
Learner-centredness/learner needs	4%	24%
Learner attitudes and feelings	23%	20%
Teacher attitudes and feelings	22%	20%
Mean values	13%	35%
INSTRUCTIONAL APPROCHES & METHODS		
Instructional approaches	22%	24%
Lesson content & delivery	22%	12%
Instructional methods and techniques	**70%**	41%

Language teaching materials	**71%**	**69%**
Mean values	**46%**	**36%**
LEARNER INVOLVEMENT		
Learner readiness	6%	0
Student learning	5%	0
Motivation	19%	12%
Mean values	**10%**	**12%**
PARENTAL SUPPORT/HOME	**7%**	**30%**
LINGUISTIC ASPECTS	**7%**	**4%**

Table 2: Major categories and subcategories in the Turkish and Polish studies (bold indicates the highest scores in both groups).

ADDIITONAL CATEGORIES: Turkish responses (22%)	ADDITIONAL CATEGORIES: Polish responses (80%)
Teachers' physical features	Security 36%
Cooperation between school administration and teachers/learners,	Other contexts/locations 30%
	Culture 24%
Teacher knowledge	Teacher's fairness 12%
Qualified teachers	
Learners' aptitude	
Learners' previous learning activities	
Stimuli in the learning environment	
Learners' physical features	
Rewards	

Table 3: Additional categories in both studies.

5. Turkish *versus* Polish pre-service FL teachers: discussion

As specified above, the main categories and subcategories elicited overlapped in Turkish and Polish responses in the majority of cases (Table 2) but additional categories emerged as significant ones in the case of Polish responses (Table 3). Great importance is attributed to learning environments for learner FL achievement by the subjects in both groups and both physical and psychological dimensions are evoked. However, the perceptions of individual aspects of a learning environment seen as physical and psychological are strikingly different in both groups. Turkish pre-service EFL teachers point to the direct influence of learning environment on learner achievement, whereas Polish trainees see it as an indirect influence on learners and their language achievements.

5.1. Physical aspects: Physical environment of the classroom

Both Turkish and Polish subjects consider the physical dimension as a significant aspect of a learning environment (22% and 69% respectively), however

Polish respondents see it as one of the major constitutive factors of learning environment compared with much less significance attached to it by the Turkish students. This was also the case in my previous study, which looked at trainees' perceptions of classroom space (Gabryś-Barker, 2010) expressed in the form of associations such as: seating arrangement, walls, posters, A-V aids, equipment, air, smell, cleanness, general appearance, size, windows, the building, outside the building, working area, functionality. Table 4 shows all the dimensions of classroom space, demonstrating a fairly homogenous picture of the central aspects of classroom space in its purely physical dimension (Gabryś-Barker, 2010). But the subjects in the previous study also emphasized a relation between the physical and mental spaces: here mental space described as the interaction between the teacher and learners and between learners themselves, individual autonomy - "space to breathe", classroom atmosphere. The study aimed at raising pre-service teachers' awareness of the complexity of the issue of classroom space in its physicality and its direct significance for psychological (affective) aspects of classroom instruction, in other words, its contribution to the effectiveness of teaching/learning processes in a given classroom context (Table 4).

Dimension	Examples
Physicality of the room	a. general appearance (architectural): walls, windows, lamps b. desk arrangement c. didactic objects: a-v aids/equipment, posters d. size (e.g. physical space between people) e. non-object qualities: air, smell. colour, cleanness
Pedagogical	a. spreading knowledge b. functionality (e.g. ease of movement) c. practicality (e.g. availability of aids)
Interactive/mental	a. feeling of ease b. classroom atmosphere c. silence d. breaking barriers e. "individual space to breathe" f. mental space between people g. opportunity to express oneself

Table 4: Dimensions of classroom space (based on Gabryś-Barker, 2010).

In another study (Czekaj, 2008), learner questionnaire data showed that 92% of the learners see the importance of physical classroom space and express their territoriality "In my territory I feel safe". Also, lesson observations carried out by Czekaj (2008) in her study show that the questionnaire data was verified. The changes introduced in seating arrangements were one of the most influential factors in introducing variety in a lesson. Also, the physicality of the teacher confirms the questionnaire data: "a sitting teacher = unnoticed teacher" (Czekaj,

2008), whereas constant movement around the class seemed to reinforce the teacher's authority and to decrease the amount of misbehaviour observed. Czekaj (2008) also saw the need for constant control of one's movement, which should be geared to the needs of learners and task requirements. Her subjects showed appreciation of eye contact and teacher gestures as a form of interaction and feedback. She observed that these non-verbal aspects of communication (interaction) can be used affectively as reward and punishment mechanisms, depending on the context. They were also seen as variables adding to the naturalness of communication in the classroom. Czekaj (2008) also rightly emphasized that movement, or motor activity of the body, contributes to the physical well-being of learners in the sense that it provides oxygen to help mental activation.

The Polish trainees in this study remember their own learning and their own classrooms at the times when school conditions were much more severe and less facilitative in terms of their surroundings. One of them recalls: "I remember that our classroom was very gloomy, placed in the basement of the school" (s. 21). However, with time, when the school was reorganised on entering the European Innovation Program, the student observed to her surprise "I was shocked when I came back to school after the summer break. The same classroom underwent a total transformation. They painted the walls orange and bought new furniture (…) such a change changed the atmosphere" (s. 12)

In this study, one of the trainees remembering her teaching experiences in kindergarten, describes two different rooms and the effects they had on her learners. The observation led her to the conclusion: "(…) to keep students active and motivated, and therefore high achieving, we need spacious rooms with enough light and a right colour-scheme, preferably such colours as blues and greens" (s. 9).

5.2. Socio-psychological aspects

The social aspect of this category is seen as expressed by collaboration (cooperation) and rapport, whereas the psychological aspect reflects the affectivity of teachers and learners. The socio-psychological dimension seems more significant in the eyes of Polish students (35%) than in the Turkish responses (13%). Whereas both groups point to learners' and teachers' feelings and attitudes, it is the Polish students who believe that a positive classroom climate is the most significant player in creating an effective FL learning environment (68%). This is well-expressed by one of the subjects:

> *A key to success is in positive psychology in the classroom. The un-stressful conditions of learning and the feeling of safety are an integral part of a successful teaching/learning (…) the positive classroom climate has the impact on cognitive*

and affective aspects of learning (…) If the learning environment is negative, it has a detrimental effect on the students' achievement. Thus, it should be in the teachers' competences to take care of the appropriate atmosphere and conditions for the students to be able to benefit from FL lessons (s. 1).

This is also expressed in the much higher values attributed to collaboration and rapport (40% and 41% in the Polish responses versus 4% and 8% in the Turkish data). All in all, these three categories, social, psychological and physical, present what Ambrose *et al.* (2010) consider to constitute classroom climate:

(…) the intellectual, social, emotional, and physical environments in which our students learn. Climate is determined by a constellation of interacting factors that include faculty-student interaction, the tone instructors set, instances of stereotyping or tokenism, the course demographics (for example, relative size of racial and other social groups enrolled in the course), student-student interaction, and the range of perspectives represented in the course content and materials (Ambrose *et al.*, 2010: 170).

Like Ambrose *et al.* (2010), these trainees are aware of the complexity of classroom climate and emphasise its defining qualities as "prevailing mood, attitudes, standards and what the teacher and the students feel when they are in the classroom" (s. 14).

In the previous study on classroom climate (Gabryś-Barker, 2015) hardly any comment was made on the role of student cohesiveness (group dynamics), satisfaction (enjoyment), innovation or individualization (learner decisions, autonomy). Here, reflection on the degree of connectedness between the students (bonds, common ground, *caring and sharing*), a key aspect of classroom dynamics is assessed as significant by 40% of the Polish subjects but only by 4% of the Turkish respondents. A similar result can be observed in the rapport category of responses (41% versus 8%). Comparing both groups, it seems evident that it is the Polish students for whom the affective dimension of a learning environment is a more important contributor to effective learning and achievement. At the same time, the attitudes and feelings of teachers and learners are also quite significant in the Turkish responses. However, it can be assumed that affectivity in the latter is more oriented towards an individual and not a class, functioning as a group, cooperating and establishing conducive to learning (and teaching). The Polish students acknowledge how important establishing appropriate rapport within a learning group is:

It is relatively easy to build a school, but it is not so easy to build a good rapport with the students. In order to do it, the teacher should encourage his students to form a supportive learning community based on trust and assistance (s. 6).

The role of a teacher is to create a friendly and supportive atmosphere within the classroom, making sure that all students cooperate. The teacher may encourage students to form learning groups, in which they will not only have an opportunity to learn but also to make friendships (s. 22).

5.3. Instructional approaches and methods

A significant aspect of any teacher's professional competence, among others, is his/her knowledge about and competence in using appropriate approaches, for example, making a choice between focusing more on teaching itself in a teacher-centred classroom or on learning in learner-centred classrooms, the ability to deliver lesson content, specific techniques and teaching materials. These aspects of teacher expertise were elicited in both studies as fairly significant elements in a learning environment. For the Turkish students in fact, language teaching materials (71%) and the instructional methods and techniques used (70%) constitute the highest categories. Sağlam and Sali (2013) comment on the above high scores for teaching materials by saying

The prevalence of language teaching materials in participants' accounts might be due to the existing physical conditions of the learning environments in the context of the present study where lack of materials and equipment remains a huge concern in the educational system. (Sağlam, Sali, 2013: 1124)

As far as the Polish pre-service teachers' responses are concerned, there is a strong emphasis on the value of teaching materials (69%), but not so much on the instructional methods and techniques, as is in the case with the Turkish trainees. This is interpreted in the original study as "a rather teacher-centred view of the foreign language learning environment" (Sağlam, Sali, 2013: 1125).

The importance of teaching materials is expressed by this short reflection by one of the Polish trainees on her learning experiences: "When I look back in time, I think of a great variety of didactic materials which I could see and touch in a language school and the scarcity of such teaching aids in the state school" (s. 1). Another trainee recalls her teaching in a primary school:

The classroom is full of pictures of plants, bugs, animals. We name them. Sometimes, when I ask my students to recall vocabulary they have learnt so far, they always look at those pictures and try to guess the names, or they simply point to the door, window or a chalkboard and say those words (s. 18).

5.4. Learner involvement

Learner involvement as a dimension of a learning environment is surprisingly not seen as a major category and even learner motivation is not considered vital for establishing a successful FL learning environment. The latter is cited in 19% of Turkish students' responses and 12% for Polish trainees. Additionally, learner readiness and learning itself, which can be interpreted as seeing learners as decisive agents in their achievement and success, do not score high in the Turkish group (6% and 5% respectively), whereas these categories do not appear in the Polish answers at all.

At the same time, the Polish trainees do see the role of learner involvement expressed as their autonomy as reflected in these words "The students should also feel independent as it is the teacher's role to make them proud of their own actions and success" (s. 20).

5.5. Parental support/home, linguistic aspects

Of the two remaining variables, parental support/home and linguistic aspects (target language input and exposure to language), parental support presents a value to Polish subjects of 30% but only 7% in the case of the Turks. The attitude of Polish trainees expresses the growing interest and involvement of Polish parents in the education of their children at all levels. Evidently, it comes from a fast-growing private sector in Polish education, in which parents have a major say in the way school functions not only on the organisational level but also to some extent in terms of its programmes. This is also apparent in parents' engagement in the process of educational reforms in the Polish system at the moment or in the recent past. In relation to foreign language instruction, it has always been parents' desire and belief that learning foreign languages was good for the future of their children. The latter would often have to enrol in FL courses at language schools, quite often against their wills. Both the positive and negative role of home context is reflected upon by this trainee:

> *(..) learner's situation at home plays a significant role in in learner's achievement. It is important for a learner to have a family support and good atmosphere at home because it enhances learner's motivation. (on the other hand) if a learner has problems at home, he or she may not pay any attention to language learning (s. 4).*

5.6. Other categories

The Polish data includes other contexts and locations as possible environments of language learning, which are surprisingly absent in the responses of

the Turkish group. It may be assumed then that Turkish trainees perceive learning environments as traditionally occurring in the classroom with its all traditional connotations concerning the physicality of the room - desks, usually arranged in rows, and a blackboard with a piece of chalk as the main teaching aids.

The Polish trainees (30%) point to other locations in which foreign language learning processes take place, locations with different characteristics and which put different demands on learners. One-to-one tutorials and language schools are very popular forms of foreign language instruction among Poles, and which also seems to be strongly reflected in this study. A study abroad period and the FL acquisition possibilities study abroad offers in various forms (e.g. by participating in ERASMUS programme) make the subjects emphasize them as significant and effective learning environments. All these contexts come up in the narratives. Just to quote an example:

> This notion is usually applied as a more appropriate alternative to classroom, which has traditional and less informal character.[sic] The above definition suggests that the students learn in many various contexts which may influence not only their passion for foreign languages but also their own achievement (s. 19).

In this context, Poles can be described as being more autonomous in searching beyond formal classroom instruction to develop their FL competence(s) than their Turkish counterparts.

One of the issues discussed by educationalists in Poland today is the different forms of learner abuse at school, such as bullying. Thus, it does not come as a surprise that security is singled out by the Polish students (EFL teachers to be), who already seem to feel anxious about such issues and fear they will have to face situations they will not be prepared to deal with (also personal communication). One of the more significant descriptive terms used by the trainees is safety, as in "the feeling of predictability and safety is also a part of a learning environment" (s. 7), "I always try to create an encouraging atmosphere where students feel safe" (s.15), "First of all, the learners' should be provided with a certain sense of security and stability" (s. 5) or in the words "School should definitely provide security for students (...) learners should feel welcome there" (s. 23).

The aim of this article has been to point out the differences in perceptions of FL learning environments by two fairly homogenous groups of trainees also with respect to possible cultural differences and how they are reflected in their respective educational contexts. However, culture as a variable in a learning environment in itself only emerges in the Polish responses (24%). The trainees see it, among other things, as

the role of the country in which the language is taught and learnt, namely its influence on learners' motivation and achievement (…). There is nothing more motivating than the possibility of using the language immediately after leaving the classroom (s. 25).

The same subject assumes that a major factor in learner language achievement also derives from a "general reception of the target language culture (e.g. due to tragic historical war experiences)" (s. 25). It can be assumed that young Poles see the educational system in Poland as embedded in a broader cultural context of the country, and not existing in its own right. This culture prescribes the role of school and other educational institutions. It determines the roles of the teacher, learners and parents alike. Following the recommendations of the European Union, combined with more individualistic attitudes of the Polish people, we can observe here a strong shift from a teacher-centred classroom to a learner-centred classroom - with focus on autonomy, reflectivity and crossing the classroom borders to gain learning experiences beyond it. School remains the mainstay of education, thus it should still be regarded as an enabling institution. Peterson (2006: 286) describes a profile of a school which is a truly enabling institution as being able to "decrease impersonality (of the school) and increase contact between students and teachers, which in turn increase(s) students' feelings of belonging and connectedness". This can be done also by, as one of the trainees said, offering more than what is prescribed in the programme: "(…) school should encourage students to learn by organising some extra projects, contests and activities" (s. 23). Thus, the essence of school should be in its *purpose, safety, fairness, humanity and dignity:*

> The basic unit of school, a class, is an administrative entity but first and foremost, it is a social group of pupils- learners and their teachers, who build, maintain and develop an intricate network of relationships in their daily interactions. These interactions establish a unique climate that governs the life of the group – a class. (Gabryś-Barker, 2015: 157)

6. The main findings: Turkish *versus* Polish pre-service FL teachers

Unanimously, future teachers ascribe great importance to learning environments for learner FL achievement. As expressed by one of the Polish students, "The learning environment is the key factor in achievement as it can either motivate the students and make them feel comfortable or it can discourage them completely in learning" (s. 5) and it is for the teacher "to provide a positive learning experience "(s. 13). The data obtained in both studies is hardly surprising as the expected understandings of the trainees of what a learning environment is is duly

registered. The physical and psychological dimensions of this construct are present in the responses, however, what it is important to look more closely at is how significant each of the individual aspects of a learning environment appears to be for Polish and Turkish pre-service FL teachers (Table 5).

Aspect	Turkish trainees	Polish trainees
Approach	Teacher-centred, Group-focus	Learner-centred Individual learners
Teacher expertise	Knowledge and teaching competence	Knowledge and teaching competence Management skills/psycholinguistic competence in relation to interaction and rapport
Affectivity	Individual feelings of teachers and learners	Individual feelings of teachers and learners Collaboration, rapport Group functioning (group dynamics)
Resources	Didactic materials Classroom language input	Didactic materials Classroom language input
Physical dimension	Classroom arrangement	Classroom arrangement Security at school
Contexts of learning	Classroom	Classroom, study abroad, home, one-to-one tutorials Culture of the country

Table 5: Inter-group comparison: Turkish versus Polish trainees.

One of the Polish trainees in the present study expressed his belief that "learning environment has a very profound effect on students' achievement either more directly by providing them with knowledge of language or indirectly by enhancing their motivation and willingness to learn" (s. 9). This statement expresses the difference between Turkish and Polish pre-service EFL teachers, in which the former emphasizes this direct influence of learning environment on learner achievement, whereas the latter point to what was called by one trainee (s.9) an indirect influence. What comes as a surprise in the responses of both groups is that although all the subjects are (or will be) teachers of English as a foreign language, they do not see that teaching a foreign language is not like teaching any other school subject. Teaching it gives them the powerful tool (that language is) to create a communicative, friendly and thus facilitative learning environment, but in the comments registered here, a foreign language is only perceived as a resource (knowledge input).
In the conclusion of their study, Sağlam and Sali (2013: 1125) state:

> One of the major findings of the present study was the overemphasis in data on the physical and instructional aspects of the foreign language learning environment, when compared to the socio-psychological and learner-related aspects.

It seems that a traditional approach to the teaching-learning process, focus on teaching and group learning as well as FL learning seen as limited to formal instruction in classroom settings, are the dominant perceptions of the Turkish trainees participating in the study. This leads Sağlam and Sali (2013) to the conclusion that what is needed in teacher-training programmes in Turkey is awareness-raising and reflectivity on socio-psychological aspects of the learning environment, which will create different understandings among trainees to facilitate a development of a more learner-centered classroom.

In the case of Polish trainees, their attitudes evolved from a more teacher-centred approach mainly focused on instruction and methods (Gabryś-Barker, 2012) to more learner-centred perceptions of the FL teaching-learning process with emphasis on cognitive aspects assuming the dominant role of socio-psychological features of the learning environment(s). This includes an understanding of a strongly affective dimension to the teaching-learning continuum. The evolution of Polish trainees' perceptions on teaching a FL observed by me over a long period of over thirty years points to a variety of both external and internal influences on teacher training and as a result, trainees' evolution. These external influences undoubtedly include:

- the European Union educational policies and recommendations in relation to FL teacher training such as for example, implementation in training courses of language portfolios or EPOSTL (European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages),
- mobility programmes of the European Union as an example of learning in other than state school contexts, often labelled as Study Abroad Periods, for example, TEMUS or ERASMUS, and
- development and promotion of private language schools and one-to-one tuition
- opportunities offered by educational programmes and technology.

The internal influences on trainees' evolution derive from the changes introduced in university and college programmes of studies such as:

- introduction of a new focus on socio-psychology, e.g. affectivity in FL didactic contexts, autonomy and individual needs, cooperation,
- introduction of reflectivity, action research, journal writing,
- focus on reflective teaching and reflective learning,
- emphasis not only on the cognitive but also the affective dimension in learning contexts,
- focus on learning and individual learner differences and a learner as an individual but functioning in a group; the significance of group dynamics, and
- FL education as a broader issue: the culture of school, or a country.

As can be seen, the evolution of the trainees' perceptions stems from very deep changes in the content focus of training programmes. However, it needs to be emphasized that it also derives from the changes in thinking about teaching from a more constructivist perspective, less authoritarian and more inclined to give space and autonomy to the trained, to give both the teacher and the trainee more of a voice.

7. Conclusions and a way forward

The observations derived from both studies bear out what was stated in the introduction to this article, that there is a need to continue questioning how our trainees, future foreign language teachers, perceive their prospective profession as their teaching environment and thus, also learning environments. These perceptions need to change and evolve with the changing demands put on teachers and we as teacher trainers and mentors need to be aware of this necessary process.

   The challenges of a modern school are much greater now, not only in respect of the knowledge and abilities needed but also relating to the wider social aspects of teachers' and students' functioning at school and beyond. As has been correctly pointed out by the Polish subjects, some urgent issues do not seem to have found their ways into methodology syllabuses. The missing topics embrace questions of physical and mental security and the frequent cases of bullying observed at schools, more inclusive attitudes to special educational needs learners (SEN) and the multifaceted role of home and family. Clearly, steadfast and continuous support should be given to various mobility programmes through which both learners and teachers can open up to new cultures, keep up their language competence, to mention just a few of the advantages of exchange and mobility programmes.

   Finally and most significantly, it is important to understand that it is the school that is the most powerful enabling institution creating a healthy learning environment by providing and guaranteeing the conditions in which learners can feel:

- Safe - That emotions are acknowledged and impacting how they (staff and students- addition mine) think.
- Accepted – How much individuals are allowed to "be themselves," as opposed to simply complying with expectations.
- Included - Encouraged to find a distinctive and a valid role for themselves.
- Listened to - That people can say what they think or feel knowing that this will have an impact on others and stimulate change.
- Competent – That there is a genuine interest in enabling them to realise their potential in whatever field they choose.

(Killick, 2006: 62)

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WHAT MAKES TEACHERS DEVELOP PROFESSIONALLY: SOME REFLECTIONS ON MOTIVATIONAL ISSUES IN THE CONTEXT OF POST-GRADUATE STUDY PROGRAMMES

Abstract

This article explores the concept of teacher professionalism, focusing primarily on factors motivating teachers to pursue professional development within the framework of formal, organized teacher development programmes offered by educational institutions. Its major purpose is to contribute to a better understanding of motivational issues involved in teacher education, or teacher learning, as it is sometimes referred to. Its other purpose is to liven up a discussion concerning language teacher education as a life-long experience. The article consists of two parts: its theoretical sections focus on the notions of *professionalism* and *a professional*, together with the concepts of *autonomy* and *reflection/reflective practice*, which are crucial from the point of view of teacher development. Next, factors motivating teachers to continue their development both as professionals and as individuals are addressed. The second part presents and discusses results of a small-scale individual research project which yielded some interesting data pertaining to motivational issues involved in teacher learning.

Keywords: autonomy, beliefs, motivation, professional development, reflection, reflective teaching, teacher-learner[1], teacher professionalism

Słowa kluczowe: autonomia, motywacja, nauczanie refleksyjne, nauczyciel-uczeń, profesjonalizm nauczyciela, przekonania, refleksja, rozwój zawodowy

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[1] 'Teacher-learner' is a term introduced to refer to teachers as learners in the process of developing their professional knowledge (cf. Breen and Mann, 1997; Tort Maloney, 1997; Smith, 2000).

1. Introduction

"The field of language teaching is subject to rapid changes, both as the profession responds to new educational paradigms and trends and as institutions face new challenges as a result of changes in curriculum, national tests and student needs" (Richards, Farrell, 2005: vii). Bearing that very fact in mind, we have to agree with Hirschhorn (2011: 48) when he claims that 'our industry', i.e. (English) Language Teaching (hence ELT), "now needs confident, eclectic teachers who, among other things, understand the value of reflection and can cope with a variety of teaching and learning contexts". As he further emphasizes,

> the days are gone when we could fill new teachers up with some PPP[2], add a couple of left-field techniques, wind them up and release them into the wild. We have grown into a far more demanding, technical, and 'savvy' profession and teachers today need to know much more about the research supporting – just to pick a random example – the process of error correction. Teachers today can benefit from understanding the essence of (in)tolerance of ambiguity, negotiation of meaning and so on (…). (ibid.)

Thus, if they want to remain in the profession, teachers have no other choice but to keep up with its growing demands and to go on with their education. To do that, however, they have to be convinced about the need to develop, and a good starting point may be becoming aware that teacher education/development is a life-long experience which depends, primarily, on one's ability and willingness to develop and change.

There are at least two key notions that deserve closer attention when talking about teacher education, namely professionalism and *a professional*[3] (cf. Finnocchiaro, 1988; Richards, Nunan, 1990; Ur, 1997; Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001; Richards, Farrell, 2005; Zawadzka, 2004; Werbińska, 2011). *Professionalism*, as defined by Ur (1997: 3), means "preparing oneself to do a competent job through learning" (…) which "continues throughout the professional's working life" and

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[2] **PPP** stands for **Presentation**, **Practice** and **Production**. In PPP classes or teaching sequences the teacher begins with **presenting** the context and explaining/demonstrating the meaning and form of the new language item. Then the students **practice** making sentences, paying attention to the form, before they are allowed to talk more freely about themselves and other people, this time focusing on the meaning (the stage of **production**) (cf. Harmer, 1998: 31).

[3] In this article, Ur's (1997) definitions of the concepts have been provided as, in the opinion of the present author, they are not only the earliest, but also, at the same time, the most comprehensive definitions of the concepts to date.

may take different forms, including pre-service or in-service courses, reflection on experience, reading, observation, discussions with colleagues, writing, and research. A '*professional*' is a term referring, broadly speaking, to "someone whose work involves performing a certain function with some degree of expertise" (ibid.). Ur asserts that "members of the professional group possess certain skills, knowledge and conventions that the lay population do not have". Furthermore, "the professional recognizes certain standards: of knowledge, of dedication and hard work, of behaviour and relationships with clients (learners, patients) and other professionals" (cf. Ur, 1997: 3).

It can be thus assumed that EFL teachers as professionals share certain characteristics; namely, they form/are a community, they are committed to reaching and maintaining certain standards of performance, they publish, communicating innovative ideas to others, they learn continually to become better educators, they are *autonomous*, taking responsibility for maintaining professional standards, and, finally, they are responsible for training new teachers (cf. Ur 1997: 5). As it is, to keep up with the requirements of the profession, and, more importantly, to be better prepared for their job, teachers have to go on with their educational experience, or, in other words, to pursue professional development.

2. Teacher professional development

The issue of *teacher professional development* is certainly not a new one. Back in 1986, Mary Finnocchiaro was one of the first to try to account for what was actually meant by the term. Having analysed different concepts emerging in the literature at that time, she compiled a list of areas in which "teachers should grow throughout their life time", which included:
- the *awareness* of their own (i.e. teachers') strengths and weaknesses;
- "more positive *attitudes* towards themselves, their students, their colleagues and supervisors, their communities, the needs of the country and of other countries";
- "their deeper *knowledge* of the social and personality factors of their students that can influence learning, of the content of their discipline (in our case, the English language), as well as of the culture and literature of English-speaking countries";
- "the enhancement of skills needed to present, practice, and appreciate the language system, literature, and culture of the target language with enthusiasm and clarity, while instilling social, moral, ethical, and cultural values in their learners" (cf. Finnocchiaro, 1988: 2).

In Finnocchiaro's opinion, the list was hardly complete without what she called 'habits' on the one hand, and the necessary knowledge and skills

that teachers should develop on the other.[4] Interestingly, she believed that there were *certain qualities in teachers that could be enhanced by various teacher-development programmes* (ibid.: 3-5; emphasis added).

Lange defines 'teacher development' as "a process of continual intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth of teachers (…) some of which is generated in preprofessional and professional inservice programs" (1990: 250). He then argues that 'development' differs from 'training'[5], (and 'preparation') as it allows "for continued growth both before and throughout the career". Also, the very term suggests that "teachers continue to evolve in the use, adaptation, and application of their art and craft" (ibid.).

In the same vein, Richards and Farrell (2005) explain that whereas "training refers to activities focused on a teacher's present responsibilities and is typically aimed at short-term and immediate goals" (ibid.: 3), development "refers to general growth not focused on a specific job. It serves a long term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for *reflective review* and can hence be seen as "bottom-up"" (ibid.: 4). It may involve, for instance, understanding how the process of second/foreign language development occurs, or reviewing teachers' own theories and principles of language learning (ibid.). They emphasize that teachers need regular opportunities for professional development which should include taking part in the following activities (2005: vii):

- engaging in self-reflection and evaluation
- developing specialized knowledge and skills about many aspects of teaching
- expanding their knowledge base about research, theory, and issues in teaching
- taking on new roles and responsibilities, such as a supervisor or mentor teacher, teacher-researcher, or materials writer
- developing collaborative relationships with other teachers.

Thus, it goes without saying that continual professional development constitutes an integral and necessary part of every teacher's life. However, we also have to remember that its ultimate goal is bringing about some kind of improvement in the way teachers teach, and/or students learn (cf. Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001: 5). In other words, teacher development needs to be considered

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[4] The knowledge and skills are important not only for the teachers' 'growth', but also their personal self-enhancement, whereas 'habits' (i.e. teacher behaviours or actions) "are conducive to a feeling of success not only in teachers but also in their learners" (Finnocchiaro, 1988: 3).

[5] See also Ur (1998: 21) for an in-depth discussion of the two notions, i.e. 'teacher training' and 'teacher development'.

in terms of benefits such as, for instance, increased institutional effectiveness, high morale and satisfaction on the part of teachers, and effective, enjoyable learning on the part of students.

3. Reflection and autonomy in teacher development

Crucial from the point of view of teacher professional development are the notions of *autonomy* and *reflection or reflective practice*. There seems to be a general consensus that only teachers who are *autonomous* and *reflective* can become responsible not only for teaching, but also for their own education. Richards and Farrell (2005: 7) believe that teachers learn from experience through reflection which is viewed as "the process of critical examination of experiences, a process that can lead to a better understanding of one's teaching practices and routines". As a result, they emphasize the value of reflective teaching which consists in "collecting information on one's own teaching as the basis for critical reflection, through such processes as self-monitoring, observation, and case studies" (ibid.). Such teaching is considered to be of key importance in teacher professional development as it motivates the teacher to become autonomous, i.e. to take over the responsibility for its course and the form it takes.

Tort-Maloney (1997, in Smith 2000: 89-90) perceives the autonomous teacher as "*one who is aware of why, when, where, and how pedagogical skills can be acquired in the self-conscious awareness of teaching practice itself*" (emphasis added). In a similar vein, McGrath (2000: 100) views teacher autonomy in terms of taking control over one's own life, *including control over one's own self-directed professional development*.

Breen and Mann (1997) as well as Smith (2000) suggest that we can actually view teachers as learners (in a variety of areas) and, accordingly, that it is possible to define teacher autonomy (at least partially) in terms of the "teacher s' autonomy as a learner" – i.e. "teacher-learner autonomy" which, according to Tort-Maloney (1997, in Smith 2000: 90), is "characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a socially responsible person".

If we look at teacher autonomy from such a perspective, it is apparent that an autonomous teacher-learner not only *has a right to choose* a way of learning and the needed materials, but also a way of teaching and making decisions about the necessary resources. Likewise, s/he is responsible for his/her decisions concerning goals and contents of his/her own learning, as well as goals in the process of education, his/her ability to control and evaluate, etc. Thus, what becomes of significance in the process of autonomous development

is, according to Mc Grath (2000: 102), teachers' self-awareness as learners.[6] As a result, there are many supporters of teacher education/teacher development programmes which provide experience in autonomy; i.e. programmes involving teachers in negotiation of aims, learning targets, course content, assessment of achievement, and other activities that teachers engage in on a daily basis in their teaching practice (cf. Little 1995, quoted in Mc Grath, 2000: 103). An ability to critically self-reflect is believed to mobilize the teacher-learner to think about own sources and contexts of beliefs, theories, and practices, and, accordingly, about the importance of those factors in the teacher's own relation with students.

When discussing autonomy and its role in teacher development, it seems only appropriate to emphasize the significance of choice which is a basic human right. It is kind of obvious that teachers, just like most of us, develop as professionals only if they choose to do so. Teachers may differ in their motives to develop, but, as Bailey, Curtis and Nunan (2001: 5) assert, what they have in common is "no choice, no way". "People who have no autonomy or control over what they do and are not responsible for how they do it can hardly claim to be professionals" (ibid.: 237). In other words, no one else can make a teacher develop; "if we are to develop professionally, we teachers have to do the developing for ourselves" (ibid.).

Yet another factor that deserves attention in this context are teacher beliefs. They have been given a lot of attention in the literature on teacher education because of their important role in helping teachers to make sense of what happens in language classrooms. It is especially beliefs about learners, about learning and its educational relevance, as well as teachers' beliefs about themselves (i.e. teachers' self-views) and their attitudes towards their subject and their learners (cf. Williams, Burden, 1997: 57-63) that have to be taken into consideration when discussing professional development.

As Williams and Burden (1997: 56) explain, beliefs "tend to be culturally bound, to be formed early in life and to be resistant to change", hence, they are highly influential and linked to teachers' "values, to their views of the world and to their conceptions of their place within it". More importantly, beliefs are "closely related to what we think we know but they provide an affective filter which screens, redefines, distorts, or reshapes subsequent thinking and information processing" (ibid.), which is something that many teachers

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[6] Little (1995, quoted in McGrath 2000: 103) draws attention to yet another important aspect of autonomy in language education. In his view, learner autonomy and teacher autonomy can be treated as interdependent. As he explains, "language teachers are more likely to succeed in promoting learner autonomy if their own education has encouraged them to be autonomous".

may not realize. For Williams and Burden it is crucial that "teachers should be aware of their belief systems and constantly monitoring how far their actions reflect those beliefs or are in keeping with them" (ibid.: 55). They perceive reflective teaching as having an important role to play in bringing to conscious attention what is implicit, i.e. making teachers' knowledge, views, opinions etc. clear and explicit, including teachers' beliefs about the value of and the need for continual education.

Summing up, it has to be emphasized once again that there is no professional development without autonomy and reflection, as not only do they account for teachers' ability to engage in the process, but also they motivate teachers to take over responsibility for the process and the course it takes. However, as Lange (1990: 255) states, "lifelong learning must be a construct in every teacher development program". Also, they need to be convinced that "(…) professional development is indeed worth pursuing" (Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001: 4).

4. Reasons for pursuing professional development

Pursuing professional development is an autonomous decision of every teacher, but the reasons behind it may be many and varied. As Bailey, Curtis and Nunan (2001: 243) explain, "professional development is influenced by situational variables, because language teaching and learning occur in social contexts, and factors inherent in those contexts impinge upon teachers' work". Also, the process can be looked at both from the point of view of the individual teacher, in which case it focuses on the teacher's own personal goals, or from the point of view of an institution, where the focus is on understanding the context in which s/he works – its nature, values, etc., as well as complying with the principles/requirements of the school.

Furthermore, teachers can pursue individual development, which is personal in nature, or they can decide to take part in an organized course or a programme. Individual development usually involves focus on self-awareness and self-observation, the practice of reflective teaching, keeping a teaching journal and writing an autobiography, and compiling a teaching portfolio. Teachers may also become involved in conducting their own action research, learning another language, etc.

Nowadays, rather than pursuing individual development, many teachers choose to take part in organized courses/programmes, even though such courses may not always be geared towards their real needs. According to Hirschhorn, trainee teachers/teacher-learners often "hurl themselves headlong through hoops of quasi-academia, instead of focusing on developing attributes of a good teacher" (2011: 50). They do not realize that some courses, especially those organized by higher education institutions, may follow an over-academic

model, ignoring the fact that "being academic or having the ability to pass exams is not part of what creates a good teacher" (ibid.). Also, another reason may be that such courses are considered as reliable and professional, being organized by experts in the field. Last but not least, their chief advantage seems to be built-in formal assessment procedures as well as the fact that upon their completion participants are provided with certificates.

Richards and Farrell (2005) claim that in spite of some disadvantages, such courses, in many cases, are beneficial from a motivational point of view. Bearing in mind that motivation is dynamic in nature and it fluctuates over time, such courses, if well planned and executed, can raise teacher-learners' motivation. For instance, they provide a forum where teacher-learners encounter colleagues or teachers from different schools with whom they can share problems and concerns as well as discuss different issues. As a result of working and/or talking with other teachers, a teacher-learner may then become more motivated to participate in other professional development projects. In addition, teacher-learners may become more self-confident both as individuals and as professionals.

Even though there have not been too many studies concerned with investigating motivational factors accounting for teachers' decisions to engage in professional development, the ones conducted to date allow us to come up with quite a comprehensive list of such factors as revealed by teachers working in different contexts. They include:

1. Increasing knowledge in the areas relevant for the teaching profession;
2. Acquiring new knowledge and skills – e.g. new techniques to use in class to solve a problem or to introduce variety and novelty;
3. Developing self-awareness – i.e. knowledge of oneself as a teacher;
4. Deepening one's understanding of learners, of curricula, and instructional materials;
5. Keeping up with change – as the world around is changing, it is necessary to become acquainted with e.g. new technologies, regulations and policy, etc.;
6. Making one more competitive on the job market – professional development may bring about an increase in income and/or prestige; it may also result in personal advancement and promotion;
7. Gaining power – "by increasing our knowledge base, we increase our power over our own lives"; "participating in appropriate professional development opportunities can lead to both empowerment and inspiration" (Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001: 7);
8. Combating negativity in teachers' educational contexts (cf. Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001; Richards, Farrell 2005).

9. Preventing or combating burnout which manifests itself in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1982: 3; quoted in Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001: 9);

10. Overcoming the sense of isolation on the part of the teacher – participating in professional development opportunities makes it possible for teachers to meet "like-minded people", to build a network of professionally active people;

11. Expanding teachers' conceptual understanding of teaching and their vocabulary for discussing that knowledge – being able to talk confidently with administrators, parents, students and other teachers about what we do and why we do it; "gaining confirmation and reaffirmation that what we do is worthwhile" (cf. Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001: 10).

It has to be remembered, however, that, as stated at the beginning of this section, learning and teaching take place in different educational contexts, so reasons to continue professional development may vary depending on the circumstances under which a teacher or a group of teachers function. Nevertheless, knowledge about motivational factors believed to have an impact on teachers' decision to take part in teacher development programmes is of significance for many reasons.

5. The study

The data reported on below come from a small-scale study conducted among participants of a post-graduate study programme addressed to teachers of English as a foreign language. The original purpose of the study was to seek teachers' opinions concerning the form and the content of the programme they had completed. As it turned out, however, the study yielded a lot of interesting data pertaining to motivational issues involved in institutionalized teacher learning.

The data were obtained from **16** respondents by means of a questionnaire which, originally, was e-mailed to **50** graduates (former participants) of the programme. However, as the researcher was the respondents' teacher, she could also rely on additional sources of information such as observation, (field)notes, and talks with the course participants taking place during regular classes.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts; in the first one (Part A) the respondents were requested to provide their biographical data, and additionally, there was a question inquiring about other forms of professional development that they participated in, and another one, asking respondents about professional burnout. The second part of the questionnaire (Part B – 12 items) contained open-ended questions related to different aspects of their teaching – be it language teaching or the teaching of other school subjects (where applicable).

The last part (Part C – 9 items) focused on the form and content of the programme they had completed and its perceived relevance for their professional and/or personal development. The language of the questionnaire was Polish to avoid any possible misunderstandings, but the respondents had a choice – they could provide answers either in Polish or in English, if they wished to do so. As it turned out, the respondents felt more comfortable addressing the questions in Polish, hence their answers had to be translated into English for the sake of the present analysis. It is worthy of note that the majority of respondents provided very detailed, and, hence, informative answers which allow to formulate some interesting conclusions concerning their views on professional development.

When it comes to the respondents' biographical data, there were **12** females and **4** males in the sample, coming from different parts of Poland. As far as their age is concerned, there were **4** teachers in the age range of **25-29** years, **9** - in the **30-39**, **2** – in the **42-46** years age range, and **1** teacher over the age of **50** (52 years of age). With reference to their teaching experience, the largest group were complete novices, with **1-2** years of experience (**6**), four (**4**) respondents had been teaching for the period of **4** to **6** years, **3** had a teaching experience between **8** and **12** years, and the remaining **two** (**2**) had been teaching for **16** and **18** years respectively. There was also one (**1**) participant who had never worked as a language teacher and was just beginning her career. In terms of their education/qualifications, **6** teachers were graduates of English Language Departments (with an M.A. diploma), **5** teachers graduated from other language departments (e.g. German, Spanish, Russian, Japanese) with English as their second major, and the remaining ones (**5**) were graduates of different university faculties (e.g. Pedagogy, Economics, Psychology, Political Sciences, Natural Sciences), however, they all had diplomas certifying their proficiency in English at a **C1 level**. The respondents worked in all kinds of an educational context, including state schools, higher education institutions, and private language schools.

Since the major focus of this article are motivational issues, an obvious question to start from is the one referring directly to **reasons behind the participants' decision to take part in an organized form of professional development**, in this case a post-graduate study programme (**Question 1, Part C**). As it turned out, the answers provided by the respondents were not very original. Nine (**9**) of them stated that their main reason for enrolling in the programme was *the need to comply with formal requirements*. Basically, they wanted *to obtain the necessary, sometimes new, certified professional qualifications ("to get pedagogical qualifications", "to become a fully-fledged teacher", "to get the required papers/to get the required papers in order").* Other reasons included *enriching knowledge in the areas of general didactics and language teaching; refreshing*

one's views on education and ways of teaching; deepening knowledge about the newest methods/trends in language teaching. As one teacher commented: *I felt the need; I was afraid of "getting into a rut".* Another one spoke about *the need to "charge his/her batteries"* and *the necessity to refresh/up-date his/her knowledge,* in addition to *"getting the required papers in order".* Yet another one also pointed to *the necessity to upgrade her qualifications,* but at the same time she admitted that *she felt the need to satisfy her own ambitions.*

On the whole, a rather short list of factors which respondents considered of significance in terms of having an impact on their decision to enroll in the programme may seem a bit disappointing, especially in comparison with some other data. However, as it turned out, the respondents' answers to subsequent questions provided more information on the topic. For instance, responses to **Question 2/Part C,** inquiring about **professional competences they expected to develop/improve in the course of the programme,** may suggest that respondents *were not fully satisfied with various aspects of their professional competence and that they felt the need to change the situation.* First and foremost, they pointed to cultural competence as the one they wanted to develop/improve, followed by information technology (IT) competence, and 'language teaching competence' (Pol. 'kompetencja metodyczna/ dydaktyczna'). Some of them expressed the need to develop and/or improve all competences which account for professionalism in language teaching.

Another question allowing to better understand teacher-learners' motives is the one asking them **to indicate roles they found most difficult to perform in class and to provide justification for such a situation (Question 10/B)**. As their answers show, the roles some of them had problems with included those of a *class tutor* (because of lack of experience on the part of the teacher in question, as well as because of administrative chores involved); *an evaluator* – as the teacher explained, s/he *"hated" giving marks as she was never sure whether they were fair;* however, she added that *she always made a decision on the final grade together with students; an innovator* (as the teacher admitted, *s/he liked working with a coursebook and hated creating his/her own exercises;* s/he explained that *when s/he was at school, teaching was not very innovative,* so for him/her *it was very difficult to break the routine*); *a researcher* (recognized as a very important role which, among other things, allowed to better understand the "students' situation", as well as to become aware of their current needs and expectations). One of the respondents admitted that *all teacher roles were difficult to him/her, as they were something new*; at the same time, however, *s/he did not find any of them overwhelming.*

When evaluating different courses in terms of their **usefulness from the point of view of professional development** (**Question 3/C**), teacher-learners

indicated the following ones: **teaching young learners, ELT (methods, inter-action in the classroom); language acquisition course, psycho-pedagogy, IT, and vocal emission.** One respondent expressed an opinion that from his/her perspective all courses were very useful. Unfortunately, except for two brief comments, the respondents did not elaborate on the subject. One respondent explained that the course she participated in made her conscious of the mistakes she made when teaching young learners, and another one praised what she called a very practical aspect of the psycho-pedagogy course and expressed an appreciation for having an opportunity to discuss issues in class.

Question 4/C, in which teacher-learners were asked to indicate **courses they considered beneficial for their personal development,** turned out to be a bit problematic, as some of them found it difficult to distinguish between professional gains and personal ones. Nevertheless, they pointed to the following courses: *language courses; vocal emission (I realized problems connected with using one's voice in the classroom and the necessity to control it); teaching practice (as it allows to discover your teaching skills); the so-called psycho-pedagogy course (which makes one aware of individual differences and the way they influence learning and achievement); "language didactics" i.e. ELT methodology (you can look at yourself as a teacher/makes one aware of oneself as a teacher);* and, finally, *an IT course (provides you with skills useful in life).*

Additionally, answering **Question 6/C**, the respondents admitted that **topics/issues discussed during classes contributed to their better understanding of what happens in a language class.** Among such topics/issues, the following were found to be of particular importance: *language acquisition theories,* which, according to teacher-learners help one understand how students learn; *teacher and learner roles in the classroom* – make one aware of oneself as a teacher *("what kind of teacher I am")*. Other topics/issues included: *individual differences; the structure of the lesson; teaching styles, ways of conducting a lesson; new teaching techniques/proposals – e.g. projects.*

Responses to questions **10/B** and **3, 4** and **6 (part C)** show that, on the one hand, respondents were able to recognize various problems they had with different aspects of classroom practice. On the other hand, however, they seem to suggest that respondents may have found it difficult to articulate their real motives or that they had not been aware of all their needs and lacks at the time of decision-making.

Responses to question **Question 7/C**, whose purpose was to find **what teacher-students learnt about their own teaching and themselves as language teachers,** provide further evidence that organized professional development courses may not only be motivating in themselves, but also that they can raise their participants' motivation. Thus, it seems that as a result of taking part

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in the programme, some teacher-learners gained confirmation that what they had been doing was right (*It turned out I have quite good intuition about teaching and make quite a good teacher; I realized I make a good teacher/can be a good teacher; It's not too bad!*), whereas others found an explanation or justification for their practices and beliefs *(I like alternative education which does not pay that much attention to rigid discipline; (…) I used projects without knowing about it; (…) I rely on partnership with my students*). It was also motivating for participants to meet other teachers ('*Talking to other people was invaluable*') and to find out that they '*have similar problems and achievements*'. Additionally, some of them claimed that '*the programme inspired them to introduce some changes into their ways of teaching*'. However, as other respondents admitted, at the same time the programme made them realise that '*they were not perfect*' and that '*there was a long way ahead of them if they wanted to become real professionals*'.

On the whole, it seems that respondents felt the need/were motivated to develop as teachers, which is further substantiated by their answers to questions concerning different forms of such an activity. For instance, with respect to **respondents' former experience with different forms of development (Question 5/A)**, it turned out that only **5** of them did not participate in any form of such an activity.[7] Out of those who did, only **4** were encouraged and supported by the institution they worked for, whereas **7** sought different forms of development *on their own initiative*. These included different kinds of short-term courses offered by local teacher development centres or local educational authorities, conferences and workshops organized by publishing houses and/or professional organizations, but also teacher training/development courses abroad. **Two (2)** teachers reported taking part in as many as **10** and **11** of such activities, and the remaining **5** mentioned **3** to **5** opportunities they took advantage of.

Finally, answers to **Question 12/B** provide **information about individual forms of development that teacher-learners engaged in to better understand their teaching**. As the responses show, **five (5)** of them did not engage in any activities of that kind (cf. note 7), although **one (1)** person declared that she would like to use questionnaires to get some feedback on her teaching. The remaining ones mentioned different forms of activities which included: *reflecting-in-action and modifying the course of the lesson on the spot if the need arises; talking to students (teenagers) during breaks and after class; taking notes and administering questionnaires on a regular basis; observing students; using student questionnaires; also, planning lessons carefully and reflecting on their course trying to find out why something went*

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[7] It has to be remembered that there were 5 novice teacher-learners in the group, including the one who was just about to begin her career as a language teacher.

wrong with a given activity or, on the contrary, what made it successful (reflection-on-action); (for the time being), engaging in self-reflection on one's own classes and talking to other teachers about shared problems; collaborating with a friend teaching in the same school[8]*; using a questionnaire at the end of the course.* **Three** (**3**) respondents added that their schools (private institutions) regularly administered questionnaires and made their results available to teachers. As one of the teachers explained, she usually analyzed students' opinions and remarks and tried to take them into consideration, as she believed them to be unbiased/honest, and thus helpful. It is also worth mentioning that teacher-learners who claimed to have been involved in individual forms of development, expressed the need to devote more time to such activities, complaining at the same time about lack of time.

A few words of explanation seem to be in order at this point. On the whole, present findings seem to suggest that the respondents were not only aware of the need to develop professionally, but also that they were willing/motivated to actively pursue such development. Hence, it can be assumed that they were largely conscious of their motives, which, in most cases, is probably related to their capacity to function as reflective practitioners. As it turned out, however, there were a number of instances where the motives were difficult to interpret. In other words, teacher-learners were not always able to explicitly articulate reasons behind their decision to take part in an organized form of professional development. Additionally, some of them were not quite consistent in their answers. For instance, as many as **four (4)** admitted that they actually experienced, to a certain extent, problems with **professional burnout (Part A, Question 1).**[9] It comes as a surprise then, that combating professional burnout was not mentioned as a reason for engaging in some form of development. In the same vein, it was interesting to discover that respondents did not feel the need to improve their language proficiency (in terms of linguistic or communicative competence)[10], even though they appreciated the

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[8] The teacher further explained that as they taught the same age groups and levels of advancement, they could choose the same coursebook and plan their lessons together, helping each other.

[9] In one case, as the respondent explained, burnout was triggered by administrative chores (writing reports, filling in different forms, "producing" documents of different kinds). Another respondent complained about not being appreciated by her superiors and colleagues, and yet another revealed that she kept getting signals from other staff members that her ideas were too innovative for their teaching context. The respondent, who actually admitted to have experienced symptoms of burnout, explained that even though she worked both in the public and the private sectors, the problem appeared only in the context of a private language school.

[10] It was evident that quite a few of them had language problems, as illustrated by their oral and written performance in English during classes.

so-called "practical English classes" and they perceived the 'language aspect' of the programme as a factor which contributed to their personal development.

As a further analysis of the responses shows, there were quite a number of aspects of classroom teaching which could be identified as requiring improvement and/or change, but, unfortunately, they were not explicitly recognized as such. Among problem areas mentioned there were teacher roles, teaching young learners, using a textbook, evaluation, assessment, etc. Again, a possible explanation may be that teacher-learners became conscious of those problems as a result of reflection triggered by their participation in the programme.

As mentioned elsewhere, it is worth pointing out that for some participants the programme itself was not only a source of new knowledge, skills and ideas[11], but also a source of motivation in that it contributed *to developing their self-awareness and/or deepening teacher-learners' understanding of their learners and the learning process* (the two factors are usually high on the list of motivational factors reported by other studies). Additionally, the programme was perceived as an opportunity to exchange views and/or beliefs concerning teaching and to reflect on teaching practices. As some teacher-learners' admitted, they were going to further pursue knowledge concerning some of the topic areas covered during different courses. All in all, their responses provide support for the claim that well-organized teacher development courses can raise their participants' motivation, boost their self-esteem, develop confidence, and, in general, contribute to their positive self-image as language teachers.

Summing up, as findings of the present study clearly show, teacher-learners' motives were predominantly very pragmatic, which is hardly surprising bearing in mind their educational background.[12] In that the findings are different from the ones reported by other studies, where, for instance, respondents were also motivated by personal gains (i.e. making one more competitive on the job market, gaining power, overcoming the sense of isolation; cf. pp. 168-169). It is quite optimistic though, that quite a few respondents admitted that actually they felt the need to look for new, improved ways of teaching, being aware that the ones they had at their disposal may not be adequate in a situation when they would be required to respond to a new and diversified range of learner needs in a variety of contexts. Interestingly, there

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[11] After completing the course, some respondents expressed an opinion that they actually improved the competences they wanted/expected to improve, which is quite optimistic.

[12] As noted elsewhere, more than half of respondents (10) did not graduate from English language departments and, as a result, they lacked the necessary "terms of the trade" which would allow them to become "fully-fledged members of the language (English) teaching profession".

were teacher-learners for whom the very possibility of "getting out of the rut" was a strong motivator.

Even though the study provides some interesting insights into motivational factors involved in decisions concerning teacher professional development, its results have to be treated with caution as they are likely to differ for another group of respondents. It is important to bear in mind that the number of respondents was rather small and that the composition of the group was rather unusual in that it included quite a few novices as well as graduates of other philology departments. Also, as the original focus of the study was different, the number of questions relating explicitly to motivational issues was rather limited and only some responses were valid from the point of view of the present analysis. As teachers work in different contexts, their attitudes towards professional development and reasons to pursue it are likely to differ as well, depending on their educational background, teaching experience, beliefs, level of autonomy and the ability to engage in reflective practice. These factors will definitely have to be taken into consideration when trying to account for motivational issues involved in teacher professional development.

6. Conclusions, pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research

Needless to say, bearing in mind a rather informal nature of the study and its other limitations, any conclusions based on its findings must be considered tentative. It is a fact though that, first and foremost, teachers must realize the value of professional development, they must want to learn, i.e. to be willing and motivated to devote their time and effort to the process of becoming professionals. As Bailey, Curtis and Nunan (2001: 246) assert, "professional development is not something that just happens: It must be actively pursued!"; they emphasize at the same time that motivation has a major role to play in the process.

Among factors having an impact on motivation, Williams and Burden (1997) list beliefs, including, among others, teacher-learners' beliefs about themselves (i.e. teachers' self-views), as well as beliefs about continual education and its relevance for acquiring the status of a professional. In their opinion beliefs, because of their importance, should be given due attention and attempts to change them should be undertaken when necessary. The teachers need to be convinced that what they are doing is, first of all, worth doing and that they will be able to deal with any potential problems successfully.

It is argued that these are primarily autonomous, reflective teachers who benefit from professional development, as they are the ones who are aware of why, when, where, and how they can develop and/or improve their pedagogical skills (cf. Tort-Maloney, 1997). Accordingly, reflective teaching is

viewed as having an important role to play in bringing to teachers' conscious attention what they may be unaware of; in other words it helps teachers make sense of their knowledge, views, opinions etc., including their beliefs about the value of and the need for continual education.

As far as pedagogical implications are concerned, it is suggested that research on motivational factors could be useful in terms of designing professional teacher development programmes. Clearly, people involved in teacher education/teacher development need to be concerned with and pay close attention to motivational levels of teacher-learners so that they will be willing to invest the time and effort which is required to succeed in professional development. Even though continual development is believed to be "the responsibility of individual language teachers, rather than the schools, programs, or universities for which they work" (Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001: 238; see also Lange, 1990), it is this author's contention that teacher-learners should be provided with an opportunity to participate in well-organized courses, tailored to their participants' needs, wants and lacks, which could become an additional source of motivation, serving to maintain or to revive teachers' interest in and enthusiasm for teaching (cf. Richards, Farrell, 2005).

More than two decades ago, Edwards (1996: 100) suggested that "(…) the process of learning to be an effective teacher in many ways parallels the process of learning to be an effective language user (…)". Just as language learners/users must do the learning for themselves, so must teachers learn to teach through teaching. Thus, effective teacher education courses should include, among other things, teaching practice activities to provide teacher-learners with the opportunity to learn through teaching. He strongly emphasized, however, that both groups, i.e. language learners/users and teachers "*need motivation to engage in their learning activities*" (ibid.; emphasis added).

Additionally, knowledge about what motivates teachers to develop could be helpful in terms of deciding on the form and content of potential courses, which should be based on a detailed analysis of and geared towards their participants' needs (tailored courses). Classes based on reflection as well as discussion relating to one's own practice should definitely constitute an important part of such programmes.

Summing up, professional development programmes should constitute an inseparable part of teacher education, as development in the changing world is simply indispensable. Equipped with the knowledge and experience coming from such instruction, teacher-learners would not only be capable to better understand both their own learning and the process of teaching, but also they could take control over it, thus becoming better and more successful language teachers. As educators of others, teachers seem to feel the need to

participate in on-going development and change in their professional lives. However, we should be cognizant of the fact that the reasons – motives – for which teacher-learners pursue development, are many and varied.

As far as suggestions for future research are concerned, it goes without saying that more studies of different nature are needed for a better understanding of how teacher-learners develop, what factors influence the process, and what can be done to make it more effective. Such studies should definitely rely on different instruments of data collection and should take into account different educational contexts in order to ensure higher validity and reliability.

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HOW TEACHERS DEAL WITH INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: RESULTS OF A STUDY

Abstract

The process and outcome of second or foreign language (L2) learning are mediated by an array of variables, the most important of which are perhaps individual difference (ID) factors (cf. Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, Ryan, 2015; Pawlak, 2012a, 2017a). It is therefore not surprising that such factors have been addressed by hundreds, if not thousands, of studies in the last several decades, and while the foci or methodology of such research have inevitably been subject to change, the role of individual variation in L2 has been taken for granted. Apart from illuminating the role of various ID factors, researchers have also attempted to draw up recommendations concerning how what we know about these factors can inform classroom practice. A question arises, though, about teachers' awareness of different facets of individual variation, the steps they take to capitalize on learners' individuality in providing instruction, and the degree to which they can be expected to successfully deal with ID factors in the classroom. The paper tackles these issues by reporting on a questionnaire study which involved 37 Polish teachers of English at different educational levels. The results indicate that, while the respondents are cognizant of individual differences and address them in teaching practice, their understanding thereof is limited and so are the actions they embark on in this respect.

Keywords: individual differences; individualization; learner training; variety in the language classroom

Słowa kluczowe: różnice indywidualne, indywidualizacja, trening ucznia, różnorodność w klasie językowej

1. Introduction

Learning a second or foreign language (L2), whether it occurs in instructed or uninstructed settings, poses a formidable challenge, with the process as well as its outcomes being affected by a host of factors. On the one hand, there may exist huge differences in the nature of access to the target language (TL) in the environment (e.g., in a second or foreign language context) and the nature of instruction that learners receive (e.g., main focus on communication or on the learning of language forms). On the other hand, L2 learning is bound to be moderated by a wide array of linguistic, contextual and individual difference (ID) variables (Ellis, 2010; Pawlak, 2017a), and while all of these factors are important, it is the last group that seems to be of vital significance. When individuals embark on the task of learning an L2, they bring to this endeavor their individuality, which is related, for example, to their cognitive aptitudes, beliefs, motivation, anxiety, learning styles or learning strategies (Cohen, 2010; Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 2008; Pawlak, 2012a, 2017a). In consequence, they process the language surrounding them in very different ways, they engage with the instructional options to which they have access to different degrees, and the level of proficiency that they ultimately achieve can vary quite considerably as well.

In light of this, it is not at all surprising that over the last few decades, hundreds, if not thousands, of empirical investigations have been undertaken with an eye to establishing how individual variation can impact the way in which learners approach their language learning and the progress they make in this domain. It should also come as no surprise that specialists have postulated that research findings in the area of individual learner differences should serve as important signposts for pedagogy in a variety of contexts. Ranta (2008: 151-152) writes, for example, that practitioners who are "committed to the principle of learner-centeredness should (…) address not only the real-life goals and learning preferences of students but also their cognitive processing needs. (…) accommodating the aptitude profiles of their learners is one way that teachers can provide instruction that will help their students become the best language learners they can be". Oxford and Lee (2008: 312), in turn, make the point that teachers "must understand the crucial roots of language learning such as age, gender, personality, and aptitude". Also worth mentioning is the conclusion reached by Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014: 244), who comment that by "looking into the kaleidoscope of people in the classroom, taking note of the patterns that are forming and the forces that cause those patterns to change, teachers and learners each can use the information emerging from emotion, cognition and behavior to understand and influence the ongoing stream of activity in the classroom". Although there is

certainly merit to the expectation that our understanding of the role of ID factors should be harnessed in the service of effective L2 instruction, a crucial question arises as to whether such a link between theory, research and classroom practice can be successfully forged. The present paper seeks to address this vital issue by reporting the results of a study which was intended to explore whether and to what extent L2 teachers are aware of the role of individual variation and take it into account when providing instruction. The first part of the paper will be devoted to a succinct overview of the latest developments in research on individual learner differences while the second will focus on the design and findings of the research project. Finally, an attempt will be made to illuminate whether and how future research on ID factors can be expected to pave the way for more effective instructional practices.

2. An overview of recent developments in research on ID factors in L2 learning

The body of research into the role of ID factors in learning additional languages is so vast that a thorough overview of this intricate field surely goes beyond the space that the present paper can possibly afford. Nevertheless, it is feasible to point to some general and highly conspicuous tendencies which are evident in this kind of research and to highlight the most important, recent developments in the empirical investigations of some ID variables. When it comes to the first of these, several clear-cut trends can indeed be seen in empirical investigations on individual variation (see also Pawlak, 2017a). First, as will be demonstrated below, some key ID variables, such as aptitude as well as motivation, have been subject to major reconceptualization since the time when their role in the process of L2 learning began to be investigated. Second, while some factors have fallen out of favor with researchers, good cases in point being gender or learning styles, attempts have also been made to isolate entirely new variables, such as boredom (Kruk, Zawodniak, 2018). Third, research has focused predominantly on variables that may be of little relevance to classroom pedagogy (e.g., aptitude, working memory) and there is scant empirical evidence on how ID factors that are very likely to be relevant (e.g., different learning strategies) moderate the efficacy of instructional options. Fourth, recent years have witnessed a growing impact of complex dynamics systems theories (Larsen-Freeman, Cameron, 2007) on research on individual differences, with the consequence that emphasis has been shifted from examining simple, linear relationships to investigating complex interactions among a host of individual and contextual factors, a phenomenon that is best visible in the case of research on motivation and willingness to communicate (Dörnyei, MacIntyre, Henry, 2013; MacIntyre, Legatto, 2011). Fifth, closely related to the

previous point, the paradigm shift has also brought with it a change in research methodology, with studies based on data obtained by means of carefully designed questionnaires administered to large populations giving way to empirical investigations that are intended to capture the dynamics and interplay of different ID factors in small groups with the help of a combination of different data collection tools. Sixth, despite trends of this kind, there has also been a realization that in order to fully understand the role of individual variation, it would be imprudent to ignore any line of inquiry. Therefore, there is a need to combine the macro-perspective, as embodied in large-scale correlational studies, and the micro-perspective, as seen in research seeking to tap into the role of contextual and individual factors in real-time, as in naturally-occurring L2 lessons (cf. Mystkowska-Wiertelak, Pawlak, 2017).

With respect to research findings connected to specific ID variables, the present overview can only be selective, both in terms of the ID variables touched upon and the cutting-edge developments that can be outlined. It is perhaps fitting to start with biological age, the role of which has generated so many misconceptions about L2 learning. In particular, it is clear now that it is more sensible to talk about sensitive rather than critical periods, that the impact of age is mediated by other factors, such as aptitude, motivation, or exposure, and that older learners may in fact have an advantage over younger ones due to their experience, adept application of learning strategies, or the specific goals they envisage for themselves (Cohen, 2010; Pfenninger, 2014; Pfenninger, Singleton, 2017). Another ID variable, the understanding of which has been subject to considerable modification is foreign language aptitude which is no longer considered in terms of Carroll's (1981) original model differentiating between phonemic coding ability, inductive learning ability, grammatical sensitivity and memory. Instead, the notion has recently come to be equated with working memory, in particular the phonological loop and the central executive, which, however, have been tapped in disparate ways in empirical studies (Wen, 2015; Li, 2017). Major advances can also be discerned in the study of motivation which has outgrown basic distinctions between instrumental or integrative, or extrinsic and intrinsic, and is currently most frequently understood in terms of the L2 motivation self-system, which includes ideal L2 self, ought-to self and learning experience (Dörnyei, 2009). In addition, motivation is no longer seen as a static attribute of a learner but, rather, something that is in a state of constant flux, both over the years and in the course of a lesson as well as the tasks and activities it comprises (Pawlak, 2012b). The same can be said about willingness to communicate, defined as "the probability to initiate communication, given choice and opportunity" (MacIntyre, 2007: 567), since research has evolved from early attempts to

identify its structure to efforts to pinpoint factors responsible for its fluctuations in real time (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, Pawlak 2017a; Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, Bielak, 2016). There has also been an evident increase of interest in the contribution of emotions to L2 learning, not only the primarily negative ones, such as anxiety (e.g., Gkonou, Daubney, Dewaele, 2017), but also, thanks to the increasing influence of positive psychology (MacIntyre, Mercer, 2014), also the positive ones, such as love, enjoyment or enthusiasm (e.g., Dewaele, Alfawzan, 2018; Gabryś-Barker, 2014; Pavelescu, Petrić, 2018). It is fitting as well in this section to mention language learning strategies which have been criticized on a number of fronts, with calls having been made to abandon the construct altogether and replace it with a more general and inclusive concept of self-regulation (Dörnyei, 2005). However, as can be seen in recent state-of-the-art publications (e.g., Griffiths, 2018; Oxford, 2017; Oxford, Amerstorfer, 2017; Pawlak, Oxford, 2018), there are many as yet unexplored avenues in relation to strategies, in particular with respect to specific TL skills and subsystems such as grammar, pronunciation, pragmatics (see e.g., Pawlak, 2018; Pawlak, Szyszka, 2018). Obviously, all these issues can be investigated both from a macro- and micro-perspective, also taking into account the tenets of dynamic systems theories.

It also makes sense at this point to refer to the ID factors that have only recently attracted the attention of researchers in the domain of L2 acquisition. One of those is boredom which has been investigated in the field of educational psychology but only in the last few years has begun to be considered as a factor mediating the process of learning additional languages. Even though this attribute may be at first blush regarded as the flipside of motivation, it is in fact distinct from it, not least because highly motivated learners may experience different levels of boredom in class and those who are overall demotivated may still take an interest in a particular task or activity (e.g., Kruk, Zawodniak, 2018). On the opposite side of the spectrum, researchers have started looking into the role of curiosity in L2 learning as a separate construct as well, showing that this attribute is positively related to willingness to communicate and enjoyment and at the same times correlates negatively with anxiety (Mahmoodzadeh, Khajavy, 2018). Yet another newcomer in research on ID variables in L2 learning is grit, understood as perseverance and passion for attaining long-term goals (Duckworth, Peterson, Mathews, Kelly, 2007). While the study by Yamashita (2018) failed to find a clear-cut link between L2 grit and achievement in learning Japanese, there are grounds to assume that the construct has considerable potential in explaining the outcomes of language learning, perhaps with the aid of novel data collection instruments. New avenues have also been opened up in the case of individual differences

among teachers, a good example being the study of language teacher immunity, a quality which allows practitioners to withstand the taxing challenges they are constantly faced up with in classrooms (Dörnyei, Hiver, 2017). Hiver (2017), for instance, demonstrated with the help of retrodictive qualitative modeling that this attribute is related to how teachers function on the psychological, emotional and cognitive levels, and that it helps them successfully adjust to the ever-changing exigencies of L2 instruction. The emergence of all these cutting-edge lines of inquiry appears to indicate that, despite all the reservations concerning the future of ID research, the domain is robust and holds considerable promise for explaining the process of L2 acquisition. This said, a crucial question arises concerning the extent to which research findings in this area are likely to make a valuable contribution to everyday teaching practice. This goal could be accomplished, for example, by striving to modify to a certain extent learners' individual profiles (e.g., through promoting style-stretching, offering strategies-based instruction, lowering anxiety), making an effort to match instruction to individual characteristics, as is the case with aptitude-treatment interaction, or simply varying the instructional procedures employed (cf. Biedroń, Pawlak, 2016; Gregersen, MacIntyre, 2014). Whether and in what ways teachers engage in practices of this kind are issues that were the focus of the study reported below.

3. The study

3.1. Aims and research questions

The aim of the study was to determine the degree to which foreign language teachers in Poland working at different educational levels are cognizant of the role of individual variation in their classrooms and the ways in which they adjust their instructional practices accordingly. More specifically, the following two research questions were addressed:
1.   How familiar are teachers with the concept of individual variation?
2.   What steps do teachers take to accommodate ID factors in their teaching?

3.2. Participants

The participants were 37 Polish teachers of foreign languages employed at different educational levels, the vast majority of whom were females (35 or 94.6%). Among them, 5 (13.6%) taught in elementary school, 7 (18.9%) in junior high school, 16 (43.2%) in senior high school, and 9 (24.3%) simultaneously worked at different educational levels, which, as a result of successive reforms, has become commonplace. Thirty-five participants (94.6%) were teachers of

English and only two of German. Their average teaching experience equaled 12.57 years and although the range stood at 27 years, the shortest experience amounted to 1 year and the longest to 28 years. In addition, as many as 27 participants (73.0%) had been working as language teachers for at least 9 years and thus the sample as a whole can be regarded as relatively experienced. Most of the respondents (32 or 86.5%) indicated that they regularly participated in workshops intended to enhance their teaching skills, but the type, duration and intensity of such courses varied considerably.

3.3. Data collection and analysis

The data were collected by means of a specifically constructed questionnaire which, in addition to items eliciting demographic information, providing the basis for the description of the participants in the previous section, contained seven open-ended queries. They focused on the following issues: (1) the individual differences that the respondents were able to observe among their students, (2) the ways in which the teachers attempted to tap into individual variation (e.g., with the use of existing batteries or questionnaires), (3) the steps the participants took to cater to ID factors in their everyday teaching, (4) the extent to which the respondents strove to modify the individual profiles of their learners (e.g., through strategy training), (5) the ways in which individual differences can be capitalized upon to make instruction more attractive, (6) whether the teachers viewed the existence of individual variation as a problem or as an opportunity to make instruction more effective, and (7) the ways in which the respondents used their understanding of ID factors to help learners find their optimal approaches to L2 learning outside the classroom. In order to encourage more extensive responses and to avoid situations in which some teachers would leave blank spaces due to insufficient TL proficiency, the questions were formulated in Polish, participants' mother tongue, and this was also the language in which they were expected to provide the answers.

The questionnaires were sent out by e-mail to the author's friends and colleagues who were involved in teacher training and could therefore easily access practitioners or were themselves school teachers and could help disseminate the survey. The questionnaires were completed by participants at the time of their choosing electronically or by hand, and were subsequently returned to the researcher. The collected data were subjected to a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis. The former involved tabulating the numbers of specific responses while the latter focused on the identification of distinct categories and patterns in the answers. In the latter case, since the respondents employed a variety of labels, it was necessary to decide which of those patterns

or categories a given answer represented, a procedure that was performed with the help of another researcher. Importantly, due to insufficient data, no attempt was made to establish how the participants' responses were mediated by the educational level, gender or teaching experience.

3.4. Findings and discussion

The findings will be presented in the same order in which the questions were included in the questionnaire and they will ultimately serve as a basis for answering the research questions formulated for the purpose of the study. When asked to list individual differences that they were able to observe among their students, the participants most frequently pointed to five factors, namely learning styles (21 or 56.8%), proficiency (19 or 51.4%), motivation (16 or 43.2%), personality (8 or 21.6%) and intelligence (6 or 16.2%). Other ID variables, such as aptitude, anxiety, gender, strategies, place of residence, family situation, or special educational needs, particularly those related to learning difficulties, were mentioned by one or two respondents. It should be emphasized, however, that the participants employed a variety of labels to describe individual differences. In addition, some of the comments were very brief, imprecise and sometimes even contradictory, which casts doubt on the teachers' genuine understanding of the contribution of specific IDs and may indicate that some of them may have simply regurgitated concepts they remembered from their methodology classes at the university. For example, proficiency was in many cases equated with aptitude or the ability to deal with specific learning tasks, intelligence was conceived of both in terms of general mental abilities and multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1999), motivation was described, among others, as interest, involvement or attitudes, and learning styles were at times conflated with learning strategies. The following excerpts exemplify some of the issues mentioned above:[1]

> When working as a teacher, I noticed differences in the ways of learning, the rate of learning vocabulary, proficiency level, motivation, the approach to coping with difficulties, personality and learning styles.

> Different levels of involvement and differences in intellectual abilities.

> Some learners are visual while others are auditory.

> Learners differ with respect to how fast they learn, intelligence, interests as well as their attitude to learning and motivation. They also represent different

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[1] All the excerpts have been translated from Polish into English by the present author.

learning styles and strategies, they have different family situations, which has an impact on motivation and learning opportunities. I also have many students who suffer from dysfunctions and require individualized instruction.

The situation looks even less optimistic in the case of the procedures that teachers embark on in order to obtain information about individual variation among their learners. For one thing, more than half of the participants (19 or 51.4%) openly admitted that they never attempted to embark on this kind of diagnosis. Of those who reported doing so, as many as 13 (35.1% of the total), stated that such efforts were confined to determining the level of the learners by means of some kind of diagnostic tests, placements tests or simply regular observation in class. A good example is the following comment provided by one of the teachers: "From the first grade I use learners' speech and writing (and later all other forms of evaluating their knowledge, such as tests, answers or compositions) as sources of information about their TL competence and then I compare the results". Only six respondents (16.2%) stated that they engaged in diagnosing individual variation but only three of those did this by administering questionnaires focusing on learning strategies (e.g., *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning*, Oxford, 1990), whereas the remaining two in the main focused on learners' needs, interests or learning difficulties, as identified by specialists. One in the latter group wrote: "I use a questionnaire where students assess on a scale from 1 to 5 their interest in the lessons, involvement in class or their diligence and systematicity in completing homework assignments".

The third open-ended query dealt with the steps that the participants took to deal with ID factors in their lessons and all of them reported doing so to a greater or lesser degree. Perhaps somewhat predictably in view of the results reported earlier, efforts in this respect targeted those aspects of individual variation of which the teachers were the most cognizant, although the foci were not exactly the same. The vast majority of the responses (26 or 70.3%) revolved either in part or in their entirety around catering for the needs of better and weaker learners. This was achieved in a variety of ways, such as, for instance, adjusting the pace of activities to the capabilities of the learners, matching students in different ways during pair and group work activities, assigning tasks at different levels of difficulty or including additional activities for better learners, asking more proficient students to act in the capacity of tutors, or differentiating assessment criteria. Ten respondents (27.0%) stressed the importance of variety in addressing individual differences, with some of them stating quite candidly that they are in no position to take into account the individual profiles of all of their students. Seven teachers (18.9%) reported their attempts to plan and conduct their lessons in such a way so as to ensure comparable

opportunities for learners manifesting different learning styles. Several respondents also mentioned ways in which they motivated their students or strove to take into consideration learning deficits but these were individual voices, even if examples of procedures applied were quite concrete. Such predominant tendencies are evident in the excerpts provided below:

> *My requirements are higher for students taking the final exam in English. I also try to allocate additional time to the better ones so that they can prepare for various contests. In class, weaker students are allowed to read their responses while the better ones are encouraged to rely on their memory.*

> *I use songs for auditory learners and pictures or films for those who are visual.*

> *I typically opt for a wide variety of tasks and activities done in the classroom so that everybody can find something for themselves.*

> *All of my students are motivated to get involved in the lesson. The weaker ones are given more time to respond or to complete tasks.*

> *I try to use differentiation when implementing activities and tasks by introducing pair and group work. As a result, less motivated learners can work with those who are highly motivated. Similarly, in such arrangements, more proficient or able students can help those who experience problems.*

> *I do my best to differentiate activities with respect to different skills, paying special attention to learners with special educational needs.*

What may come as somewhat of a surprise, as many as 30 out of 37 participants (81.1%) acknowledged that they set about modifying the individual profiles of their learners. On closer inspection, though, it becomes clear that such attempts were extremely limited in scope and some of the responses indicate that the respondents may simply not have had sufficient grasp of the concept. Nineteen of the teachers (51.4%) made references to motivating students by, for example, rewarding active participation in class by means of an additional credit, using Internet and computer technology, selecting topics that are of interest to students, organizing pair and group work, praising learners for their performance, providing appropriate feedback or offering encouragement, and bringing interesting people into the classroom. As one participant wrote, "I try to motivate students by assigning additional homework assignments related to students' interests, starting cooperation with schools in other countries (e.g., correspondence, working on joint projects), promoting the use of Internet-based resources". What clearly emanates from the data is that the attempts to foster motivation are quite haphazard rather than principled, drawing, for instance, upon some framework

of motivational strategies such as that proposed by Dörnyei (2001). Only a handful of teachers (6 or 16.2%) mentioned taking steps to help students change the strategies they employ, take into account predominant learning styles or adjust instructional procedures to their personalities. Also in this case it was hard to uncover any premeditated plan for effecting changes in individual learner profiles, with the actions described often giving the impression of ad hoc, one-off, reactive measures. There were also a number of comments that can be regarded as clearly irrelevant, such as the following: "Learners have a chance to take part in remedial classes that help them catch up" or "I look for different topics and exercises. We work on projects so that everybody can find something adjusted to their level and abilities". One of the participants who reported her failure to shape ID factors in any way openly admitted that her students at the age of 15 are "reluctant to experience any changes".

In the next question, the respondents were asked whether, as suggested by Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014), they attempt to capitalize on individual variation to make their classes more attractive. Although as many as 30 teachers (81.1%) stated that they in fact did so, most of the responses were largely repetitions of or elaborations on the practices which they reported using for dealing with ID factors, such as trying to fall back on a variety of instructional procedures or introducing additional tasks. This said, some noteworthy answers were provided as well. One of the teachers wrote, for example, that she tried to use authentic materials such as songs with gaps, short films and videos or different types of games. Another made the following comment: "All learners have their passions and if an opportunity arises to build on this in class, it is always worth it. (…) For example, learners conduct lessons with my assistance, which gives them much freedom and influence on what and how they teach. Sometimes, such lessons are more effective than mine since learners can explain grammar problems in a simpler and more approachable way because they had to learn it themselves and prepare for the class". The respondents who stated that they did not utilize individual variation to enhance the attractiveness of their classes mainly admitted that they did not see how ID factors can be harnessed in this way. One of them wrote: "I know I should build on individual differences to make my lessons more attractive but I do not know how, as this is usually a problem".

Somewhat related to the previous issue was the extent to which the respondents viewed the existence of individual differences among learners as an asset or a liability. Interestingly, a vast majority of the teachers (28 or 75.7%) were of the opinion that individual variation had a positive impact on what transpired in foreign language lessons. Some in this group commented that it was "something natural" and therefore had to be dealt with and exploited for the

benefit of the students. Others offered a wide range of reasons why diverse individual profiles tended to play a positive part by indicating that learners grow by being exposed to learning styles and strategies with which they may have been unfamiliar, they have the opportunity to learn from their more advanced peers, they are more likely to see their strong and weak points, and they are also more motivated to get engaged in the lesson. Another crucial argument was the fact that individual variation was a powerful motivator for the teacher forcing him or her to be more creative, respond to individual needs and invest considerably more effort in preparing lessons. Eight respondents (21.6%) admitted that the existence of individual variation simultaneously constituted an advantage and a disadvantage, and the extent to which it benefitted the learners hinges upon a specific situation. In particular, they pointed to the difficulty of dealing with huge differences in TL proficiency, addressing ID factors in large classes, or adeptly capitalizing on them with young learners. Overall, however, one can hardly escape the impression that individual variation was once again mainly viewed in terms of the level of TL proficiency. The following excerpts illustrate some of these points:

> *Individual differences can have a positive influence on the process of learning. Better students can have an impact on weaker ones and they can motivate the teacher to organize lessons in such a way that both groups are equally involved.*

> *Individual differences require more time and attention from the teacher. If they are taken account of, they will always benefit the learners.*

> *Individual variation can have a positive impact on language learning, particularly when students are encouraged to work in groups, share their ideas, etc. However, too extreme disparities in TL proficiency and the pace of learning can diminish the motivation and achievement of the better students.*

> *Individual variation is a fact of life. You just have to identity the differences and adjust your teaching accordingly.*

As pointed out by Pawlak (2017b), while capitalizing on learners' individuality may pose a major challenge in the classroom, understanding individual variation may play an essential role in helping students learn more effectively in their own time. With this in mind, the participants were also queried whether they tried to utilize their familiarity with individual learner profiles to optimize the learning process outside the classroom. Also in this case, the results can be seen as quite optimistic since as many as 31 respondents (83.8%) reported taking some steps in this respect, even if not all of them were always pertinent to ID factors as such. Many teachers wrote that they tried to familiarize learners with strategies for learning vocabulary or grammar, and honing

different TL skills, others recommended additional materials and in particular Internet-based sources, and there were a few who even held in-class discussions about the best ways of learning and encouraged experimentation in this respect. One of the participants commented: "Most importantly, I try to get learners to look for their learning styles on their own. I suggest using Internet resources. I set up for them a discussion group on Facebook where I put links to useful websites or additional tasks for those who are interested". Another teacher explained: "I request learners who have problems with learning vocabulary to use word cards. Those who experience difficulty with listening are asked to watch films or TV series in English with Polish subtitles".

It is warranted at this juncture to refer back to the two research questions that guided the present study. When it comes to the first of them, it is evident that teachers are at least to some extent cognizant of the existence of individual differences and their impact on the effectiveness of the process of language teaching and learning. The question arises, however, as to the depth of this knowledge and their ability to obtain requisite information about the individual profiles of their learners and here the picture is no longer so optimistic. First, the spectrum of IDs that the respondents mentioned was rather narrow, very few of them went beyond the obvious, such as motivation, styles or strategies, and none made a reference to such crucial variables as beliefs, working memory or willingness to communicate. Second, it is clear from the analysis that the understanding of some of the ID variables was rather superficial, the participants often seemed to just reel off what they remembered from their methodology courses, and there was visible confusion about some factors. Third, perhaps not overly surprisingly, individual variation was very frequently seen as synonymous with different levels of TL proficiency rather than factors typically discussed in the literature. Fourth, mirroring the previous point, diagnosing IDs was mainly confined to determining the differences in the mastery of the language being taught and only a handful of participants tried to tap into strategy use, learning styles or motivating and demotivating factors. Obviously, such a situation must have ramifications for how the teachers actually deal with individual differences, which was the focus of the second research question. On a positive note, it should be stressed that most of the participants take some steps to address individual differences, view them as an ally rather than an enemy and, surprisingly, some of them even report attempts to modify the individual profiles of their learners. It is also clear, however, that most of the reported efforts are directed at catering for various proficiency levels, a finding that is predictable as such differences are immediately visible in the classroom and constitute a real, tangible problem. On the other hand, it would perhaps be unrealistic to expect teachers to do much with

respect to such factors as aptitude or working memory, mostly because they clearly lack the necessary expertise in this respect. What is undoubtedly optimistic is that the majority of the respondents attempt to build on individual variation outside the classroom. This may be reflective of the fact that they are aware of the inherent difficulty of addressing IDs in the classroom but at the same time realize that making students aware of their styles, strategies or preferred ways of learning may best be taken advantage of in their own efforts to improve the TL.

4. Conclusions

The present paper has reported a questionnaire study which aimed to determine the extent to which teachers in Polish schools are familiar with the existence and contribution of individual learner differences and the extent to which they engage in concrete practices to address such factors when providing instruction. While the situation is somewhat more optimistic than could have been anticipated, at least in some respects, it is also obvious that there is a major gap between the research findings regarding IDs and the pedagogical recommendations advanced on their basis, and what teachers actually do on a daily basis in their classrooms. Therefore, there is an urgent need to devise ways in which this gap could be bridged, also keeping in mind that research in some areas, such as working memory, may be less relevant to everyday concerns of practitioners than research in other fields, such as learning styles, learning strategies, communication strategies, motivation, anxiety, beliefs or willingness to communicate (Biedroń, Pawlak, 2016). A crucial caveat is that the study is limited in some important respects, related, for example, to the small number of participants, sole reliance on a questionnaire as a data collection tool, or failure to distinguish between different educational levels. This only goes to show that there is a need for more research on teachers' awareness of individual differences and the ways in which they deal with them in their classrooms because their results might provide scholars with food for thought for their future research endeavors. They are also likely to sensitize researchers to the fact that some ID factors may not be relevant to everyday L2 instruction and that unfeasible pedagogical proposals are only likely to make practitioners even more skeptical about the utility of theories of second language acquisition and the empirical investigations which such theories generate.

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DEKLARACJA CZŁONKOWSKA

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